

**LINGUISTIC OPPRESSION THROUGH ZONAL LANGUAGE MONOPOLY: A CASE  
OF KAFUE RURAL LITERACY CLASSES**

**Njekwa Njekwa**

**ID: 227136640**

**A Dissertation Submitted to Chalimbana University in Fulfilment of the Requirements for  
the Award of Masters of Education in Applied Linguistics**

**Chalimbana University**

**LUSAKA**

**2024**

## ABSTRACT

The study on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in Kafue rural literacy classes used the three-language orientation theory propounded by Ruiz (1984). Utilizing a descriptive phenomenology design, the study adopted a qualitative methodology. Purposive sampling was used to sample four schools and 12 teachers. The study used interpretivism paradigm to inform its findings under the following three objectives: (i) to describe how linguistic oppression affect learner performance through zonal language monopoly in literacy grade one classes of Kafue District (ii) to establish the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes of Kafue Rural District, and (iii) to explore the existing solutions on linguistic practices that teachers use to teach learners in a linguistic minority area of Kafue Rural. Teacher's interview guide and classroom observation aided data collection which was coded and analysed thematically. The study revealed that language oppression affected learner performance through language barrier, poor participation and delayed cognitive development. The language monopoly excluded learners who spoke other languages, limiting their participation and academic achievements. Additionally, the linguistic oppressive practices experienced were in relation to forced language assimilation, language marginalization and curriculum bias. It was established that only Nyanja textbooks and materials were available for use in class. There was not a single aid written in Goba, the community language. Furthermore, the study revealed that the existing solutions on linguistic practices that teachers used in a linguistic minority area of Kafue rural literacy classes were code-switching and peer to peer translating. However, the linguistic practices were used only to improve communication between the teacher and the learner but not to prevent language marginalization and language loss. The implications of these findings are that language policy reforms are necessary to recognize and support linguistic diversity. Further, teachers need training on inclusive language practices and language support strategies. Community involvement is also crucial in promoting language diversity and addressing linguistic oppression. The study recommends that in this linguistic minority area, particularly in Chiawa zone of Kafue district, code-switching and peer-to-peer translating is seen to be fertile for use in promoting learning outcomes, language diversity and inclusivity.

**Keywords:** *Linguistic Oppression; Linguistic Diversity; Zonal Language; Linguistic Minority; Language Monopoly*

**DECLARATION**

I, **Njekwa Njekwa**, do hereby declare that this dissertation is of my own and that all the work of other sources of information and literature related works used in the production of this dissertation have been duly acknowledged by the author and that this work has not been submitted to any other university for similar purposes.

**Author's Signature:** ..... **Date:** .....

**Supervisor's Name:** ..... **Date:** .....

**Signature:** .....

## **COPYRIGHT**

No part of this dissertation should be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system or transmitted by any means such as mechanical, electronic, photocopying recording or otherwise without the prior written permission from Chalimbana University or author.

© 2024

**Njekwa Njekwa**

All rights reserved.

**CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL**

This dissertation by **NJEKWA NJEKWA** has been approved as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Applied Linguistics by Chalimbana University.

**Examiner 1**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**Examiner 2**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**Examiner 3**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**Chairperson Board of Examiners**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

**Supervisor**

Name: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my wife Judith Nosiku Njekwa for her unwavering supporting system to my education and profession. In addition, dedicate this work to my children: Njekwa, Nalishebo, Nyambe, Nosiku and Namukulo for supporting my education endeavors. Lastly, my parents Mr. Namukulo Njekwa Christopher and Mrs. Namukulo Josephine Wakung'uma now in glory; Alubina Mulele for opening doors of opportunities for me to accessing higher education.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

My gratitude to the Almighty Heavenly Father for keeping me safe and alive for enabling read for the study of Master of Education in Applied Linguistics at Chalimbana University.

My wife Judith Nosiku Njekwa for being supportive throughout the programme and particularly for encouraging me even when I was passing through difficulty times. I should have stopped and concentrated on other things, but she continued encouraging and giving me hope for the future.

The Kafue District Education Board Office for permitting me to visit primary schools in the area and the headteachers from the four sampled schools I visited for allowing me to collect data. Further, I would like to give gratitude to the particular teachers and pupils who supported my work by giving me consent to have them as participants.

My fellow course mates in Applied Linguistics with whom I lived with like a family from August 2022. Thank you all for the encouragements and guidance in any way which you rendered to me in my academic success.

All the lecturers who taught me during the first part of my Master of Education in Applied Linguistics namely Dr Kasonde, Dr C. Mwiinga and Dr F. Nyimbili.

Dr F. Nyimbili for particularly assisting me to settle on the topic and guiding me up to proposal level.

My supervisor Dr F. Nyimbili for his unwavering guidance and support up to the final stage of the whole process. Dr F. Nyimbili, accept my sincere gratitude.

| <b>Table of Contents</b>  | <b>Page</b> |
|---|-------------|
| <b>ABSTRACT</b> .....   | i           |
| <b>DECLARATION</b> .....  | ii          |
| <b>COPYRIGHT</b> .....  | iii         |
| <b>CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL</b> .....  | iv          |
| <b>DEDICATION</b> .....   | v           |
| <b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....  | vi          |
| <b>ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS</b> .....   | x           |
| <b>CHAPTER ONE</b> .....  | 1           |
| <b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....   | 1           |
| <b>1.0 Overview</b> .....   | 1           |
| <b>1.1 Background to the Study</b> .....  | 1           |
| <b>1.2 Statement of the Problem</b> .....   | 5           |
| <b>1.3 Purpose of the Study</b> .....   | 5           |
| <b>1.4 Research Objectives</b> .....  | 6           |
| <b>1.5 Research Questions</b> .....   | 6           |
| <b>1.6 Significance of the Study</b> .....  | 6           |
| <b>1.7 Theoretical Framework-Language Orientation Theory</b> .....  | 7           |
| <b>1.8 Delimitation of the Study</b> .....  | 9           |
| <b>1.9 Limitation of the Study</b> .....  | 9           |
| <b>1.10 Definition of Operational Terms</b> .....   | 9           |
| <b>1.11 Chapter Summary</b> .....   | 10          |
| <b>CHAPTER TWO</b> .....  | 11          |
| <b>LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....  | 11          |
| <b>2.0 Overview</b> .....   | 11          |
| <b>2.1 Linguistic Oppression Affecting Learner Performance in Multilingual Classes</b> .....                              | 11          |
| <b>2.2 Linguistic Oppressive Practices Being Experienced Through Zonal Language Monopoly</b> .....                        | 17          |
| <b>2.3 Linguistic Practices That Teachers Can Use to Improve Learner Performance in Linguistic Minority Classes</b> ..... | 24          |
| <b>2.4 Chapter Summary</b> .....  | 33          |
| <b>CHAPTER THREE</b> .....  | 34          |
| <b>RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....   | 34          |
| <b>3.0 Overview</b> .....   | 34          |
| <b>3.1 Research Paradigm</b> .....  | 34          |



|  |                                     |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 3.1.1 Research Approach .....  | 35                                  |
| 3.2 Research Design.....   | 35                                  |
| 3.3 Population .....   | 36                                  |
| 3.4 Sample .....   | 36                                  |
| 3.5 Sampling Procedures .....  | 36                                  |
| 3.5.1 Purposive Sampling .....   | 37                                  |
| 3.6 Research Instruments .....   | 37                                  |
| 3.6.1 Interview Guide .....  | 38                                  |
| 3.6.2 Classroom Observation .....  | 39                                  |
| 3.7 Data Collection Procedure.....   | 39                                  |
| 3.8 Data Analysis .....  | 40                                  |
| 3.9 Trustworthiness.....   | 40                                  |
| 3.9.1 Credibility .....  | 40                                  |
| 3.9.2 Transferability .....  | 41                                  |
| 3.9.3 Dependability .....  | 41                                  |
| 3.9.4. Confirmability .....  | 41                                  |
| 3.9.5 Authenticity.....  | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| 3.10 Ethical Consideration .....   | 42                                  |
| 3.10.1 Approval of the Study .....   | 42                                  |
| 3.10.2 Informed Consent.....   | 42                                  |
| 3.10.3 Confidentiality and Anonymity .....   | 43                                  |
| 3.11 Chapter Summary.....  | 43                                  |
| <b>CHAPTER FOUR.....</b>   | <b>44</b>                           |
| <b>FINDINGS OF THE STUDY .....</b>   | <b>44</b>                           |
| 4.0 Overview .....   | 44                                  |
| 4.1 How is Linguistic Oppression Affecting Learner Performance through Zonal Language Monopoly in Grade One Literacy Classes of Kafue District?..... | 44                                  |
| 4.1.1 Findings from the Interviews with Teachers .....   | 44                                  |
| 4.1.2 Classroom Observation Data .....   | 51                                  |
| 4.2 What are the Linguistic Oppressive Practices Being Experienced through Zonal Language Monopoly in Literacy Classes? .....                        | 52                                  |
| 4.2.1 Findings from the Interviews with Teachers .....   | 52                                  |
| 4.2.2 Classroom Observation Data .....   | 58                                  |
| 4.3 Which Linguistic Practices Do Teachers Use to Teach Grade One Learners in A Linguistic Minority Areas? .....                                     | 59                                  |

|   |           |
|---|-----------|
| 4.3.1 Findings from Interviews with Teachers .....  | 59        |
| 4.3.2 Classroom Observation Data .....  | 63        |
| 4.4 Chapter Summary .....   | 65        |
| <b>CHAPTER FIVE .....</b>   | <b>66</b> |
| <b>DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS.....</b>  | <b>66</b> |
| 5.0 Overview .....  | 66        |
| 5.1 Linguistic Oppression Affecting Learner Performance through Zonal Language Monopoly.....                    | 66        |
| 5.2 Linguistic Oppressive Practices Being Experienced through Zonal Language Monopoly in Literacy Classes ..... | 71        |
| 5.3 Linguistic Practices Teachers Use to Teach Learners in A Linguistic Minority Area.....                      | 75        |
| 5.4 Chapter Summary.....  | 77        |
| <b>CHAPTER SIX .....</b>  | <b>79</b> |
| <b>CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>  | <b>79</b> |
| 6.0 Overview .....  | 79        |
| 6.1 Conclusion.....   | 79        |
| 6.1.1 Conclusion of Objective One .....   | 79        |
| 6.1.2 Conclusion of Objective Two .....   | 79        |
| 6.1.3 Conclusion of Objective Three.....  | 80        |
| 6.2 Recommendations .....   | 80        |
| 6.3 Recommendation for Future Research .....  | 81        |
| 6.4 Chapter Summary.....  | 81        |
| References .....  | 82        |
| Appendices.....   | 90        |
| Appendix 1: Research Instruments .....  | 90        |
| Appendix 2: Letter of Permission from DEBS .....  | 92        |
| Appendix 3: Ethical Clearance from Chalimbana University .....  | 93        |
| Appendix 4: Introductory Letter from Chalimbana University.....   | 94        |

## **ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS**

EFL – English as Foreign Language

EGRA – Early Grade Reading Assessment

ELL – English Language Learners

L1 – First Language

L2 – Second Language

LOI – Language of Instruction

MESVTEE – Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education

MOE – Ministry of Education

MOI – Medium of Instruction

MT – Mother Tongue

NLF – National Literacy Framework

PLP – Primary Literacy Programme

PRP – Primary Reading Programme

SACMEQ – Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality

TL – Target Language

U.S. – United States

UNICEF – United Nations’ International Children Education Funds

WIS – Windhoek International School

ZNAS – Zambia National Assessment Survey

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.0 Overview**

The chapter presented the introduction to the Linguistic Oppression through Zonal Language Monopoly. It begins with the background information to the study followed by the statement of the problem, aim of the study, research objectives and research questions. The study also outlined the significance of the study and the theoretical framework. The chapter concludes with the limitation and delimitation of the study, definition of operational terms and chapter summary.

### **1.1 Background to the Study**

In a linguistically and culturally diverse landscape of Zambia, the importance of language cannot be over emphasised as it denotes a culture where people use their native language to interact with each other within and beyond their ethnic groups. In a classroom setup, language is believed to play a central role in learning. It is for this reason that during pre-independence era, learners were taught in familiar local language for the first four years (Mkandawire, 2017). However, after independence, English was made the sole media of instruction in schools from grade one to tertiary education. Comparatively, studies have shown that using a language that learners know helps in the learning process and makes it more effective (Mkandawire, 2017).

Zambia being a multilingual country has faced challenges regarding suitable choice on Language of Instruction (LoI) at lower primary level since pre-independence. These challenges on language policy led to the introduction of Primary Reading Programme (PRP) in 1999 by the MoE. Literacy instruction in this programme was done in a local Zambian language familiar to the learners. The use of familiar local language for literacy instruction was supported by research and the Ministry of Education policy, *Educating Our Future* (1996). The PRP was meant to address the language problem associated with the teaching of initial literacy aimed at improving literacy levels among school going children at lower and middle basic in Zambia (Mkandawire, 2017). However, the PRP failed to improve literacy levels among school going children in both English and Nyanja language because of factors related to family, pupil, teacher and school (Chipili, 2016).

Recognising the literacy challenges, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) then revised the curriculum in 2013 and developed a draft National Literacy Framework (NLF) with support from cooperate partners as an intervention to address the weakness noted under the PRP. The 2013 NLF introduced the Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) which was implemented in 2014 with emphasis on the use of familiar local languages as medium of instruction from pre-school to grade four. The PLP was implemented using the seven zonal languages, namely, Bemba, Tonga, Lozi, Lunda, Luvale, Nyanja and Kaonde (Chibamba, A. C., Mkandawire & Tambulukani, 2018). The term familiar language in the policy document does not refer to the local language of the community but rather to zonal languages. Although the PLP emphasises the use of local Zambian languages as medium of instruction among early graders, there is convincing evidence that language policies overlook the community's actual languages of play, which could be useful in the teaching and learning process (Chipili, 2016). Besides, not all government primary schools are located in communities where early graders can sign or speak a zonal language. Despite the language policy being good, some Zambian learners whose familiar languages are not one of the seven zonal languages used in schools are experiencing language oppression.

In other words, if learners cannot use the resources they bring to class, particularly command and proficiency of their native language, their academic success gets affected. This assertion is supported by studies which revealed that literacy levels have been low among early grade learners for a long time (SACMEQ, 2010; USAID/Zambia, 2018; 2022; Mkandawire, 2022; Silavwe et al. 2019; Chipili, 2016). Learners from linguistic minority groups needed a flexible language policy that could benefit grade one learners. However, the current language policy does not support this practice in Zambia. Nkolola (2011) revealed that local language empowers pupils, and they participate actively in class. Additionally, using unfamiliar language such as English for literacy education cripples and destroys the child's productive and mental processes in education (Mkandawire, 2017). This evidence is that using mother tongue-based instruction as a familiar language to a child empowers the child to think, act and processes information faster. Nevertheless, the linguistic situation in Kafue, particularly in Chiawa zone was unique. The familiar local language was Goba, which was a local language and language of play by the majority grade one learners. The Nyanja language grade one learners used in school for instruction was different from

the Goba language they used at home. Therefore, it is important to highlight the linguistic diversity situations of Zambia.

Zambia has a long history of multilingualism due to the existence of multiple languages spoken in the country (Iversen & Mkandawire, 2020). Kafue District, particularly in Chiawa Zone is one of the areas in Zambia where speakers of the minority languages are domiciled, thus the focus of the study. This study was premised on the Goba (people of the low river valley) ethnic group that lived on the banks of the Zambezi River and survived through peasant farming. The Goba were forced to move away from the banks of the Zambezi River to pave way for the construction of Kariba dam. Scudder (2005) contended that the completion of Kariba dam did not only bring development but also affected the Goba ethnic group. Matanzima (2022) adds that the displacements of the Tonga-Goba people occurred after their initial resettlement in the 1950s. This group migrated from the banks of the Zambezi River and settled on the dry lands of Chirundu and Kafue along the lower Zambezi and Kafue Rivers respectively. The Goba people are Zambians who are speakers of the minority language with a Shona dialect known as Kore-kore. In the education system, migration and urbanization such as that of the Goba people caused multilingualism and has adverse impact on the acquisition of literacy skills among early graders. Tamabulukani, (2015) contends that migration and urbanization may have contributed to the creation of the problem of multilingualism in education. Since the Goba ethnic group settled in Kafue area and Kafue District being found in Lusaka Province, Nyanja was assigned to use as medium of instruction in all government primary schools (Ndeleki, 2015). The Nyanja language being taught in schools and the Goba, a local language in which the learners were thinking and expressing themselves were different. Therefore, the Goba learners were being denied the right to acquire quality education. Because of this lapse, learners in the lower grades have poor reading habits (Silavwe, Mwawa & Mkandawire, 2019).

With regard to a multilingual classroom, it implies the presence of two or more languages spoken in the classroom (Iversen & Mkandawire, 2020). For this reason, it could be agreed that a multilingual classroom constitutes language varieties spoken by individual learners and teachers from different speech communities. Because of language policy rigidity that did not support the democratisation of the use of language varieties in literacy classes, most of the schools in Zambia have exhibited low literacy levels. Therefore, multilingualism should be taken as a notion in which speakers' spaces of interactions and linguistic resources are not constrained by rigid domain

boundaries (Mambwe 2014). Teachers and learners from diverse linguistic backgrounds should use the available linguistic resources to facilitate teaching and learning. Consequently, it becomes necessary to consider the different linguistic choices made by learners and teachers and the implications thereof to the monolingual language policy. Therefore, this study was motivated by the interest to investigate whether there was or no linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly among the grade one literacy classes.

Additionally, the approval by the Ministry of Education to use the seven zonal languages also affects literacy levels in a multilingual community. Nkolola (2013) contended that although the official language is English, there are also seven official languages that are approved to use in schools within their zonal boundaries. However, this arrangement created challenges for the instruction and learning of reading in the early grades in Zambian schools. Zambia should move away from the typical western education model premised on the One Nation, One Language, or in the case of Zambia, One Province, One Language monolingual, to models that draw on pupils' multilingual heritage as a way to bridge community and school-based language policy practice Banda & Mwanza (2017). For instance, the Goba children living in Chiawa of Kafue District in Lusaka province were officially learning to speak Nyanja in the classroom when the local language spoken at home is Kore-kore. Their language was being forced into hibernation thereby causing language oppression.

It could be argued that language oppression is the most violent type of linguisticism in that it does not only subjects speakers of certain language to regimes of ascription and discrimination but also aims to transform them forcefully through coerced language loss (Roche, 2019). Therefore, it was important to look at the sociolinguistic of the minority grade one learners in Chiawa zone and how they were linguistically oppressed through zonal language monopoly. Taff A, Chee M, Hall J, Hall MYD, Martin KN, Johnston A., (2018) contended that language oppression is the enforcement of language loss by physical, mental, social and spiritual coercion. Language oppression is a form of domination that is coherent with other forms of oppression which is connected to language learning. This concept is part of an evolving suite of ideas from linguistics, sociolinguistics and linguistic anthropology that focus on language discrimination. The loss described here is directed not simply at individuals, families, and communities, but at the entire population that speaks or

signs a language and is thus driven by an eliminatory logic (Wolfe, 2006), manifested through a relationship of domination, usually in the context of national or colonial occupation.

The study, therefore, looked at language use and choices from the perspective of sociolinguistics and not from language education but only analyses data from the classroom domain. This means that the language practices in the classrooms were not analysed from the perspective of teaching methods rather, the focus was on language learning. There is currently no study in Zambia that has been conducted to investigate linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in a linguistic minority area of Kafue rural, thus the need for this study.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The policy on language use in initial literacy in all government schools in Lusaka Province is Nyanja which was selected on the assumption that it was a familiar language to most of the children (Ndeleki, 2015). Kafue District being found in Lusaka Province, Nyanja was allocated to it. However, grade one learners in Chiawa Zone of Kafue District have found themselves learning Cinyanja, a language they could not speak, thereby creating conflict between (Nyanja) the zonal language policy and (Goba) the community language practice thus contributing to learners' poor literacy performance. Language differences may influence instruction and learning outcomes (Rigole2014). Although Zambia's Ministry of Education is implementing the 2013 Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) in primary schools, studies' findings demonstrate that learners' reading and writing skills were still inadequate (Silavwe, et al. 2019). Given the mismatch between zonal language policy and community language status in the school systems, the study was undertaken to investigate linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in Chiawa Zone of Kafue District, whose current study fills the gap. Therefore, the research problem in the study was that it was not known what linguistic oppressive practices affected learning through zonal language monopoly in selected multilingual grade 1 literacy classes of Kafue District of Zambia.

## **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to investigate linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly on grade one learners who were speakers of the minority language in Chiawa zone of Kafue District.



#### **1.4 Research Objectives**

- i. To describe how linguistic oppression affected learner performance through zonal language monopoly in literacy grade one classes of Kafue District.
- ii. To establish the linguistic oppressive practices experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes of Kafue Rural District.
- iii. To explore the existing solutions on linguistic practices that teachers used to teach learners in a linguistic minority area of Kafue Rural.

#### **1.5 Research Questions**

- i. How was linguistic oppression affecting learner performance through zonal language monopoly in literacy grade one classes of Kafue District?
- ii. What were the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes of Kafue Rural District?
- iii. Which linguistic practices did teachers use to teach learners in a linguistic minority area of Kafue Dural?

#### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The significance of the study was that it may help the Ministry of Education become aware of the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes. The study may provide evidence on how the language policy was being implemented. Policy makers may be informed of linguistic practices that could be used by teachers to improve learner performance in linguistic minority areas. The study may add knowledge and created academic debate on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in linguistic minority grade one literacy classes. Further, the findings of the study may benefit teachers and stakeholders on the supportive language practices used in a linguistic minority area. Furthermore, the findings may also contribute to the body of knowledge and debates on the impact of using zonal language in a multilingual setup.

## **1.7 Theoretical Framework-Language Orientation Theory**

A theoretical framework is a structure that supports a research study's theory (Casanave and Li 2015). The study was guided by Ruiz (1984) language orientation theory premised on language policy and planning. Ruiz was concerned with the prevailing deficit on linguistic minority and sought to offer an alternative by coming up with three orientations to language planning described as language as a problem, language as a right and language as a resource. The theory was adopted because Nyanja, language of instruction presented language variation as a problem and that monolingualism in a dominant majority language was valued. In this study, the linguistic minorities were not seen as assert, but as a limitation that needed to be overcome (Ruiz, 1984). Kafue District being in Lusaka Province, Nyanja became LoI in all primary schools despite other schools comprising linguistic minority learners. The assumption that speakers of the minority languages were assimilated into the speakers of the majority language (Nyanja) was unfair to the early graders using (Goba) Kore-kore, their local and familiar language.

In the study, multilingualism, which is viewed as a resource in education setup, was seen as a problem on one hand if used to facilitate literacy development. Negative attitude towards the use of local language coupled with the child's movement between schools meant changing from a local language to an entirely new language environment (Chibamba, et al., (2018). This situation led to social isolation and limited social networks. Multilingual learners face difficulties when the curriculum is designed primarily for monolingual speakers. This gives rise to a variety of obstacles in reading and writing, resulting in lower academic performance levels (Mulikelela, 2013). In a multilingual society, issues relating to inadequate language instruction and associated teaching strategies were rarely considered, yet they were key factors in literacy development and one of the main causes of poor literacy skills in Zambia, (Mkandawire, 2017). In Zambia, there seems to be a monolingual ideology underlying the language policy. Ruiz's Language Orientation Theory (1984) supported the findings on linguistic oppression affecting learner performance. The theory's orientations aligned with the study's conclusions. Zonal language monopoly in this study was viewed as language as a problem orientation contributing to linguistic oppression thus negatively impacting the minority linguistic learners' performance. Teachers' use of learners' language to make them understand the concept was seen to be language as a right orientation promoting learners' language rights, aligning with the study's emphasis on linguistic diversity and inclusion.

Therefore, in this study, language as a resource orientation values linguistic diversity, supporting the study's findings on the benefits of multilingualism.

Language as a right seeks to address linguistically based inequalities using the compensatory legal mechanisms. In a broader perspective, language rights are understood as what is legally codified about language use, with special attention to the human and civil rights of minorities to use and maintain their languages (Hornberger, 1990; Hult, 2014). However, Zambia has diverse linguistic communities that use different dialects to share meaning. These dialects were not congruent with the language of instruction in schools, thereby taking language policy fitting the linguistic diversity of the Zambian majority. If the Zambian government gave mandate to language policy planners to use the principle of language as rights in language planning, they would achieve the rights enshrined into the learners' classroom language practices to attain their education needs. This study takes language as a right to the learners and the classroom. The findings on linguistic oppressive practices through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes were supported by Ruiz (1984) language orientation theory. The Nyanja dominant language and zonal language was imposed on learners viewing minority language as a problem to be solved, perpetuating linguistic oppression. Language as a right orientation disputes these findings, the theory advocates for language rights, contradicting zonal language monopoly, a single language, highlighting the need to recognise and respect learners' language rights. In this study, language as resource orientation values linguistic diversity contradicting the suppression of minority languages and emphasises the benefits of multilingualism and language diversity in literacy classes.

Language as a resource has a direct impact on enhancing the language status of subordinates (Ruiz, 1984). Linguistic diversity was viewed as a resource rather than as a problem. In relation to the classroom and literacy teaching, minority language users in class were given an opportunity to express themselves and share experiences in their own language. A classroom was perceived as a resourceful place for language use which translated into knowledge acquisition for a good learning environment. In light of Ruiz (1984) language orientation theory, this study has shown that zonal language monopoly stems from a monolingual ideologies and assimilation mind set thereby creating a problem. In other words, the selection of language of instruction based on the speakers of the majority language is problematic in a multilingual society. In this linguistic minority area both teachers and learners used the available linguistic resource to foster learning which would

have been impossible if teachers had only used Nyanja, the zonal language and official language of instruction among early graders. Therefore, in this study, the linguistic support practices used by teachers were considered as human right according to Ruiz (1984) language orientation, hence the need to support the language as a resource to bridge the gap between language of instruction and the community language where early graders do not sign or speak the zonal language.

The theory of the three-language orientation supports language diversity and adds value to the acquisition of literacy skills. The theory was suitable for this study on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly as it was used to dispute the use of zonal language as medium of instruction in Chiawa Zone. Therefore, the theory guided the study to draw a conclusion to bridge the gap between (Nyanja) zonal language and (Goba) community language to add value to acquisition of literacy.

### **1.8 Delimitation of the Study**

The study was delimited to investigating linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in selected government primary schools in the Goba speaking community of Kafue District.

### **1.9 Limitation of the Study**

The limitation of the study was that only four primary schools in Chiawa Zone were sampled. Since the study was confined to grade one learners, the findings could not be generalised to other linguistic minority areas in Zambia.

### **1.10 Definition of Operational Terms**

**Code-switching** – The practice of alternating between two or more languages or language varieties in a single conversation, text or interaction.

**Familiar Language** – A language which is not mother tongue but well known and commonly used in a place or province of Zambia.

**Language Marginalization** – A process where a language is relegated to a lower status, stigmatized or excluded from social nuances leading to limited access to education.

**Language Monopoly** – The power of language purposely to control people’s intellectuality around the world to stay head and shoulder above them.

**Linguistic Diversity** – The varieties of languages spoken within a community or region encompassing multilingualism.

**Linguistic Oppression** – The enforcement of language loss by physical, mental, social and spiritual coercion.

**Local Language** – Language which is special to a place since it is a language for people of that area, preferably a mother tongue.

**Mother Tongue** – The language which a person acquires first in his or her life and becomes and becomes the natural instrument of thought communication and expression.

**Multilingual** – A country or society where many languages are spoken; or a person who speaks many languages.

**Predominant Language** – A language commonly used in a society with a lot of influence on people

**Zonal Language** – The seven Zambian languages used in schools to teach literacy from grade 1 to 4 (also called regional language)

### **1.11 Chapter Summary**

The chapter presented the introduction to the study entitled: *linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly*. It began with the background information to the study followed by the statement of the problem, research objectives, significance of the study and the theoretical framework. The chapter concludes with the limitation of the study and definition of operational terms. The next chapter reviews literature related to the study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.0 Overview**

The previous chapter was an introduction to this study which highlighted the background, the statement of the problem, research objections, limitation and delimitation. This chapter provides a review of the literature related to linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly. The chapter begins with a discussion of literature related to research objective (i) To describe how linguistic oppression affect learner performance through zonal language monopoly in literacy grade one classes of Kafue District; objective (ii) To establish the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes of Kafue Rural District ; and objective (iii) To explore the existing solutions on linguistic practices that teachers use to teach learners in a linguistic minority area of Kafue Rural. Each study cited ends with a paragraph linking it to the current study and provides the gap in existence to justify the need to undertake the present study. Literature review will be presented focusing on the studies conducted outside Africa, in Africa and Zambia.

#### **2.1 Linguistic Oppression Affecting Learner Performance in Multilingual Classes**

Pulinx, Van Avermaet, & Agirdag (2017) conducted a study whose aim was to deepen the understanding of the dynamic of interaction between language policies, school characteristics and teachers' beliefs about monolingualism. The study was done in Flanders (Belgium), a region characterised by educational policies which were based on a stringent monolingual ideology. This was a survey of 775 teachers from across 48 secondary schools. The study examined how the policies affected teachers' beliefs, whether and how teachers' beliefs vary between schools, and what consequences of these beliefs were. The results of this multilevel analysis showed that teachers strongly adhered to monolingual policies, while there were also significant differences across schools, which were related to the ethnic composition of those schools. Cumulative findings have shown that a stronger adherence to monolingualism was found to trigger teachers to have lower expectations about their students but not about their ability to teach. Using interviews and observations, the research current study establishes how the use of Cinyanja presents challenges

in the learning process in a linguistic minority area in literacy classes and how teachers engaged learners to promote learning.

Rogers (2014) conducted a study at an international Indonesian school to discuss the possibilities and effects of different language policies on second language learning and on the relationship between language and cultural identity. Using qualitative research approach, the study discussed the degree to which a foreign language or second language teaching was useful, and the physical effects of bilingualism and multilingualism, and how they would be applied in teaching and in school policy to improve education. A survey was conducted to examine the effects of learning more than one language at a young age, and of learning subjects through a language which is not the first language. The study found this to be detrimental in several ways. Further, it was revealed that many were concerned about the possibility that languages with a smaller number of speakers were doomed to being lost and replaced by a national language. The researcher observed that the use of national language could have important repercussions both on local cultures and on international relations, given the emotive aspects of one's first language. Additionally, the researcher noted that vital discussions on language were frequently made based on the need for English and national language in career development. However, it was observed that the language teaching was not actually succeeding in improving students' use of English or their learning in general. The study showed that there was great risk of producing one or more generations of school leavers and graduates who could not function beyond everyday conversation in their first language. The study under review discussed the effects of different language policies at an international school of Indonesia using survey method, while the current study has been conducted in Zambia using classroom observation and interview guide to establish linguistic oppression on learner performance. The findings have been used to inform policy makers to consider communities with minority languages in their planning so that learners are not subjected to linguistic oppression.

Hoominfar (2014) conducted a study on challenges of monolingual education in Iran. The study utilised a phenomenological case study design, an inductive method to discover and interpret the common experiences and reactions of Azeri and Kurdish students and teachers to the monolingual education policy in Iran's multilingual society. Interviews with nine students, seven teachers and two experts provided the explanation and interpretation that participants gave about the monolingual policy in education, their daily life and ideas about ethnic and national identity.

Students and teachers as participants were selected for participation using snowball sampling. The theory about language and symbolic power was used in order to illustrate how modern discourse has formed assimilation and monolingual language policy and interfere in people's lives. The results showed that the absence of mother languages in Iran's education system has caused some problems for participants in both the academic field and identity issues. The study under review used interview guides to collect data, whereas the current study, in addition to interview guide used classroom observation guide and it was conducted in Zambia and not Iran. Besides, the study under review looked at the challenges of monolingual education, while the current study looks at linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly. As it has been observed from the challenges obtained from the study under review based on monolingual education, in the same vein, this study uses Ruiz (1984) language orientation theory to find supportive language practices that can be used in a multilingual class.

Similarly, Mumpande & Bames (2019) conducted a study to explore how minority language speaking learners experience language use in multilingual classrooms. The study was conducted in Binga district, Zimbabwe where Tonga, a formerly marginalized language is predominant. The study was qualitative grounded in the multilingual education framework. A sample of 40 learners was drawn from the four primary schools. Data was gathered through semi-structured interviews. The findings of the study revealed that the majority of teachers at these schools were either Ndebele or Shona first language speakers, with some having almost no communicate competence in Tonga, the language of the community. This led to the adoption of English and Ndebele or Shona as the language of teaching and learning in the classroom. Adopting these languages has resulted in the isolation and marginalization of Tonga learners, who were thereby denied the right to education in the classroom context, leading to negative attitudes towards schools and high failure and dropout rates. The current study has used teacher interview guide to find out whether learners' lack of knowledge in Nyanja affected classroom participation and caused low literacy levels in Chiawa zone so that corrective measures are put in place to support grade one learners.

In order to establish a barrier to academic and cognitive development of learners across grades in South Africa, Mataka, Bhila, & Mukurunge (2020) conducted a study on language in education policy. The study explored how the language of learning and teaching contribute to weaker cognitive and academic development. The study focus was on teachers' experiences with regard



to the language of learning and teaching in their classes and how they applied other practices to mitigate the challenge of comprehension. The study used a qualitative approach and data was collected using semi-structured questionnaires from participants. Data was processed and presented according to themes. Using convenience sampling, 22 participants were selected from all provinces of South Africa. The most dominant findings were that learners learned better in their home language. Further, it was revealed that the use of indigenous languages would eliminate the issue of translation of texts to indigenous languages because learners would comprehend what was being taught, which would eventually eliminate the culture of silence. The study recommended the need to revive the language policy to further assess its practicality and effectiveness because it appeared to be the reason why there was slowed cognitive and academic development. The study concluded that South Africa needs some introspection to realign it with the needs of the learners so as to eliminate the inequalities ravaging the educational arena across the spectrum. Indigenous languages must be taken seriously to enable progressive learning that is democratic despite race or socioeconomic status. The gap is that teachers were using Nyanja language of instruction in a Goba predominantly speaking area where early graders rarely understand Nyanja vocabulary. The research has utilized teacher interviews and classroom observation to establish the linguistic repertoires both the teacher and the learner use to support learning.

Madonsela (2015) conducted a study on language anxiety caused by the single model of instruction in multilingual classrooms of South Africa using qualitative methods. The researcher noted that the capacity to use language is unique from one individual to another, by way of individual's exposure to language. The aim of the study was to contribute to the growing area of research on language anxiety by exploring the extent to which language anxiety affects learner's performance in learning in multilingual classrooms, especially African learners who were learning English a second. Learners, especially in the intermediate Phase in South Africa who are learning in a second language for the first time, experienced a certain level of anxiety because that language was foreign to them. The study concluded that language anxiety amongst learners affected their academic performance. However, the current study on one hand establishes how learners have been able to manipulate phonemes based on the unfamiliarity of sound found in their class. This study has used the language orientation theory to support the findings.

Another study by Chibesakunda & Mulenga, (2019) was conducted to establish views and investigate challenges faced by teachers and learners in the use of Ibibemba in teaching initial literacy in primary schools in Serenje district. The study used a descriptive research design supporting qualitative data collection techniques. A purposive sampling procedure was used to select all the participants giving the study a sample size of 56 comprising 40 grade four learners and 16 of their teachers sampled from ten primary schools. The researcher used more learners in the study since they were direct beneficiaries of the curriculum and to have enough participants from each school. Data was collected through interviews, focus group discussions and classroom observations of literacy lessons. Thematic analysis was used to analyse all the data. The findings revealed that although the Ministry of Education zoned Serenje district under Ibibemba instead of Ibilala in teaching initial literacy, learners' performance was low because the language used in school was unfamiliar to learners. Additionally, findings also showed that there was a lack of teacher's guide books and learners' text books to use in teaching initial literacy hence teacher's delivery of lessons was negatively affected. Researchers concluded that learners performed poorly in literacy due to the fact that the zoned language was unfamiliar to learners in that area where it was used as a medium of teaching literacy. The current study has been conducted in Kafue rural to establish linguistic practices affecting learner performance in literacy. The study has used descriptive phenomenology research design to ascertain the cause of low literacy performance when learning is in Nyanja, one of the majority spoken local languages for Lusaka province. This could pave way for the possibility of rezoning the whole country in order to meet the aspiration of (1996, Education Policy) aimed at educating our future and (2011, Education for All).

Mkandawire (2022) conducted a study on the contribution of the physical environment to the teaching and learning of literacy skills among grade 2 learners in selected primary schools of Lusaka district of Zambia. As a descriptive qualitative research design, data was collected through face-to-face interviews and observation using the observation checklist and an interview guide. The targeted population was all primary schools, grade 2 pupils, and early grade teachers of Lusaka district. The sample size was four (4) primary schools and one hundred twenty (120) learners grade 2 learners and thirty (30) primary school teachers handling early grade learners. Findings of the study revealed that the teaching and learning environment played a significant role on the teaching and learning of reading. Diverse factors in classes such as location of the school, print environment, class size, sitting arrangement, design of the class, and nature of materials contributed to the

teaching and learning of literacy in the targeted schools. Recommendations were that headteachers and class teachers should ensure that early grade classroom environments have rich print environment, and the Ministry of Education should build library facilities in every primary school to encourage a culture of reading in Zambia. The study under review looked at the contribution of physical environment to the teaching and learning of literacy skills among grade 2 learners, whereas the current study has explored whether or not, Cinyanja, the zonal language of instruction in Kafue district is suitable for use among the Goba ethnic.

Similarly, Bwalya (2019) conducted a study on the sociolinguistic context of Chibombo district aimed at analyzing how teachers used language in their multilingual grade 6 learners. The study used the sequential explanatory research design; a mixed method approach that involved the collection and analysis of quantitative data first and the qualitative data. Cluster random, simple random and purposive sampling techniques were used to come up with 260 participants of which 60 were grade 6 teachers and 200 were grade 6 learners. The study revealed that the grade 6 learners of Chibombo district were multilingual. Both teachers and learners were able to speak more than one language. Nyanja was the main spoken language in the school at 22.5 percent of the learners and 15 percent of the teachers. Bemba was at 23 percent of the learners and 40 percent of the teachers. Chitonga was at 16 percent of the learners and 23.3 percent of the teachers. Lenje was at 29 percent of the learners and 4 percent of the teachers. Further, the study revealed that teachers had communication challenges when using English to teach learners from different linguistic background. The study concluded that teachers' language practices did not fully democratize the classroom due to semi-translanguaging. The findings also showed that while some teachers democratized their classrooms through the adoption of translanguaging as a pedagogical language practice, others insisted on monolingual language practices which resulted in symbolic violence. The study under review is similar to the current study that has analysed the teachers' language practices in multilingual classrooms. However, the current study has been premised on teachers' linguistic practices in linguistic minority areas of Kafue rural. Therefore, there is need to establish the available linguistic practices that teachers use to support literacy lessons among the early graders and speakers of the minority language classes.

The study by Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) established challenges teachers and pupils faced as a result of teaching and learning using the translanguaging pedagogical practices in a multilingual

grade 1 class of Lundazi district. A phenomenological design was used in one class for one term on a sample of 41 pupils and 1 teacher of literacy. Classroom observation and interviews were used to collect data that was analysed thematically. The study found that the teacher of literacy using translanguaging practices in grade 1 multilingual class was associated with challenges like the mismatch between the language of instruction and dominant learner's familiar languages that existed in the classroom; rigidity of the language policy which was based on monolingualism throughout the learners' learning process; strict monolingual based assessment which only tested skills in the regional language and inadequate teaching and learning materials which supported monolingual language learning. The study recommended that the Ministry of General Education and stakeholders should work together and revise provisions of the language policy guidelines so that it reflects the current linguistic composition of the language zones. However, the study under review did not propose linguistic practices that could be used by teachers as counter to translanguaging pedagogy to improve learners' performance in a linguistic minority area of Kafue rural. Therefore, there is need for this study to be undertaken so that the Ministry of Education and stakeholders could make precise decisions by choosing a language that could support speakers of the minority language.

## **2.2 Linguistic Oppressive Practices Being Experienced Through Zonal Language Monopoly**

Gautam & Poudel (2022) conducted a study to investigate the relationship among Nepal's linguistic diversity, multilingualism, and democratic practices by bringing into ideas from the global north and global south. The guiding question for exploring this relationship is, "why is Nepal's linguistic diversity being squeezed despite the formulation of democratic and inclusive language policies that intended to promote multilingualism?" To investigate this concern, qualitative data were obtained from semi-structured interviews with two purposively selected high-profile people working in the capacity of language policy making in the state agencies. In Nepal, although democracy promoted awareness towards the issue of language rights and the need of preservation and promotion of minority languages, the narrowing of multilingual diversity continued in practice. This study concluded that democracy allowed neoliberal ideologies to penetrate sociolinguistic spaces and put greater emphasis on English and Nepali. While there is an intertwined relationship between linguistic diversity, democracy, and multilingualism, the ongoing democratic practices have become counterproductive in maintaining the linguistic diversity

leading to the marginalization of minority and lesser-known languages. Also, despite ample literature documenting linguistic diversity as a resource and opportunity, the notions of ‘linguistic diversity’ and ‘multilingualism’ were utilized merely as political agendas and issues of critical discourses which have left negligible impact on changing the conventionalized practices of linguistic domination of Nepali and English. This study is similar to the current Zambian language policy which prescribe utilization of local language for instruction. However, the MOE zoned languages by province, despite Zambia’s linguistic diversity. This study has used classroom observation and interview guides to explore the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly.

A study which was conducted by Kaur (2020) in Malaysia discussed some major challenges that were associated with using English for Interaction in the English-Medium Instruction classroom by exploring experiences and challenges at a Malaysian Public University. This research utilized in-depth semi-structured interviews to investigate the experiences of both local and international students and lecturers in using English for classroom interaction and the challenges they face. A qualitative analysis of the data revealed three main challenges encountered which stem from low levels of proficiency in the language: passiveness on the part of students, lack of understanding of other contributions in interaction, and code-switching into the first language of the majority which alienates the international student. The findings underscored the need for university managers to be cognizant of the linguistic demands English-Medium Instruction (EMI) policies exert on its students and academic staff, and to provide sustained opportunities for the parties concerned to develop and improve their academic English skills in order to enhance their readiness to teach and learn through English. This study was conducted within the focus of the present study only that it included focus group discussion and questionnaires in addition to recorded lesson observations and interviews. The study’s findings did not only include language practices but also the views of teachers and students towards the language of instruction, something that has to be analysed in the present study to determine the linguistic oppression practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly using descriptive phenomenology research design, teacher interview guide and classroom observation.

Additionally, Dearden & Macaro (2016) conducted a study in Austria, Italy and Poland which investigated the attitudes of university teachers engaged in teaching their academic subject through

the medium of English. The data consisted of 25 teacher interviews, using a qualitative approach. The study focused on internationalization of universities on policy and resourcing; and on the levels of English proficiency needed for effective English medium instruction (EMI). The study observed whether there were differences among the respondents from the three countries and attempted to relate any differences to the linguistic, educational and political context of each. The findings suggested that whilst very similar concerns were in the minds of the teachers regardless of the country they were teaching in, some interesting variability in attitudes relating to language and to history was detected. This study was conducted using teacher interviews. Like the study by Dearden & Macaro (2016), the present study would establish if a similar situation obtained in the Zambian context particularly among teachers in Kafue rural where Nyanja has been prescribed for use at lower primary school level. This study analyses the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced by both pupils and teachers in view of Nyanja as media of instruction and communication among the grade one speakers of Goba.

A study by Norro (2021) explored Namibian primary school teachers' beliefs about schools' language policy and the medium of instruction, as well as their classroom practices in the multilingual context. The study used a mixed method approach to allow the triangulation of different parts of data to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the research objective. The study is based on five original publications (Articles I–V). Article I contain a historical–structural analysis of the official language policy documents interpreting the current policy from a historical perspective. Articles II–V are based on collected data. Articles II and V focus on teachers' beliefs, whereas Articles III and IV describe and analyse their classroom practices. Articles I and V also discuss the societal language ideologies underlying the policy and teachers' beliefs. The results indicated controversial language ideologies affecting the language policy and teachers' beliefs. Teachers' experiences as students, their interpretation of the official policy, and practical constraints impact their beliefs, thus impacting their classroom practices. The results revealed differences in teachers' practices according to the school region's degree of linguistic diversity, the subject taught, and differences between their self-reported and enacted practices. Teachers' multilingual practices were rather unplanned and momentary did not leverage multimodality. The study's results demonstrated a need to include multilingual teaching methods in initial and in-service teacher education, combined with opportunities for teachers and student teachers to reflect on their beliefs and the language ideological constructs behind them. Intervention studies on these

matters would benefit developing multilingual pedagogical approaches. The study under review was conducted on teachers who showed that the monolingual language policy was problematic and its implementation challenging in a multilingual setup while the current study has been conducted on grade one learners to establish the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced in a linguistic minority area.

Similarly, Lipinge & Banda (2020) conducted a study on language ideology, policy and classroom practices in Oshiwambo speaking areas, Northern Namibia. Using qualitative approach, the study utilised focus group discussion and interviews with teachers who used English as language of instruction. Classroom observations and informal chats were conducted on the grade twelve learners from the six sampled secondary schools. The study revealed that students struggled to partake in meaningful classroom interaction and to comprehend instructions and content in English. Further, it was found that although students expressed themselves better in Oshiwambo, they were not allowed to use it in school. Some teachers who taught English as a second language would use Oshiwambo to maintain order in class, but avoided using Oshiwambo to help struggling learners believing it would negatively impact their English proficiency. Some teachers were found to blame for learners' poor English proficiency as they used Oshiwambo in class to teach and explain content. The study concluded that learning English as second language and classroom language practice was teacher centred by default, and students were muted as they found themselves with no voice to express themselves efficiently and efficaciously, and deaf to classroom content delivered in an unfamiliar language, English. The study under review was conducted on the grade twelve learners from the six sampled secondary schools, however, the current study has been conducted on the grade one learners and only used classroom observation and interview guides.

A study conducted by Pütz (2020) focused on the linguistic landscapes in the Central and Western African state of Cameroon, with particular attention to its capital, Yaoundé. The methodological design was quantitative in nature, involving collecting more than 600 linguistic tokens (digital photos) in various public places mainly in and around the Cameroonian capital, Yaoundé. It was revealed that the deployment of languages on signs and linguistic tokens, apart from serving informative and symbolic functions for the audiences had social and political implications in an ethnically heterogeneous and linguistically hybrid society such as Cameroon. Furthermore, it was

found that the linguistic landscape exclusively focused on the dominant status and role of one single language, i.e. French, and to a lesser extent English speakers felt marginalized and oppressed by the French government. Unlike the early graders, during the pre-independence and development of education in Zambia, local languages were medium of instruction in schools. However, in Cameroon, both the British and the French like their German predecessors intentionally suppressed the emergence and use of local vernacular which would have emerged as national language after independence, making the country's language policy in formal primary education system not constructive for primary school starters. The study under review used quantitative approach to investigate the sociolinguistic situation to understand the linguistic and ideological conflicts between the Anglophone minority and the francophone government whereas the current study has used qualitative methods to explore the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced in a grade one literacy class in Zambia.

Simachenya (2019) conducted a study on language practices in a multilingual classroom situation in the selected primary schools of Livingstone Urban. The study used a qualitative approach. Data was collected from the teachers and pupils through semi structured interviews, voice recording and classroom observation. The study findings indicated that most of the learners prefer using Nyanja and English, both at lower and upper primary when seeking clarity to facilitate learning among peers and to respond to their teachers. Additionally, the study established that learner preferred English to Tonga to facilitate participation and addressing teachers to maintain formality and prestige. The study also established that languages like Tonga and Lozi were limitedly used by learners for the purpose of solidarity with peers from the same ethnic group. The findings put the practicality of the current educational language policy under scrutiny because there is a mismatch between what the policy prescribes and what actually happens in the classrooms. The study under review was conducted in Livingstone of Southern province while this current study has been conducted in Kafue district of Lusaka province. Therefore, the two studies are different hence the need to conduct this study to contribute to the academic debate on language practices in a multilingual classroom situation.

Machinyise (2018) conducted a study on language shift and revitalization among speakers of Soli and Goba languages of Lusaka province of Zambia. The study utilised both qualitative and quantitative methods. The sample was drawn from Chongwe district which is native home to Soli



speakers and also Chiawa Chiefdom, home of Goba speakers. The study revealed that the language shift was due to proximity to the city; the interaction between the indigenous tribes and migrants who come to the city for work and business and the Language policy is another factor that contribute to language shift. This policy has confined the Goba and Soli languages to the home domain only (Machinyise, 2018). The study under review was on language shift which is a bridge to the current study on linguistic oppression. It is worth noting that the language widely spoken for business by adults is different from the language children use in homes. Therefore, language policy should take into account the sociolinguistic background of the minority grade one learners on whom the language policy is imposed. It is for this reason that the current study observes the sociolinguistic pattern of the grade one learners to determine whether zonal language monopoly is ideal for classroom practices in Kafue rural.

Chinyama (2016) conducted a study to establish the effect of using Bemba as a medium of instruction on the reading levels of grade two pupils in a predominantly Namwanga speaking area in Nakonde District. The study established that most learners had semantic challenges as they would not respond according to the teacher's expectation because they did not understand Bemba since they were coming from homes which were using Namwanga for all manner of communication. The study also established that nearly all the learners mispronounced Bemba words because of the interference of Namwanga which is their L1. For example, the learners were saying *ecipuna* instead of saying *icipuna* 'chair'. It was also established by the study that one of the challenges teachers were facing was their difficulty to understand what their learners were saying as most of them (teachers) did not know Namwanga. Although the study concentrated on the language policy, it did not establish linguistic practices that could be used by teachers to improve learner performance, hence the focus of this study.

Similarly, a study involving Nyanja as language of initial literacy was conducted by Lungu (2019). The purpose of this study was to establish the effects of the use of Chinyanja as a medium of classroom instruction in selected primary schools in a multilingual Chilanga district. The study employed a qualitative research design using purposive and random sampling techniques to come up with 26 participants. Data was collected through, interviews, document analysis, focus group discussions and classroom observations. The study established that teachers taught literacy using both Chinyanja and English by code switching and code mixing. The study further found that some

primary schools in the sampled schools had a slight increase in reading levels while others had low reading levels. These low reading levels were attributed to variables such as difficulties in the methodology, pupil absenteeism and lack of reading and learning materials. Further, some teachers and pupils did not have much knowledge of the language of classroom instruction (Chinyanja). Both had to learn the language used first before the teaching and learning sessions. Additionally, poor pupil performance was attributed to inadequate teacher training on the language policy and lack of support from parents on zonal language policy. The study concluded that Nyanja was not appropriate for use as language of initial literacy in Chilanga District. The fact that Lungu's study analysed the language used in classroom education makes it prominent in the current investigation. However, the current study's purpose is to investigate the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in a multilingual grade one classroom of the minority language in Chiawa zone of Kafue District.

Further, Ndeleki (2015) focused on the perceptions of teachers on the use of local languages as medium of instruction from grades 1 to 4 in selected private schools in Lusaka district. The study comprised 62 informants. 15 of these were administrators, 1 curriculum development officer, 6 parents and 40 Grades 1 and 2 teachers. The study employed qualitative research design. The study established that teachers from the selected private schools of Lusaka had different views concerning use of local languages as the medium of instruction at lower primary. The study established that some of the teachers were trying to implement the policy not because they felt it would work but they did so for fear of losing their employment. Other teachers were not in favour of the policy because they felt results were already good when English was used as the medium of instruction. The study also established that most teachers were in favour of English as the medium of instruction because all children in their schools were more proficient in English than Nyanja. On code switching between Nyanja and English, it was observed that most teachers were in favour of the practice as it would enhance active participation by learners. The study did not pay attention to the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced by both teachers and learners through the use of zonal language despite implementation of the 2013 National Literacy Framework on language policy. The study under review focusses on the perceptions of teachers on the use of local languages as medium of instruction in two private schools in Lusaka district while the current study focusses on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in four government schools in Kafue District.

The study by Nyimbili, Sakala & Mungala (2023) investigated the pedagogical practices teachers use to teach Cinyanja to the Tumbuka learners of Chasefu district. A descriptive phenomenological design was used on the population of teachers, administrators, and learners who were randomly sampled. The study sample was 60. Data was collected through interviews, classroom observation, and focus group discussion guides. The findings revealed that teachers avoided certain pedagogical practices they had little or no knowledge about. The common pedagogical practices they used included discussions, individual work, pair work, group work, translation and code-switching. The pedagogical practices they avoided included debate, research, project work, drama, sketch, play activities and simulations and role plays. In terms of pedagogical challenges that teachers faced, the study revealed that there were inadequate teaching and learning materials, low literacy levels among learners, L1 interference causing code mixing in the works of the learners, negative attitude of the learners towards the subject and word for word translation when handling translation exercises. The study under review was conducted in secondary schools of eastern province whereas the current study was conducted in lower primary schools.

### **2.3 Linguistic Practices That Teachers Can Use to Improve Learner Performance in Linguistic Minority Classes**

Bravo (2019) conducted a study on teachers' attitudes and methods for teaching reading in contexts with multiple languages. The empirical investigation consisted of case studies with various linguistically heterogeneous situations using a cross disciplinary qualitative research approach. The study was conducted on the German, Swedish and Chilean grade 4 classrooms. The study utilised teacher interview guide and classroom observation guides. It was observed that language separation was of extreme importance to the academic language of instruction. This was reflected in the teachers' approach, which resulted in a static implementation that typically excluded the use of the students' life world multilingual resource. The style of strategy the teachers used was blind to linguistic diverse learning techniques for teaching reading in multilingual context. The study is relevant to the current study since it is thought to develop a deeper understanding of teachers' views and teaching methods for teaching reading in multilingual classes, a feature that has been included in the current study. However, the study by Bravo differs from the current study in that it did not focus on the aspects linguistic oppression practices in multilingual classes. Instead, it

only focused on teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual classes. Therefore, there was a need for the current study to be carried out.

Durán & Palmer (2014) conducted a study in the United State of America to examine student and teacher talk in a first-grade classroom in a school that followed a language policy prescribing the use of one of the two languages each day between English and Spanish. The study used a methodology that fuses ethnography and discourse analysis, the researcher explored how pluralist discourses were constructed and lived in by bilingual students and teachers. The findings of the study have implications for understanding how teachers and students' use of languages in class might either support or undermine the language policy. One of the findings was that students identified themselves constantly with either English or Spanish. Another finding was that using multiple codes and linguistic features to achieve communicative goals came out to be considered a useful form of interaction within the classroom. The study also established that translanguaging was treated as a normal and acceptable classroom practice which was not stigmatised in any way as students mixed languages freely and apparently without self-censorship mainly through inter-sentential switching. On teachers' part, the study established that although teachers generally tried to stick to the prescription of the language policy of using one of the prescribed languages of the day, students were free to use their preferred language and had their response affirmed. This study was conducted using observation combined with audio and video data collection instruments while the present study will be conducted using semi-structured interviews and lesson observations. The context of this study is different from that of the current study owing to the different educational language policies. The educational language policy under which the study by Durán and Palmer (2014) was conducted prescribed a dual daily alternation of languages as media of instruction and communication while the present study is in the Zambian context where only one language is prescribed as the medium of instruction in form of Nyanja for lower primary level.

Murati (2015) looked at democratisation of the multilingual classroom in Finland primary schools. Democratisation demands the use of multiple languages as media of instructions. Therefore, language practices in multilingual classroom mean the recognition and respect for linguistic diversity. The study was carried out in a democratic language practice in the classroom in Finland using quantitative and qualitative methods. The grounded theory design was employed, and 62 pupils and 15 primary school teachers were interviewed, data was thematically analysed. The aim

of the study was to ascertain the factors that contribute to Finnish having high literacy levels. The findings revealed that teachers were free to choose the teaching methods and materials they wanted to use and that, pupils were involved in choosing the reading materials used in instruction such as youth literature, magazines, and media texts. The study also revealed that even a small number of immigrants' children were given an opportunity to learn to read in their own mother tongue, including Swedish speaking minority. In addition, the study showed that schools and teachers were involved in campaigns to promote reading as a pastime and there was also long-term collaboration with libraries, newspapers and magazines. The study under review was conducted in Finnish primary schools while the current study has been conducted in Zambian primary schools, particularly in Kafue District using the three-language orientation theory to support the linguistic rights of learners who are not able to sign or speak zonal language in class. The findings to support this thought informs decision makers to come up with appropriate inclusive linguistic practices.

Chikodzi & Kaino (2020) conducted a study in Shona Mathematical instructional practices in bilingual primary schools in Zimbabwe, using a qualitative research method. The study was conducted in a predominantly Zimbabwean mathematics classrooms which had student populations from diverse cultural backgrounds who spoke Shona dialects. Most of the mathematics teaching was not related to the learners' everyday experiences because it was taught in English, a L2 from most of these learners. Teachers, therefore, played a fundamental role in making sure that learners in that bilingual setup understood the mathematical concepts being taught. The debate on whether English or indigenous languages are suitable for use in education is increasing. The study explores possible instructional practices to assist bilingual learners. To achieve the objectives of the study under review, the researcher used qualitative approach to explore the instructional practices used by primary school teachers during the teaching and learning of mathematics in Zimbabwe. The findings indicated that teachers code-switched between English and Shona and also used examples from the learners' environment. The study concluded that there was a possibility of using bilingual model including Shona and English when teaching mathematics to bilingual learners. The idea was to create a caring, colorful, exciting, stimulating and reflective environment as a way of engaging learners even if they are from diverse cultural and social backgrounds. The latter would also reduce marginalization of bilingual learners. The current study has established whether the grade one learners were or not familiar with Nyanja and what linguistic resources they used to promote learning.

Another study was conducted by Nhongo (2022) on instruction through translanguaging in triglossic classroom context in the Midlands province of Zimbabwe using qualitative research approach. The study utilised semi-structured interviews as data gathering tools from teachers in both peri-urban and urban setting of the Midlands province capital, Gweru. The study was guided by the dynamic bilingualism theory. In the Midlands province of Zimbabwe, there are mainly three languages, Shona, Ndebele and English that are used in schools although at home it is mainly Shona and Ndebele. Midlands lies right on the isogloss where Shona is predominantly on one side and Ndebele on the other. The study scrutinized how translanguaging as a method of teaching takes place in a situation where there are three languages at play, but such languages are not at par. Shona and Ndebele are learners' first languages where some learners are conversant with both and some with one of the two, and English is the main language of instruction. On the other hand, the study problematized the idea of diglossic and that of a clearly defined isogloss in the Midlands province. The study revealed that, in facilitating learning through translanguaging in a triglossic situation, teachers faced challenges of balancing the languages and as a result code switching dominated the translanguaging process. The study concluded that language inequalities in multilingual settings have negative impacts when it comes to translanguaging and negatively affects the learning process where other learners feel side lined on grounds of their first language. While the study under review revealed the challenges associated with translanguaging in a triglossic situation in Zimbabwe, using qualitative approach, the current study has explored the linguistic practices which teachers use to support the linguistic minority grade one learners whose home language Goba, is different from the school linguistic environment.

In another similar study, Mensah (2014) examined the language policy and implementation inside and outside the classroom in a multilingual and multicultural international school aiming to give insight into how linguistic and cultural diversity is managed at Windhoek International School (WIS). The paper found out how linguistic diversity is managed both within and outside of the classroom. The study which was qualitative used a mixed method approach for data collection. The findings showed that the language policy at WIS encourages monolingual norms although the school's community is multilingual. English is the medium of instruction although other European languages namely French, German and Portuguese are officially taught in the school. The findings show that the policy does not consider that the sole use of English as the medium of instruction gives advantage to students who speak it as L1 while disadvantaging other students whose L1 is

not English. The researcher in this study used questionnaire, interview and observation to collect data. The findings in this study showed that the school policy was monolingual despite the school having multilingual teachers and students. The linguistic diversity pattern in the community in the study under review is similar to the Zambian linguistic diversity situation, which necessitated the creation of zonal language boundaries. However, each language zone has other minority languages which are incongruent to the zonal language of instruction in school. The study under review was conducted in Namibia, while the current study has been conducted in Zambia to establish whether zonal language monopoly has an effect in a multilingual grade one classroom of the minority language.

Mkandawire (2017) conducted a study to compare the effectiveness of teaching reading and writing literacy abilities in two primary schools in Lusaka district using familiar language against foreign language. This was a case study which utilised the post-positivism knowledge generation paradigm. The study had 67 respondents from two primary schools, one of which used Chinyanja as its primary language of instruction and the other utilised English. Focus group discussions, interview guides and classroom observation guides were specific instruments used to collect data. The conclusion of the study revealed that both English and the indigenous language of Zambia (Chinyanja) has a major impact on literacy instruction, both of which helped some learners learn and hindered learning for others. However, it was revealed that learners were more engaged in Chinyanja classes and were unable to actively participate in English language lessons. Learners were actively engaged through playing and speaking in the ordinary Chinyanja than the Chewa taught in schools. The findings revealed that teachers moved between languages to assist learners with diverse linguistic practices. The study recommended that primary school teachers should employ many languages when instructing learners in grade one by translating sentences, words and phrases from one language to the others that are spoken in class as a way of helping learners absorb concepts more easily, and gain proficiency in reading and writing more quickly. The study by Mkandawire is different from the current study in that it investigated the familiar language-based instruction verses unfamiliar language for the teaching of reading and writing literacy skills while this study has investigated the linguistic oppression practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in the linguistic minority literacy classes Kafue rural using interview guide and classroom observation so that the oppressive practices are highlighted curbed.

Nyimbili & Mwanza (2020) conducted a study on quantitative and qualitative benefits of translanguaging pedagogic practice among first graders in multilingual classrooms of Lundazi district in Zambia. The study used a quasi-experiment where two literacy classes with similar sociolinguistic composition were taught differently. The control class strictly followed the monolingual language policy while the experimental class was taught using translanguaging, whose idea was to see whether translanguaging could lead to any measurable literacy development benefits on the learner. The study utilised interviews with the class teachers and classroom observations. The study also sought to bring out the qualitative benefits which were observed throughout the experiment. A total of 82 pupils participated in the study with one teacher who taught both classes. Quantitative data was analysed using SPSS and a Levene's test of variance was used to analyse the test results while thematic analysis was used for qualitative data analysis. Post experimental test results showed higher average mean scores for the experimental group ( $M=15.10$ ) than the control group ( $M = 11.71$ ). The Cohen's  $d = 0.98$  for the post-test showed the large effect size above .8. The performance of learners in the experimental group was significantly different from the control group [ $t(52.960) = 4.454$ ]. In this instance, the experimental class was taught via translanguaging while the control class scrupulously adhered to the "monolingual" language policy. Translanguaging techniques employed to teach literacy in the experimental class were said to be the cause of the disparity in literacy achievement. The findings also demonstrated that translanguaging boosted learner classroom involvement, multi-literacy development, cultural preservation, and learners' confirmation of their identities. The study leads to the conclusion that learning results increase when the curriculum is decolonized, and the classroom is freed by acknowledging learners' linguistic repertoires. The study under review is relevant to the current study since it offered information on alternative linguistic practice that could be used in a multilingual classroom. However, the current study does not determine the quantitative and qualitative advantages of translanguaging pedagogic practice among first graders in multilingual classrooms of the Lundazi district in Zambia, but rather establishes linguistic practices that teachers have been using to accommodate the Goba grade one learners who have been learning using unfamiliar language, Nyanja, a zonal language in Kafue district. Unlike the study under review which used mixed methods, the current study has used qualitative method.

Another study was carried out by Muzeya (2023) to analyse the classroom language practices in the multilingual primary school of Choma district of Zambia using phenomenological research



design. The study adopted qualitative methodology whose sample size was sixteen teachers who taught grade 1 and 2 classes from the four selected schools. Data which was gathered through interviews and lesson observations of classroom lessons was analysed thematically. The findings revealed that teachers used translanguaging to promote linguistic inclusivity and diversity. Additionally, the study showed that most grades 1 and 2 classes of Choma district were multilingual in the sense that both teachers and learners were able to speak more than one language. Furthermore, the study found that teachers encountered communication difficulties when instructing learners from various linguistic backgrounds in Tonga because learners found it difficult to understand the language of instruction (Tonga) consistently especially first graders. As a result, some teachers had to switch from Tonga to other languages spoken by learners in class to foster their understanding. The study also established that translanguaging was a promising strategy for teaching diverse learners in multilingual classes of Choma district as it improved learners' participation, cognition and aided the connection of what they were doing in class to their language of play and home language. The study under review was conducted in Choma urban schools where both teachers and learners were multilingual and translanguaging approach was applied to guide lessons. Using qualitative approach, this current study seeks to establish the available linguistics practices that are suitable for used in the linguistic minority grade one learners who are not familiar with zonal language.

The study Mkandawire, Zuikowski, Mwaansa, & Manchishi (2023) is pertinent to the current study since it sought to obtain deeper knowledge on instructional strategies used by teachers in multilingual classes to help non-speakers of the language of instruction learn initial reading skills in Zambia. This was a qualitative research method which sought to understand multilingual teachers' pedagogical approaches to helping non-speakers of the language of instruction learn initial reading skills in diverse classes of Lusaka district of Zambia. Qualitative data was collected through face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions and lesson observations with 23 grade one teachers. Data collected was transcribed and qualitative content analysis was performed through a meaning of condensation process. The researcher observed that pedagogical strategies intended for monolingual classes may not adequately address the educational needs and aspirations of culturally and linguistically diverse learners, as multilingual and bilingual learners differ from one monolingual. The study revealed that teachers in multilingual classes used translanguaging, bilingual materials, remediation and reading interventions strategies to teach literacy among early

graders. Further, parents, multilingual teachers and bilingual learners were also used as resources in multilingual classes. The study recommended that the government should develop and implement a strong simultaneous bilingual or multilingual literacy programme to reflect community languages and avoid imposing monoglossic language ideologies across schools. Early grade teachers should be allowed to use diverse pedagogical approaches in the teaching of reading in multilingual classes within the mainstream curriculum. The study under review was conducted in Lusaka district with a sample size of 23 grade one teachers. However, the current study has been conducted in Kafue district with a sample size of 4 teachers, with a hope of establishing linguistic practices suitable for use in a linguistic minority area of Kafue rural. The study has used the three-language orientation theory to support the findings and to make recommendations.

Further, Tembo & Nyimbili (2021) investigated the practicality using Nsenga language in the primary schools of Petauke district. The study used a mixed methods approach and collected data from 30 teachers from five primary schools using interview guide and a questionnaire. The study concluded that the teachers' perception on the implementation of the use of familiar language in selected Primary Schools in Petauke District was positive because the usage of Cinyanja as an instructional language was high in the primary schools due to the policy restriction while the usage of Nsenga as an instructional language was as high due to the sociolinguistic situation in the classrooms and this lead to the teachers and learners preferring to use Nsenga as their language of instruction. The realized benefits of the use of Nsenga in the teaching to the Nsenga learners provided the learners with the practical understanding of the content the teacher was teaching about. The other benefits were that teachers were forced to use Nsenga in their teaching because learners provided answers in Nsenga instead of the Cinyanja which was not familiar to them. This then leaves space to enhance translanguaging in such schools so as to realise the full potential of the learners and their languages as Nsenga has proved its practicality in teaching learners.

Furthermore, Mwiinga (2024) investigated the use of Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education strategies by teachers at Primary level in Chongwe Rural District. The study is informed by the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Ruiz's three language orientation theories. Adopting a descriptive research design, the study used qualitative research approach. The findings reveal that most teachers somewhat understood the meaning of MTB-MLE strategies. In addition, the results of the study indicated that teachers of Chongwe District used a variety of MTB-MLE

strategies in the classroom. These strategies included translanguaging, use of pictures and picture stories, use of groups, song and real objects. Furthermore, the findings showed that teachers in an effort to use MTB-MLE strategies faced a number of challenges. Challenges included inadequate materials, unfamiliar concepts in the mother tongue, inadequate preparation time on the part of teachers, and over enrollment. The study concludes that teachers in Chongwe District understand and use MTB-MLE strategies to help learners not familiar with the LOI in multilingual contexts. The study under review was conducted in rural schools of Chongwe district while the current study was conducted in rural schools of Kafue district making the two studies different.

This study by Nyimbili (2021) assessed the impact of translanguaging as pedagogical practice on literacy levels among Grade One learners in multilingual classrooms of Lundazi District of Zambia. The study was guided by the Three Language Orientations Theory, Critical Discourse Analysis Theory and Bernstein's code and pedagogical discourse theory. The study adopted the pragmatism paradigm and employed a multiphase stage design. The study involved two classes and one teacher. An experimental class was treated with translanguaging practices while the second class was a control class. One teacher taught literacy in the two classes and the sample was 83 participants broken down as 41 pupils per class who wrote the pre and post-tests as well as one teacher. Standardised regional tests were used to collect data from the two classes while classroom observation, field notes and interviews with the teachers were used to collect qualitative data. The study findings revealed that the Post experimental test results showed higher average mean scores for the experimental group ( $M=15.10$ ) than the control group ( $M=11.71$ ). Thus, the difference in literacy performance can be attributed to the translanguaging practices which were used to teach literacy in the experimental class. This means that translanguaging led to increased learner performance while monolingual language practices negatively affected learner's literacy performance. Translanguaging practices used included translation, code mixing and multimodal learning materials increased learner participation. Challenges included mismatch between the language of instruction and dominant learner's familiar languages, rigidity of the language policy which was based on monolingualism and monolingual based assessment. The current study was conducted in Kafue district using qualitative approach making the two studies different.

## **2.4 Chapter Summary**

Research on the language of instruction in Zambian schools have provided evidence that the literacy policy is still questionable despite the reforms under the current provision policy. The studies reviewed have not attempted to propose linguistic practices that can be used by teachers to improve learner performance in linguistic minority areas. However, the studies have provided evidence and grounds for this study to establish the effects of linguistic oppression on learner performance in linguistic minority literacy grade 1 classes. The major knowledge deficit characterizing literacy education in Zambia is where no study has been conducted to analyse the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly and its effect on learner performance in literacy grade 1 classes. This knowledge gap was filled by the findings of this study in chapter six where they are presented.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0 Overview

The previous chapter presents a literature review. This chapter presents the description of the research methodology. It discusses research approach; research design; target population; sample size and procedure in data collection; research instruments; data collection procedure; validity and reliability; data analysis; ethical consideration and chapter summary.

#### 3.1 Research Paradigm

According to Creswell & Poth (2018), a paradigm is a framework that includes basic beliefs and assumptions that guide research and practices. It encompasses the researcher's worldview, epistemological and ontological assumptions and methodology. In other words, a research paradigm is a philosophical framework that shapes how researchers approach their studies, including research questions, methods and interpretation of findings. In order to draw a deeper understanding of the complex and nuanced experiences of linguistic oppression in the context of primary schools in Zambia, the study used interpretivism paradigm. Interpretivism was used in order to gain a rich, detailed understanding of the phenomenon under study, rather than seeking to generalize findings to a wider population. It also emphasised the importance of language in shaping our understanding of the world and the experiences of participants.

According to Creswell (2018), interpretivism is a research paradigm that emphasises understanding of meanings and interpretations of participants, which aligned with the goal of exploring how language of instruction affected students' literacy experiences and perceptions. Additionally, interpretivism emphasises the importance of context in shaping participants' experiences and meaning, which was crucial for understanding the specific cultural, social and educational context of Zambian primary schools. Furthermore, interpretivism aligned well with this qualitative research method, which was well suited for exploring the subjective experiences and meanings of participants through data collection and analysis methods such as interviews and observations.

### **3.1.1 Research Approach**

The study used a qualitative approach. According to Creswell & Creswell (2018), qualitative research is a method for conducting studies that involves examining and comprehending the significance that various social phenomena have for different persons or groups. Qualitative approach was suitable for this study since it allowed the researcher to communicate with the study participants to gather more information. Kasonde (2013) contended that qualitative approach works with verbal data and recordings, which aided the researcher in comprehending social phenomena from the participants' viewpoint and gaining a greater understanding of the subject under study.

The rationale for adopting qualitative method in the study was that qualitative approach was sufficient to capture and reveal the details of the research study. In addition, qualitative method approach validated the study objectives. For example, the research questions one, two and three needed qualitative method of data collection through teacher interview and observations to easily capture a larger sample of data on the linguistic oppression being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes and to ascertain linguistic practices that teachers use to improve learner performance in a linguistic minority area.

### **3.2 Research Design**

A research design is a blueprint for carrying out a study, describing the steps required to get to the data required to formulate research problems (Mulenga, 2015). In order to investigate linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly among early graders in Chiawa zone of Kafue district, the study adopted a descriptive phenomenology research design. According to Creswell, (2018), descriptive phenomenology is a research methodology that focuses on capturing and describing lived experience for a group of people. The approach aimed to explore people's experiences, perceptions and meaning related to a specific phenomenon, with the goal of uncovering the underlying essence and meaning of the phenomenon. Descriptive phenomenology offered more flexibility in terms of data collection and analysis, suitable for exploring linguistic oppression. It also allowed for a more open ended approach, enabling the researcher to explore a broader range of themes and meanings that emerge from data. In the study, descriptive phenomenology was suitable to explore participants' experiences and understanding their lived

experiences. Further, descriptive phenomenology enabled typical collection of data through in-depth interviews and classroom observation. Written descriptions and data were analysed thematically. Sample sizes in descriptive phenomenology are typically small ranging from 3 – 25 participants. The goal of descriptive phenomenology was to gain a rich, nuanced understanding of the phenomenon and its meaning for the participants. In this case, descriptive phenomenology research design facilitated an enabling environment to have a complete understanding of linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes.

### **3.3 Population**

Population as defined by Patel, White, Malhotra, Stanchina, & Ayas (2003) is the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected. The study population included all schools and teachers in Chiawa zone. The population was relevant for the study because it comprised learners who spoke the minority language in Kafue District. Further, Mulenga (2015) claims that the population is the target audience for the study and the group to which the research findings were applied in general.

### **3.4 Sample**

A sample as defined by Ahmed, Brandes, Gyawali, Sidhu & Toze (2014) is a small proportion of a population selected for observation and analysis. In the study, the total sample size was 12 teachers who taught lower classes from four schools. Each of the sampled schools provided 3 teachers who were interviewed and classroom observation conducted upon to have a better understanding on the linguistic oppression affecting learner performance through zonal language monopoly in Chiawa zone. Fundamentally, the sample assisted in providing spoken responses for gathering of data required for building understanding about the themes of the data that was collected.

### **3.5 Sampling Procedures**

To choose the teachers, the researcher employed homogenous purposive sampling. The basis of the target sample was arrived at due to the fact that all the teachers were teaching grade one learners. According to Kombo & Tromp (2006), sampling is described as a method of picking a number of individuals or things from a population such that the selected group contains elements indicative of the qualities found in the full group. Non-probability sampling was used in the

research since it did not seek to create a statistically representative sample. Due to the four schools with a common shared characteristics of having learners from the minority linguistic background, the four primary schools and the 12 teachers were chosen for the study using homogenous purposive sampling, a non-probability technique.

### **3.5.1 Purposive Sampling**

Shank and Brown (2007) state that purposive sampling selects participants who can provide the type of responses and insights that researchers are looking for. These are participants who can be of help and have the required information (Field 1998). This point is taken further by Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016) who stated that purposive sampling “is the deliberate choice of a participant due to the qualities the participant possesses” and that researchers look for “information-rich cases for the most proper utilization of available resources”. Therefore, purposive sampling technique was used to pick 12 teachers and four schools. Maximum variation sampling was used to sample Chiawa zone of Kafue District based on dimension of interest. The unique feature for Chiawa zone to be sampled in the study was based on the evidence that (Nyanja) the language of instruction in the zone was different from Kore-kore (Goba), the language of play in Chiawa zone of Kafue District.

### **3.6 Research Instruments**

Research instruments are the tools a researcher employs to gather data (Kombo & Tromp, 2006; Mkandawire, 2019). Data collection instruments used to collect research data can be presented in written, audio, or visual format. Responses can be gathered via paper and-pencil tests, computer administered tests, video camera, or audiotape recorder (Tavakoili 2012).

According to Creswell (2015), primary data is defined as information that has been gathered directly from first-hand sources through surveys, observation, focus groups, interviews, or experiments. Interview guides and observation schedules were the two types of data collection instruments the researcher employed in the study. These tools made it easier for the researcher to gather participant primary data.



### **3.6.1 Interview Guide**

An interview guide is commonly deployed in qualitative studies to get in-depth responses to research questions. Creswell, (2014) pointed out that the researcher has a list of important themes, problems and inquiries to address. Depending on the direction of the interview, the sequence of the questions can change in this form of interview, and an extra question can be asked (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). In order to justify this tool in data collection, (Kombo & Tromp, 2006) suggest that no system of inquiry can be illuminating as an interview. After being gathered and analysed, data only becomes information that can be used to make decisions in some way. Therefore, the researcher used an interview guide to better comprehend the experiences and points of view of teachers. The methodology enabled the researcher to gather information from participants who had real-life experience owing to the interviews. The researcher learned about the experiences and opinions of the teachers regarding linguistic oppressive practices being experienced in class through zonal language monopoly.

The researcher held four interviews with grade one teachers in classrooms and recorded the sessions using paper and recorder. The researcher conducted all interviews within a two-week period, scheduled at intervals to allow analysis of data between each session, in accordance with theoretical sampling principles. In order to avoid disruption of learning at each school, the researcher begun by conducting classroom observation before interviews with the teacher. Thus, the researcher transcribed data as the sessions were held, and the preliminary analyses informed subsequent themes.

The researcher scheduled the teacher interviews sessions to last 60 minutes. The interviews were semi-structured to facilitate discussion. The session began with an ice-breaker task in which participants discussed most favored and least favored languages. Following this, the researcher encouraged participants to discuss their personal experiences and perceptions of zonal language using questions exemplified in appendix 1. Interviews were supported by a short guide portraying language use to elicit in-depth data in comparison with classroom observation. The guide was used to facilitate group coherence, by providing a focused topic to discuss and gain greater group cohesion.

### **3.6.2 Classroom Observation**

An observation, according to Marshall and Rossman (2010), is the methodical recording of observable phenomena in the field. According to Creswell (2012), observation refers to the researcher taking field notes while observing people's behaviour and activities at the research site. The method was employed in the study to gather data on the linguistic practices in the classroom when teachers were delivering lessons by taking notes while simultaneously attending lessons to study the linguistic oppressive practices in the four primary schools. The language used among the 12 teachers during teaching process was observed and notes were taken. Data was collected based on what the teacher was doing and the responses from the learners with particular focus on linguistic practices being experienced by the learners. The researcher was a nonparticipant observer in the four classrooms.

The researcher held four classroom observation with teachers in classrooms and recorded the sessions using paper. The researcher conducted all classroom observations within a two-week period, scheduled at intervals to allow analysis of classroom observation data between each session. The researcher begun by conducting classroom observation before interviews with teachers. Thus, the researcher transcribed data as the sessions were held, and the preliminary analyses informed subsequent themes. The researcher scheduled the classroom observation sessions to last 40 minutes. The classroom observation guide was semi-structured to facilitate coherence with the teacher interview. Classroom observations were as exemplified in appendix 1.

### **3.7 Data Collection Procedure**

Creswell (2018) contended that data collection method is setting the parameters for the study and data collection as well as the process taken to obtain information to address research questions. As a result, the study was first approved by Chalimbana University Ethical Research Committee. A letter was obtained from the Assistant Dean Postgraduate for permission to carry out the study. The researcher wrote a self-introductory letter to the District Education Board Office seeking permission to collect data from schools. The DEBS acknowledged and granted permission for data collection in schools. The letter of permission granted from DEBS introduced the researcher to school head teachers for permission to conduct research in the sampled schools. Upon receiving clearance from the various stakeholders and upon being introduced to participants, the researcher

oriented them on the importance of the study and how the tools were going to be used to collect data.

### **3.8 Data Analysis**

According to Cohen, Mannion & Morrison, (2018), data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing, or verification are the three tiers of operations that make up data analysis in the qualitative paradigm. However, when it comes to the analysis of qualitative data, there is no single approach that can be used in all situations; instead, the methodology is determined by the study objectives (Cohen, et al. 2018). At the start of the data collection process, the researcher became familiar with the information gathered by listening to the interview tapes repeatedly as well as carefully looking through the data and noting themes or codes. Following this, data was distilled into common words, phrases, and recurrent themes that aided the researcher in comprehending and interpreting the data. This helped the researcher in determining the relationships between the main categories and their subclasses. The themes found in the data were then brought together through selective coding in order to show how they related to one another and were analysed thematically. In order to interpret the data after it was analyzed, emergent patterns, concepts, and participant explanations were compared to the theory chosen for the study, the associated literature that had been read in chapter two, and the recently discovered information on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly.

### **3.9 Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness in qualitative research according to Pilot & Beck (2014) is the confidence of data, interpretation, and method used to ensure the quality of study. In light of the foregoing, Gunawan, J. (2015) outline that qualitative researchers are required to articulate evidence using the four primary criteria to ensure the trustworthiness of the study's findings through credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

#### **3.9.1 Credibility**

Credibility as defined by Pilot & Beck (2014) is a measure of the actuality value of qualitative research so that the study's findings are correct and accurate because the confidence in the truth of the study and the findings is the most important criterion. The credibility of qualitative data was

assured through multiple perspectives throughout data collection to ensure data were appropriate. This was done through data, theoretical triangulation, participant validation or member checks to ensure that data collected was accurate and representative of the phenomenon under study.

### **3.9.2 Transferability**

Transferability as contended by Pilot & Beck, (2014) is the extent to which findings are useful to persons in other settings and are different from other aspects of research as readers determine how applicable the findings should be to their situations. Transferability addressed the applicability of the findings to similar contexts and individuals not to broader contexts. Transferability was achieved by a thick description of the findings from multiple data collection methods to ensure the extent to which the findings were transferable to other situations. To ensure transferability of the findings, the study used purposive sampling technique to come up with a conclusive sample.

### **3.9.3 Dependability**

Dependability as defined by Guba & Lincoln (1985) is the degree of consistency, reliability and stability of findings and interpretation throughout the research process. To achieve dependability in this study, the researcher collected data from different viewpoints using interviews and classroom observation. Dependability was ensured through rigorous data collection techniques and procedures and analysis that are well documented. Typically, an inquiry audit using an outside reviewer assured dependability.

### **3.9.4. Confirmability**

Confirmability as defined by Polit & Beck (2014) is the neutrality to which the findings are consistent and could be repeated. This entails that the study should produce findings that reflect data collected from participants which must speak for themselves. This was done to ensure that the data and findings were not due to the participant or researcher biases. Confirmability of qualitative data was assured when data were checked and rechecked throughout data collection and analysis to ensure findings were likely be repeatable by others. The process was also thoroughly audited by the study supervisor. It was also ensured through triangulation and member checking of the data as well as conducting a bracketing interview to confront potential personal bias.

### **3.10 Ethical Consideration**

Ethical issues that arise in research in particular can be incredibly deep and intricate, and they frequently put researchers in moral binds that may seem remarkably insoluble (Cohen et al. 2011). Ethics is concerned with preventing harm to the welfare and interests of the researcher and research subjects as a result of the research being done. Research participants should not endure worry, stress, guilt, and self-esteem damage during data collection and in the interpretations drawn from the data they provide (Creswell (2014). Ethical considerations are a set of principles that guide the researcher's designs and practices. All ethical considerations in the study such as seeking permission from the authorities and issues of confidentiality were taken into account.

#### **3.10.1 Approval of the Study**

Ethical approval was sought from Chalimbana University Ethical Committee. Thereafter, the researcher obtained an introductory letter from the Assistant Dean Postgraduate to conduct a study. In order to go into schools, permission was sought from the District Educational Board Office of Kafue District who contacted and informed the sampled school headteachers about the visit of the researcher and the purpose of study. In schools, the researcher availed his introductory letter to the head-teachers who called upon targeted teachers. The researcher introduced himself and asked the teachers for consent. The purpose of the study and how data was going to be obtained was explained to participants who gave consent to the researcher. In the classrooms, the researcher was introduced as one of the learners which created a natural environment for data collection.

#### **3.10.2 Informed Consent**

The informed consent was obtained from the participants in the language they understand, in written by virtue of participation. The researcher provided the overall purpose of the research and the main features of the design, as well as of any possible risks and benefits from participation in the research. Participant were informed that the study did not have any risk on the participants and by taking part in the study, they were not entitled to monetary gain as the study was for academic purposes only. This enabled the researcher to obtain the voluntary participation of the people involved. The researcher also informed them of their right to withdraw from the study at any time.

Further, the researcher informed participants that results from the field would only be accessible after the completion of the study and the publication of the paper was done. In addition, a copy of the findings would be given to the District Education Board Office, the schools and the chief representative if they needed it as a way to appreciate and recognize the participant's participation and contribution to the study.

### **3.10.3 Confidentiality and Anonymity**

To assure participants' confidentiality and anonymity, the researcher removed all identifying information from the transcripts, and referred to participants according to identification codes. These codes included the unique teacher (T) and the classroom observation (CO) number in which they participated (e.g., T1, CO1), which are used in the Findings section to identify the source of quotations. This study received ethical approval from the host institution's ethics committee, comprising the head-teacher, deputy head-teacher, guidance coordinator and senior teacher.

In the study, the identity of the participants regarding their names and the kind of data provided was not exposed to any person. Participants' privacy was respected by keeping their names and other identifying information a secret at all times. In data analysis, the names of the schools, teachers, pupils and areas of study were not mentioned so as to protect their image and integrity. All data recordings were kept in a password folder which was only accessible by the researcher, and deleted after completion of writing the document. In this study, precautions were taken to make sure that readers would not even be able to quickly identify the participants by name based on the presentation of the findings. Particularly when presenting verbatims, codes were utilized to denote the participants and names of the schools.

### **3.11 Chapter Summary**

The chapter discussed the research approach, methodology, research design, population, sample, sampling procedure, and instruments of data collection, data collection procedure, data analysis, ethical considerations and a chapter summary. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

#### 4.0 Overview

The previous chapter presented the methodology to this study by highlighting on the research design and the mode of enquiry. This chapter presents the findings of the study on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in Kafue district. The findings are presented using the research questions in chapter one as main themes. The following are the inquiries: (i) How is linguistic oppression affecting learner performance through zonal language monopoly in literacy grade one classes of Kafue District? (ii) What are the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes of Kafue Rural District? (iii) Which linguistic practices do teachers use to teach learners in a linguistic minority area of Kafue Rural? In addition, subthemes emanating from the data will also be presented under specific research questions. A chapter summary will be presented at last.

#### 4.1 How is Linguistic Oppression Affecting Learner Performance through Zonal Language Monopoly in Grade One Literacy Classes of Kafue District?

The research question intended to ascertain the opinions of teachers on how linguistic oppression affected learner performance through zonal language monopoly in grade one literacy classes in selected primary schools of Kafue District. The research question was answered by teachers through interviews and classroom observation. These tools were used to ensure there was data triangulation in the study. Participants presented their own views on the topic and subsequent questions asked.

##### 4.1.1 Findings from the Interviews with Teachers

Participants were asked how the use of Cinyanja affected acquisition of literacy skills on grade one learner performance in a predominantly Goba speaking community. The results revealed a range of opinions regarding linguistic oppression affecting learner performance through zonal language monopoly in grade one literacy classes. Participants established that the use of Cinyanja presented challenges such as language barrier and poor participation. Further, the use of zonal

language delayed cognitive development making learners struggle to understand and process information. It was observed that most often, other learners became anxiety causing demotivation. Furthermore, teachers engaged gifted multilingual learners to interpret concepts to their peers who were not familiar with the language of instruction. From school 1, Teacher 3 said:

*Zonal language monopoly is not helping us so much when it comes to teaching grade one learners, especially during their first term in school. Learners are not able to use it in class as it is not the language they are familiar with. Teachers engage multilingual learners to assist in interpreting the concept into Goba language. Although this approach improves the ability of teachers to both teach and communicate with their grade one learners, it was unfavorable because a teacher is expected to communicate effectively to their learners. This situation affects and delays learner performance.*

From school 2, Teacher 2 observed:

*Some words in Nyanja which are also used in Goba may mean different things, for example the word 'nvura', for the Goba learners it means water whereas in Nyanja 'nvula' is rain. Although the intonation is different, young learners may not realise it. The other example word is 'mulungu' which means white man in Goba yet, in Nyanja 'mulungu' is God. So this confuses both the learner and the teacher.*

From school 3, Teacher 3 noted:

*I face challenges when teaching Cinyanja because my learners' home language is Goba. Normally, when Cinyanja is introduced to the learners, they find it challenging because they are not familiar with it. Performance is affected when they are not able to elicit meaning from the introduced Nyanja word.*

From school 4, Teacher 10 indicated:



*The use of zonal language makes learners fail to participate fully. This affects their performance. Further, learners at times feel uncomfortable when certain words are introduced to them as such words may sound insulting. The moment the Nyanja word is mentioned that may be an insult in Goba language, the whole class yells at the teacher and says you are insulting. Therefore, the teacher has to explain the meaning of the word in Nyanja to make them understand.*

Participants were also asked to mention common Goba words that were different from Cinyanja. It was established that there were a number of Goba words that were mostly used in school that differed from Cinyanja. Further revelation showed that certain Goba words were similar to Cinyanja words yet had different meaning causing miscommunication between the teacher and the learner. From school 1, Teacher 3 said.

*There are so many common Goba words that differ from Cinyanja that are used in a classroom set up. For example, in Goba, we say, 'mwamuka sei' to mean 'good morning' in English whilst in Cinyanja, it is 'mwauka bwanji. Other words used in communication are such as: 'mwamuka' to mean 'mwauka', translated as 'being awake' in English; 'mulisei' to mean 'mulibwanji', translated as how are you in English.*

From school 2, Teacher 5 mentioned:

*The Goba word, 'kunonoka' to mean 'kucedwa' in Cinyanja, translated as 'being late' in English. The other commonly used Goba word is 'uya' to mean 'bwera' in Cinyanja, translated as 'come' in English. Some Goba words have the same spellings yet have different meaning. For example, the word 'mulungu' in Goba refers to a 'Whiteman' whereas in Cinyanja it is referring to 'God.' This causes miscommunication between the teacher and the learner.*

From school 3, Teacher 9 said:

*The common Goba words in class are such as 'kudeidza' to mean 'khumphunzila' in Cinyanja, translated as 'to learn' in English. 'Kunyola' means 'kulemba' in Cinyanja, translated as 'to write' in English. 'Wawana' in Goba means 'you got it' in English, while in Nyanja, the word is 'wapedza.'*

From school 4, Teacher 11 observed:

*Words such as 'nyola,' 'gala,' 'kwamba,' and mudzidzisi were commonly used in class. The word 'Nyola' means 'lemba' in Cinyanja, translated as 'write' in English. The word 'gala' means 'nkhala' in Cinyanja, translated as 'sit' in English. The 'kwamba' means 'tota' in Cinyanja, translated as 'clap' in English. The Goba word 'mudzidzisi' means 'mphunzi' in Cinyanja, translated as 'teacher' in English.*

Participants were further asked to mention how linguistic oppression was affecting learner performance through zonal language monopoly in grade one literacy classes. The findings demonstrated that the learners' lack of knowledge in Nyanja caused anxiety and low self-esteem affecting classroom participation. The language of instruction impeded them from learning effectively since they had not acquired enough vocabulary which they could utilize in class. Further, some teachers had not acquired enough vocabulary in Goba language and could not utilize it when they were unable to communicate adequately in Chinyanja, the official language of instruction. This showed that zonal language delayed promotion of learning. This was observed from the responses provided by the teachers from the interviews: From school 1, Teacher 3 from said:

*Learners take time to learn the Cinyanja vocabulary which is affecting their performance in class. The language of instruction is new and only heard from the classroom because no one used it in the community.*

From school 2, Teacher 4 said:

*Learners failed to participate fully in class when the teacher asked learners to respond to his questions using Cinyanja. Their performance would be poor if the teacher did not alternate between Goba and Cinyanja.*

From school 3, Teacher 8 noted:

*It is quite difficult for learners to understand instructions in the language they rarely use in their home. For instance, I am not very conversant in both Cinyanja and Goba yet expected to teach effectively. This delays the learning process because both the teacher and the learners are learning new languages.*

Participants were later asked on how linguistic oppression was affecting learner performance through zonal language monopoly in grade one literacy classes. Participants revealed that the teachers' ability to teach was aided by their familiarity with the Nyanja language of instruction and the ability to understand some Goba vocabulary coupled with the capability of some learners' understanding of Cinyanja. When some learners showed lack of understanding of Nyanja, and the inability of the teacher to explain the concept in the Goba language, learners who were familiar with Cinyanja interpreted the concepts using Goba, a local language they understood better. This was demonstrated by the teachers' responses which were as follows: from school 1, Teacher 1 said:

*The languages spoken in my community have helped me a great deal in that I have learnt to speak some Goba and Cinyanja. So, they have helped me to interact well with my learners in class.*

From school 2, Teacher 6 noted:

*The languages I hear in my community have helped me in teaching because I can use them to communicate with my learners. Even in the case where I cannot speak fluently, I am at least able to understand. I also make use of the learners who speak both Cinyanja and Goba to explain to fellow learners, so I am able to interact with my learners.*

From school 3, Teacher 7 explained:

*The languages spoken in my community have helped me a lot. The more I hear them the more I become familiar with them and the easier it becomes for me to use them. In short, they help me even when I have a learner who does not understand Cinyanja but can understand one of the languages that are spoken in my community. I am able to translate from Cinyanja to any of these languages. In addition, learners who are able to understand both Cinyanja and Goba make my work easy as they are able to explain the concept to fellow learners.*

From school 4, Teacher 10 noted:

*The languages I hear in my community have helped me to teach because if a child does not understand when I teach using Cinyanja, I can use one of these languages that are spoken in the community to explain to them. The child will not completely miss the point because I am using a language which they hear from their community. Further, if I am not able to interpret the concept in Cinyanja, learners who understand Cinyanja are able to translate the concept into the Goba language understood by the learners.*

Participants were thereafter, asked to mention what their experiences were with the learners during phonemic awareness activities. The findings established that learners' manipulation of sound was based on the familiarity of sound found in their community and in their language. However, the sound of the day was introduced whose Nyanja words were nonsense to the learners who did not understand the language. Further, learners were encouraged to bring out sounds in the language they were familiar with. This approach encouraged learning and participation. From school 1, Teacher 3 noted:

*I use pictures and real objects to introduce sounds in Nyanja. Learners are given freedom to say what they see in pictures and name the objects in Goba language. If learners fail to say what they see in Nyanja, I mention the objects in Nyanja, so they learn the vocabulary. Then I will ask them to mention objects in Goba that depict the sound of the day.*

From school 2, Teacher 5 said:

*Because they are expected to know Nyanja words, I always prefer using Cinyanja throughout so that they can learn and be able to understand command. I consistently use Nyanja because assessments are in Cinyanja and not in Goba. Where some learners may fail, I ask other learners to translate. This promotes learning.*

From school 3 Teacher 8 noted:

*It is a challenge because most of the Nyanja words are double consonants compared to the Goba words. Learner uses single consonants were they need to use a double consonant. Nyanja words are different from the Goba words. For example, a 'stone' in Cinyanja is 'mwala' while in Goba is 'dombo'. Therefore, when you introduce the sound in Cinyanja, you ask them to the objects they know depicting the sound in their language to create a basis for Cinyanja vocabulary.*

Some of the different sounds in Cinyanja included 'nkuku' (chicken) for 'huku', 'njoka' (snake) for 'nyoka', 'nsomba' (fish) for 'hobe', 'nsapato' (shoe) for 'shangu', 'kwendo' (leg) 'gumbo', 'munthu' (person) 'munu'. 'makumbi' (sky) 'makahi'. This demonstrated the linguistic differences which existed between Goba and Cinyanja which was the regional language.

Participants were furthermore, asked how they ensured that learners were assessed effectively in a different language from their home language. The findings from the interviews revealed that learners experienced low achievements due to the language barrier. However, with teachers' consistence in the use of Cinyanja, learners were able to pick up Nyanja vocabulary and activities were repeatedly performed until they got the concept. Generally, the teacher was to translate the concepts being tested from Cinyanja into Goba for the first-year learners to understand something which caused learners to remain three year grade level behind. From school 1, Teacher 2 noted:

*Children need consistence in the use of the language which they eventually get to learn and use. This is done through consistent translation of concepts being assessed from Cinyanja into Goba for the first two years.*

*Learners are behind by three year grade level. The grade one work they are supposed to know only comes to be know when they are in three.*

From school 2, Teacher 6 observed:

*Repeated action of translation is key to make learners breakthrough in literacy although the process takes time. One has to do away with the weekly schedule to help all the learners.*

Participants were asked to mention on how the language challenge exhibited affected learner participation in literacy lessons. It was established that learners could not fully participate in the language they did not understand. Learners need time to master the sounds and Nyanja words in order to breakthrough. From school 1, Teacher 3 observed:

*It delayed learners to breakthrough as they needed enough time to master the sound, blend the syllables and make sensible Nyanja words.*

From school 2, Teacher 4 stated:

*Learners fail to express themselves fully Cinyanja whereas in Goba language, they participated fully.*

From school 3, Teacher 8 said:

*There are times when you give work to the learners, instead of writing Cinyanja words, they write responses in Goba. When you emphasise on the use of Cinyanja, participation is reduced. Other learners keep quiet in class.*

#### **4.1.2 Classroom Observation Data**

It was observed that learners in all the four schools interacted freely using Goba language even when the teacher used Nyanja. For instance, learners were heard saying Goba words such as ‘vapa’ to mean ‘go away’, ‘uya’ to mean ‘come’, ‘nyola’ to mean ‘write’, ‘vunza’ to mean ‘ask’ and ‘gala’ to mean ‘sit’. Meanwhile, these words mean differently in Cinyanja: yenda ‘go away’, bwera ‘come’, lemba ‘write’ funsa ‘ask’, nkala ‘sit’. However, their responses were given in Cinyanja

although some learners from school 2 kept quiet and watched the teacher. This demonstrated that some learners had difficulties in understanding instructions given in the zonal language. This was true to what teacher 2 experienced in class.

## **4.2 What are the Linguistic Oppressive Practices Being Experienced through Zonal Language Monopoly in Literacy Classes?**

The research question was intended to establish the views of teachers on the linguistic oppressive practices experienced through zonal language monopoly in grade one literacy classes. It was established by participants that learners failed to express their wish even when they needed to ease themselves. Furthermore, it was observed that the curriculum was biased towards the use of only Nyanja, the zonal language. This language barrier caused other learners fear to ask and speak. The inability to speak Cinyanja and fear of humiliation made some children hate school. In addition, it was established that textbooks, supplementary materials and all teaching and learning aids were written in Cinyanja causing language exclusion. Learners who spoke the minority language were excluded from the instructional content and educational resources. This situation did not provide opportunities for learners to appreciate their language and culture. Zonal language policy was seen as a recipe for cultural and language loss on the linguistic minority groups. Data on linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in grade one literacy classes is presented using the following themes: Language marginalization and Language teaching and learning.

### **4.2.1 Findings from the Interviews with Teachers**

Participants were asked to comment on the linguistic oppressive practices that were being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes of Kafue rural. The findings showed that Goba the community language was marginalized in favour of the dominant language Nyanja, the zonal language and official language of instruction in Lusaka province. All textbooks and other related teaching and learning materials were written in Cinyanja. The learners had no opportunity to read materials in their mother language. The findings revealed that teachers were also facing challenges when teaching using the regional language as learners had difficulties in comprehension. Furthermore, established that teachers had difficulties teaching grade one learners whose local language was different from the language of instruction. The following findings from

the interviews with the teachers are saved as evidence of their responses. From school 1, Teacher 1 noted:

*I have had a challenge with those learners who do not understand the zonal language because then I need to use the languages which they understand and sometimes you find that as a teacher you are also not conversant with those languages that learners understand. Further, all textbooks and materials are written in Cinyanja, learners have no opportunity to read materials in their mother tongue. For this reason, I continue using Cinyanja because it is the official language of instruction. My class is made to learn Cinyanja because all the materials are prepared in Cinyanja.*

From school 2, Teacher 4 observed:

*In this school, we encourage learners to use Cinyanja in class because it is the language of instruction. However, learners will always continue communicating in Goba because it is the language they are comfortable with. But we keep telling them to use Cinyanja in class which does not settle well with other learners.*

From school 3, Teacher 7 said:

*Learners are only exposed to reading materials that are in the language of instruction, their language is suppressed. The absence of learning materials for learners who speak the minority language creates a serious learning gap. There is need to address mismatch of language of instruction and community language for learners to breakthrough at grade level.*

From school 4, Teacher 12 explained:

*The school system uses only dominant language in assessment, disadvantaging learners who speak minority languages.*



Participants were asked on the linguistic oppressive practices that were being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes of Kafue rural. The study established that there were no materials which were presented in the learners' mother tongue. However, the dominant language Nyanja was supported with all the teaching and learning materials. This was observed through teachers' instructions and materials presented in class. The following findings from the interviews with the teachers are saved as evidence of their responses. From school 1, Teacher 3 mentioned:

*I teach learners how to read and write only in Cinyanja, the official language of instruction for Kafue district since it is in Lusaka province. I don't teach them how to write Goba because the books I use are in Nyanja.*

From school 2, Teacher 6 observed:

*I teach my learners how to read and write in Cinyanja because all the books and other teaching and learning materials are written in Cinyanja, the zonal language of instruction in Lusaka province.*

From school 3, Teacher 9 said:

*I encourage my learners to speak more of Nyanja in my class, so they learn how to speak, read and write because all assessments are done through the zonal language of instruction.*

Participants were asked on how they teach children who do not understand language of instruction in class. Participants revealed that only Nyanja language was to be used for instruction in class since Kafue district was in Lusaka Province where Nyanja was assigned as language of instruction at lower primary. Further, the findings showed that teachers explained the concepts to the learners in the language they understood but write and respond in the Nyanja, the language of instruction. Additionally, the results revealed that when teachers taught using Nyanja and learners did not show a fair amount of understanding they changed the language to help the learners. From school 1, Teacher 2 said:

*Since we are in Lusaka Province, I use Nyanja throughout when I am teaching my learners. If communication is in Goba, learners may not learn Cinyanja.*

From school 2, Teacher 5 noted:

*The policy emphasises the use of zonal language but encourages the teacher to explain the concepts in the language the learner understands. But learners should not write and respond in a language which is not the language of instruction.*

From school 3, Teacher 8 noted:

*The policy says we must use Nyanja but in most cases I include Goba because it is one of the learners' languages of play. The teacher has to code switch to make the learners understand.*

From school 4, Teacher 10 observed:

*The policy says that all teachers handling grade one learners must use Nyanja as language of instruction. In most cases learners fail to understand the concept but when I switch from Cinyanja language to Goba language pupils easily understand. So, if I teach using Nyanja and learners don't show a fair amount of understanding I change the language.*

Participants were also asked on the kind of linguistic oppressive practices learners experience through the use of Nyanja as medium of instruction in Chiawa. Participants revealed that learners lacked concentration, experienced language barrier and miscommunication. It was established that certain similar Nyanja and Goba words had different meanings making it difficult for learners to elicit sense. From school 1, Teacher 1 observed:

*Similar Nyanja and Goba words may mean differently. For example, the word 'kumba' in Goba is 'at home' whilst in Cinyanja may refer to 'dig'. This creates miscommunication between the teacher and the learner. Learners feel out of class and stop paying attention to their teacher.*

From school 2, Teacher 6 said:

*Since they are learning the language, it is difficult for them to understand the word meaning. This makes them lose concentration, they keep quiet or just watch the teacher talking.*

Participants were later asked on the other kind of language support they provided to grade ones who failed to use Nyanja in class. It was established from the teacher that they used pictures and concrete objects to introduce Nyanja vocabulary. Further, results have shown that children were allowed to discuss the pictures and naming the objects in the language they understood whereas teachers used Nyanja language to name the objects and to describe the pictures. This was done in order to introduce Cinyanja vocabulary to learners. In addition, it was revealed that teachers used pictures and conversation posters while encouraging learners to use the language they knew to describe pictures. Results have shown that learners were encouraged to converse in Goba while the teacher explains in Cinyanja language. From school 1, Teacher 2 said:

*I use chats and real objects and allow learners to discuss such using their local language. Through this, learners are able to interact, and I use this opportunity to translate the discussion of key words into Cinyanja for my lesson for progress.*

From school 2, Teacher 6 stated:

*Instructions given in Nyanja are translated into the Goba to enable them to grasp the concept in the language they understand. This makes learners learn something from that lesson. If not, I will be speaking to myself.*

From school 3, Teacher 7 observed:

*Pictures and conversation posters are used. Learners use the language they know to describe pictures. Learners are encouraged to converse in Goba while the teacher explains in Cinyanja language.*

Participants were also asked on how they viewed children who could write in Goba, the community language and not in Cinyanja, the zonal language with justification. Some participants observed

that they had no learner who could write either in Goba or Cinyanja. It was established from one teacher that learners who could write words in Goba had broken through in literacy and only needed encouragement on how to write correct spellings in Cinyanja which mostly took double and triple consonants. From school 1, Teacher 3 said:

*These can also read any word in Cinyanja because they have broken through. A learner who can attack words can read any word even when it does not make sense. These are treated as nonsense words when written in an alien language.*

From school 2, Teacher 4 observed:

*Using Goba to teach learners provided a better understanding to the learners. Learners were not encouraged to read and use language to write answers in class. This showed that the learner's language is not regarded to the classroom learning.*

Participants were asked on how the language support they provided helped learners to acquire literacy skills in grade one class. It was established that the use of conversation posters, picture reading and concrete objects was a prerequisite to language development which enhanced acquisition of literacy skills. Further, it was revealed that teachers used pictures to enable them to relate to the sound of the object to make them understand the concept. From school 1, Teacher 3 observed:

*Pictures enable them to relate the sound to the objects which makes them understand the concept.*

From school 2, Teacher 6 noted:

*The use of Goba language during lessons helps learners to grasp the concept because it is their familiar language.*

From school 3, Teacher 9 highlighted:

*The use of chats makes learners understand the concept which enhances language development and acquisition of skills.*

#### **4.2.2 Classroom Observation Data**

The data from teachers come to an agreement with what the researcher observed. The observation brought out information that was similar to what the responses teachers gave. The observer wanted to establish the linguistic oppressive practices that learners were subjected to through the use of zonal language in literacy classes. It was observed that in all the four schools, teaching and learning materials were in Cinyanja, causing language marginalization. Learners were being encouraged to respond using Cinyanja because it was the language of instruction. This approach, if not well checked caused language assimilation. Additionally, it was also observed that teachers used some Goba words to help learners with difficulties in understanding Cinyanja. For instance, at school 1, the teacher translated the story into Goba when there was no feedback from the learners. Teacher 1 from school 1 tells a story in Cinyanja to introduce sound /ny/:

The story: Nyongani anali nyamata okonda nyimbo, nyemba, nyama na nyoni za munyumba.

Teacher: “*Kodzi nhtano iyi, ilindinkekelo bwanji yainyinjji*”? (English: *In this story, what is the frequently head sound?*)

Teacher: “*Mwati mwanvela vamene nakamba*”? (English: *Have you heard my story?*)

Learners: “*Iyayi*”. (English: *No.*)

The teacher was seen explaining the concept in the language familiar to the learners.

This was also exhibited by teacher 2 who asked one learner to translate to peers what the teacher had said.

Teacher 2: “*Lembani kamusanga musanga*”

Pupil 1: “*Manyeni kunyola*”.

It was also observed that learners were able to provide responses in some Cinyanja coupled with some Goba words and English.

Pupil 2: “*Galeni, muyenda khuti*”? (English: Sit, where are you going?)

Pupil 3: “*Tiyenda Kumba*”. (English: We are going home).

Pupil 2: “*Alright*”.

It can be concluded that there are linguistic oppressive practices learners experience through the use of zonal language. The linguistic oppressive practices that are being experienced in grade one literacy classes are in relation to language marginalization and language assimilation. The findings established from participants show that learners fail to express their wish even when they needed to ease themselves. Learners develop fear to ask and speak. All teaching and learning materials were written in Cinyanja. The inability to speak Cinyanja and fear of humiliation made some children hate school. However, teachers found supportive strategies that aided learning.

### **4.3 Which Linguistic Practices Do Teachers Use to Teach Grade One Learners in A Linguistic Minority Areas?**

The third research question intended to explore the views of teachers on the linguistic practices that teachers used to teach grade one learners in Kafue rural literacy classes. Data for this question was collected using interviews with teachers and classroom observations.

#### **4.3.1 Findings from Interviews with Teachers**

Participants were asked on the linguistic practices teachers use to teach grade one learners in a linguistic minority area. The findings revealed that in order to ensure that every learner understood instructions during class, teachers were code switching from Nyanja to Goba to accommodate all learners’ linguistic need and to serve the linguistic minority learners who failed to demonstrate understanding of the language of instruction in class. Further, the revelation showed that class activity emphasis was still made in Nyanja because it is the official language of instruction. Additionally, the results showed that learners provided feedback through their home language which enabled teachers to learn the community language whilst teaching using zonal language and learners were acquiring and learning the Nyanja language. It was established that the teachers’ linguistic practices such as code switching, scaffolding and bilingual instruction supported teaching and facilitated learning. From school 1, Teacher 2 said:

*To ensure that every learner understands my instructions during class, I code switch from Nyanja to Goba so that all my learners are accommodated. I am using code-switching method in order to serve the linguistic minority learners who fail to demonstrate understanding of the language of instruction in class. However, the emphasis is still made in Nyanja because it is the official language of instruction.*

From school 2, Teacher 4 noted:

*Learners provided feedback through their community language. This situation enabled teachers to learn the community language whilst teaching using zonal language and learners were acquiring and learning the Nyanja, language of instruction. Therefore, I interpret for my learners.*

Participant were further asked on approaches to teaching literacy to grade one learner who were not familiar with Nyanja. The results indicated that the use of conversation posters, concrete objects, and chats supported learners who were not familiar with the Cinyanja language. The approach was used before introducing sounds to enhance the development of Nyanja vocabulary. Further, it was established that teachers constantly used Cinyanja in class even when learners provided responses in Goba so they could build Nyanja vocabulary. Additionally, it was established that concrete objects, chats, conversation posters were used to support the learners who could not speak Cinyanja to enhance Nyanja vocabulary before introducing sounds. From school 1, Teacher 1 said:

*I constantly use Cinyanja even when I get responses in Goba. With consistence, learners eventually learn commands and build on Nyanja vocabulary.*

From school 2, Teacher 4 noted:

*I use concrete objects, and chats to support learners who are not familiar with Cinyanja language before introducing sounds.*

From school 3, Teacher 7 observed:

*Conversation posters were used to support the learners who could not speak Cinyanja to enhance Nyanja vocabulary development.*

Participants were also asked on the linguistic practices teachers use to teach grade one learners who are non-speakers of Cinyanja. It was established that teachers translated, code switched, interpreted and mixed the languages in order to encourage learner participation although it was time consuming. Furthermore, it was revealed that Learners benefited so much when teachers incorporated other languages during teaching which helped learners to understand more despite that the lesson may not be completed as planned. It was found to be of importance for a teacher to know many languages to accommodate learners with different linguistic needs. Additionally, it was revealed that learners who failed to understand the concept in Cinyanja, teachers interpreted for them and also allow them to code switch from Nyanja, language of instruction to Goba, the community language so as to encourage participation in class. From school 1, Teacher 2 said:

*I use translation strategy. Translation enables learners to provide feedback. This encourages participation although it is time consuming.*

From school 2, Teacher 6 observed:

*I normally do language mixing to make learners understand better. For instance, I do explain in Nyanja then I add a little bit of Goba because most of my learners speak Goba. This makes it easy for the learners to understand what I teach. Learners benefit so much when I incorporate other languages during teaching which helps them to understand more despite that the lesson may not be completed as planned. Actually, it is important for a teacher to know many languages because one may meet learners with different language needs.*

From school 3, Teacher 8 noted:

*When my learners fail to understand the concept in Cinyanja I interpret for them and I also allow them to code switch from Nyanja, language of instruction to Goba, the community language so as to encourage participation in class. We are not restricted to using only Cinyanja. If*



*learners are not understanding, you can switch to even other languages which you feel learners are comfortable with because the whole idea is to make learners understand.*

From school 4, Teacher 11 said:

*I code switch, I go to Goba then I explain the same thing in Cinyanja. Then they can understand better.*

Additionally, it was observed that some teachers chose particular languages that were frequently used in their classes and used them to engage learners in the subject matter being taught. These languages included most of the classroom languages that the learners were comfortable with, not just Goba. From school 1, Teacher 2 stated:

*I use the learners' languages of play which are Chitonga and Nyanja. If there is a learner who can still not understand, then I switch to the language which that particular learner understands.*

Participants were also asked on how the suggested practices help in literacy acquisition. The findings showed that the practices such as code switching, interpreting, language mixing and the use of concrete objects, chats and conversational posters enhanced classroom participation and promoted language development which was key for literacy acquisition. From school 3, Teacher 8 observed:

*The practices suggested such as code switching and interpreting caters for all the learners in class.*

From school 2, Teacher 4 noted:

*The use of interpretation practice helps learners to understand instructions. This approach aids non-speakers of the language of instruction in their learning how to read and write.*

From school 1, Teacher 2 said:

*When I use Cinyanja language, and my learners seem not to understand I interpret the concept in Goba language to make them easily understand. The interpretation approach facilitates grasping of concepts, literacy skills and accommodates every need of the learner.*

Participants were asked on how the linguistic practices suggested improve learner participation in literacy lessons. The participants established that code switching, interpreting, language mixing, and the use of concrete objects, chats and conversational posters gave freedom to the learners to express themselves in a language they knew coupled with the language of instruction enabled them to participate actively in class. From school 1, Teacher 1 said:

*When you are consistent in the use of Nyanja, learners easily get to learn the new vocabulary. If you are not consistent, learners will not know how to write Cinyanja, the language of instruction. Although this approach delays progression in literacy development.*

From school 3, Teacher 5 explained:

*The freedom of expression given to learner to utilise the linguistic resource available enables them to participate actively in class. It also promotes learning.*

From school 4, Teacher 12 mentioned:

*When I teach using Nyanja and learners don't show a fair amount of understanding I code switch to the language that my learners are comfortable with to foster learning. These linguistic practices such as translation and code switching caters for all the learners thus making them participate fully in literacy lessons.*

#### **4.3.2 Classroom Observation Data**

The researcher wanted to explore the existing solutions on linguistic practices that teachers use to teach learners in a linguistic minority area of Kafue rural literacy classes. The findings from classroom observations revealed that teachers used different linguistic support approaches to aid

learning in class. It was established from the classroom observation that teachers used linguistic practices such as language mixing, code switching and translation to make learners understand better. Furthermore, the classroom observation showed that learners were equally encouraged to express their thoughts in the language they understood thereby supporting learners' linguistic rights. From school 3, Teacher 8 class:

*Lelo tizaphunzila ma sounds (English: Today we want to learn about sounds)*

Teacher: *'Lelo tifuna tiphunzile ma ciani? (English: today we want to learn about what?)*

Pupils: *'Ma sounds (English: Sounds)*

Teacher: *'Sound ni nvekelo mu Cinyanja. (English: Sound is nvekelo in Nyanja)*

Teacher: *'Sound ni ca'ani mu Cinyanja? (English: What is sound in Nyanja?)*

Learners shout: *'ni nvekelo! (English: It is nvekelo)*

*Teacher points at a stone on the table and asks the learners*

Teacher: *'ni ciani ici? (English: What is this?)*

Learners shout: *'ni dombo! (English: It is a stone)*

Teacher: *'nanga dombo ni ciani? (English: What is dombo?)*

Learners shout: *'ni ico! (English: It is that)*

Teacher: *Nindani angationese dombo apa? (English: Who can show us a stone here?)*

Learners: *'iyi apa! (English: Here is it)*

Teacher: *'Alright! dombo mu Cinyanja ni mwala? (English: Alright! in Nyanja, dombo is called mwala')*

The teacher points at the stone and asks learners: *Ni ciani ici? (English: What is this?)*

Learners shouts: *'ni mwala! (English: a stone)*

Teacher: *Inde mwakhonza uyu ni mwala. (English: You got it, this is a stone). Manje tizapeza vinthu vilina nvekelo /mw/ (English: Now let's find items with the initial sound /mw/).*

The findings from the teachers who were interviewed revealed that despite the challenges posed by linguistic oppression, teachers in Kafue rural literacy classes are developing innovative strategies to support multilingual learners by embracing students' linguistic diversity and leveraging their existing language knowledge. Teachers are creating inclusive learning environments that foster participation, engagement and literacy acquisition such as code switching and language mixing.

#### **4.4 Chapter Summary**

This chapter began by presenting the views of teachers on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in selected grade one literacy classes of Kafue rural. It also presented findings on the classroom linguistic practices that teachers use in literacy classes in rural schools. The chapter has ended by describing how teachers teach literacy among grade ones. Through the use of interviews and classroom observations, the researcher was able to collect the data that this chapter presented. The next chapter discusses the findings of the study.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

#### 5.0 Overview

The findings of the study were presented in the previous chapter. This chapter presents a discussion of findings in relation to the literature review and theory that the study adopted on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in Kafue rural literacy classes. The discussion is presented under the themes from the research objectives.

#### 5.1 Linguistic Oppression Affecting Learner Performance through Zonal Language Monopoly

The study established that teachers used Nyanja to teach grade one learners because it was the official language of instruction for Kafue district. However, the use of Nyanja caused anxiety, poor participation and miscommunication among learners who had not fully developed the Nyanja vocabulary and failed to express their wish especially during their first term in school. This language gap between Nyanja, LOI and Goba, L1 delayed the learning process. Since LOI delays learning in Chiawa zone, teachers abrogated its directive to save learners' linguistic rights. These findings are supported by Pulinx, et al. (2017) who observed that educational policies which were based on a stringent monolingual ideology were problematic. The researchers believed that policy on LOI affects teachers differently and their beliefs varied according to schools. Monolingual ideologies in multilingual societies are not supported by some scholars and teachers as they consider it a barrier to breakthrough for speakers of other languages. Pulinx, et al. (2017) observed that a stronger adherence to monolingualism was found to trigger teachers to have lower expectations about their students but not about their ability to teach. Similarly, in Zambia, teachers have the ability to handle different kinds of learners in their classes but the mismatch between LOI and L1 delayed the learning process. Thus, if teachers become rigid of the political linguistic boundaries as the policy is, no single learning could take place hence the use of code switching and translation strategies.

The findings of the study also established that schools had textbooks and other teaching and learning materials in Nyanja which teachers used giving no room for learners to appreciate their

L1. This has serious repercussions both on local cultures and on international relations, given the emotive aspects of one's first language. It can be contended that discussions on language of instruction in schools are frequently made based on the need for national language in career development irrespective of the ethnic groupings in a multilingual community thereby subjecting early graders to learning two languages, the L2 and L1 since learners have not developed the desired vocabulary in both. These findings are supported by Rogers (2014) who found that the learning of more than one language at a young age and of learning subjects through a language which was not the first language was detrimental. There is a possibility that languages with smaller number of speakers are doomed to being lost and replaced by a national language. The language teaching was not actually succeeding in improving students' ability to use of English or learning (Rogers, 2014). The implication of these findings is that monolingual ideologies may cause language marginalization and language assimilation.

The findings of the study further established that there were a number of Goba words that were mostly used by learners in school that differed from Cinyanja, and some teachers had not acquired adequate Goba vocabulary to use when they needed to emphasize points in a language learners understood. The use of Nyanja is not promoting effective learning process, it is new to learners. The findings are in tandem with Hoominfar (2014) who showed that the absence of mother languages in Iran's education system has caused some problems for participants in both the academic field and identity issues. Communities were formed of different ethnic groups who spoke different languages. Therefore, monolingual approach to policy language on instruction was not only discriminatory but also oppressive. Learners fail to grasp the concept leading to poor performance in class.

It was established that the adopting languages such as Nyanja in a predominantly Goba speaking community caused some learners hate school and schools recording high level dropouts as some could not understand the concept because certain Goba words were similar to Nyanja words yet had different meaning causing serious miscommunication between the teacher and the learner. These findings are in line with Mumpande et al. (2019) who observed that adopting languages that were not common in another predominantly speaking area resulted in the isolation and marginalization of learners, who were denied the right to education in the classroom context, leading to negative attitudes towards schools and high failure and dropout rates. In order to

accommodate all learners, teachers explained concepts using Goba and learners who were familiar with Cinyanja interpreted some concepts to their peers using Goba, a local language they understood better.

The study established that learners who are introduced to Cinyanja find it challenging because they are not familiar with it and are not able to elicit meaning out of its new vocabulary. Language anxiety amongst learners affects their academic performance. The use of Nyanja hinders effective learning as learners may show lack of vocabulary to use in class. In support of this, Mataka, et al. (2020) proved that learning and teaching using a second language contribute to weaker cognitive and academic development. Focusing on teachers' experiences with regard to the language of learning and teaching in their classes and how they applied other practices to mitigate the challenge of comprehension, the findings showed that learners learned better in their home language. The use of indigenous languages eliminates the issue of translation of texts into indigenous languages because learners comprehend what is being taught, which eventually eliminates the culture of silence.

Further findings of the study established that learners' manipulation of sound was based on the familiarity of sound found in their community and in their language. Teachers used Nyanja to introduce the phoneme of the day although learners were encouraged to bring out sounds in their language. The use of Nyanja made learners fail to participate fully and affected their performance in literacy. This prompted teachers to carefully select words to use and explain the meaning to make learners understand better. Madonsela (2015) supports the findings by noting that the capacity to use language is unique from one individual to another, by way of individual's exposure to language. Languages spoken in the community aided the teachers in their classroom instruction because they became familiar with them and were able to use them to explain concepts to learners who could not understand Cinyanja. Languages that teachers hear in their communities contribute to the enrichment of their vocabulary enabling them to provide learners with rich language support. Examples of different sounds in Goba and Cinyanja included 'nkuku' (chicken) for 'huku', 'njoka' (snake) for 'nyoka', 'nsomba' (fish) for 'hobe', 'nsapato' (shoe) for 'shangu', 'kwendo' (leg) 'gumbo', 'munthu' (person) 'munu'. 'makumbi' (sky) 'makahi'. If teachers became rigid towards the use of only Nyanja in class, no learning could take place.

Other results of the study established that with consistence in the use of Cinyanja, learners were able to pick up Nyanja vocabulary. The teacher should translate the concepts being tested from Cinyanja into Goba for the first-year learners to understand something. Code-switching, translating and language mixing enables learners to understand the content and concept. Therefore, Nyanja was not appropriate for use in Chiawa zone because if teachers were using the language that learners understood well, translation and code-switching methods were not going to be practiced. The study by Chibesakunda, et al. (2019) concluded that learners performed poorly in literacy due to the fact that the zoned language was unfamiliar to learners in that area where it was used as a medium of teaching literacy. This situation is similar to that of schools in Lusaka province, particularly in Chiawa zone of Kafue district where Nyanja LOI is different from Goba, community language which must scaffold the development of initial literacy.

It was established that learners could not fully participate in the language they did not fully understand, and they needed time to master the sounds in Nyanja in order to breakthrough. Learners interacted freely using Goba language even when the teacher used Nyanja. Because of Goba inclination, learners were heard saying ‘vunza’ instead of ‘funsa’, ‘gala’ instead of ‘nkala’ and failing to say ‘kunyumba’ but said ‘kumba’. This demonstrated a strong L1 interference between Nyanja LOI and Goba L1. Chinyama (2016) supports the findings by who noting that nearly all learners mispronounced Bemba words because of the interference of Namwanga which is their L1. Learners were saying ‘ecipuna’ instead of saying ‘icipuna’ (chair). Teachers faced difficulty to understand what their learners were saying as most of them (teachers) did not know Namwanga. Similarly, this shows that learners in this area have semantic challenges as they did not respond according to the teacher’s expectation because they did not understand.

The study established that the teachers' ability to teach was aided by their familiarity with the Nyanja language of instruction and the ability to understand some Goba vocabulary coupled with the capability of some learners’ understanding of Cinyanja. Learners who were familiar with Cinyanja interpreted the concepts to peers using Goba a local language they understood better. However, Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) dispute these findings when it was established that the teaching of literacy using translanguaging practices in grade 1 multilingual class was associated with challenges like the mismatch between the language of instruction and dominant learner’s familiar languages that existed in the classroom; rigidity of the language policy which was based



on monolingualism throughout the learners' learning process; strict monolingual based assessment which only tested skills in the regional language and inadequate teaching and learning materials which supported monolingual language learning. True to Nyimbili & Mwanza (2021) findings, the Nyanja words introduced were nonsense to the learners who could not understand the language but fostered learning and literacy acquisition.

The results revealed that teachers translated the concepts being assessed from Cinyanja to Goba especially during the learners' first year in school for them to understand something. This shows that a duo local literacy policy was being used to help learners succeed and become literate. The languages that teachers heard in their communities contributed to the enrichment of their vocabulary, enabling them to provide their learners with rich information. However, Nyimbili and Mwanza (2021) dispute the findings by showing that the literacy levels have remained low because of the country's language policy which places a strong emphasis on one language of instruction while presenting other languages in the region as problem. This evidence is also supported by (Silavwe et al., 2019) who showed that language policy overlooks the community's actual language of play, which could be useful in class, as a result, learners have low literacy levels. The implication of this study is that however much teachers translate the content of the assessment, learners still have low literacy levels.

Based on the findings of the study, Ruiz's Language Orientation Theory (1984) supports the findings on linguistic oppression affecting learner performance. The theory's orientations align with the study's conclusions. Zonal language monopoly in this study is viewed as language as a problem orientation contributing to linguistic oppression thus negatively impacting the minority linguistic learners' performance. Teachers' use of learners' language to make them understand the concept is seen to be language as a right orientation promoting learners' language rights, aligning with the study's emphasis on linguistic diversity and inclusion. Therefore, in this study, language as a resource orientation values linguistic diversity, supporting the study's findings on the benefits of multilingualism.

## **5.2 Linguistic Oppressive Practices Being Experienced through Zonal Language Monopoly in Literacy Classes**

The study established that learners failed to express their wish even when they needed to ease themselves. The inability to communicate effectively and lack of vocabulary in the zonal language caused nervousness and humiliation which made some children hate school. Learners became bored because all textbooks, supplementary materials including teaching and learning aids were written in Cinyanja. The lack of materials in the language spoken does not provide opportunities for learners to appreciate their language and it is a recipe for cultural and language loss on the linguistic minority learners. This indicates that Goba language which learners are familiar with is marginalized in favor of Nyanja the zonal language of instruction for Lusaka province. This, however, equates with the findings of Gautam & Poudel (2022) who claimed that there was an intertwined relationship between linguistic diversity, democracy, and multilingualism, the ongoing democratic practices had become counterproductive in maintaining the linguistic diversity leading to the marginalization of minority and lesser-known languages.

The study findings also indicated that the community language was not being supported by any textbook and other teaching and learning materials (TLM). All textbooks and related TLMs were in the dominant language Nyanja. From the teachers' instructions and materials presented in class, the linguistic and cultural identities of learners were ignored. Teachers were not conversant with the language learners understood which prompted them to continue using Cinyanja as it was the official language of instruction. Their classes were made to learn Cinyanja because all the materials were written in Cinyanja. This makes sense why Dearden & Macaro (2016) claimed that in a multilingual society where only one language was used for instruction in school, detection of variability in attitudes was in relation to language use in the community. This is what was observed when learners were exposed to reading materials that were only in the language of instruction, suppressing learners' linguistic rapport.

The results also showed that teachers had challenges meeting the linguistic needs of learners who did not understand zonal language because then they needed to use the languages which they understood, they sometimes found themselves also not being able to speak Goba language fluently. The results conquer with those of Norro (2021) who observed that controversial language

ideologies affected the language policy and teachers' beliefs coupled with differences in teachers' practices according to the school region's degree of linguistic diversity, the subject taught, and differences between their self-reported and enacted practices. Further, Norro (2021) observed that teachers' multilingual practices were rather unplanned and momentary did not leverage multimodality. The unplanned linguistic practices demonstrate a need to include multilingual teaching methods in initial and in-service teacher education to create opportunities for teachers and student teachers to reflect on their beliefs and the language ideological. The monolingual language policy is problematic, and its implementation is challenging in linguistic minority areas.

The study also found that only Nyanja language was to be used for instruction at lower primary since Kafue district was in Lusaka Province. Teachers' explanation of concepts was done in the language learners understood but were encouraged to write and respond in Nyanja. Sometimes when teachers taught using Cinyanja and learners did not show a fair amount of understanding they changed the language to help the learners. Although learners were helped, they still showed lack of concentration and experienced language barrier because the teacher was not able to use their language throughout. The foregoing is supported by Lipinge & Banda (2020) who revealed that students struggle to partake in meaningful classroom interaction and to comprehend instructions when content was in English. True to the current study, teachers used Nyanja throughout with a view to encourage learning because if they used Goba, it would be difficult for learners to learn Nyanja. This approach good it may look, caused miscommunication between the teacher and the learner.

It was established that certain similar Nyanja and Goba words had different meanings making it difficult for learners to elicit sense. A word may have different meaning when used in Nyanja language and the same word may mean something else in Goba. This prompted teachers to learn the language spoken in their community and the need to understand the difference in word meaning in order to communicate effectively with their learners who did not know Cinyanja. These findings are disputing Pütz (2020) who showed that the linguistic landscape exclusively focused on the dominant status and role of one single language French, and to a lesser extent English speakers felt marginalized and oppressed by the French government. Contrary to the current findings, learners felt they were being accommodated as they were able to learn new words of similar spelling pattern. The use of pictures and concrete objects to introduce Nyanja vocabulary bridged

the gap between language of instruction and the community language. Learners were allowed to discuss pictures and objects in the language they understood while teachers used Nyanja to name objects and to describe pictures. This translation practice enabled learners to grasp the concept in the language they understood and provided a better platform for understanding the lesson.

The findings revealed that teachers allowed learners to provide responses in the language they understood better while engaging discussion in Nyanja. This opportunity enabled learners to converse in Goba whilst teachers' explanation is given in Cinyanja. This approach was used to promote learning. These findings are supported by Simachenya (2019) who observed that most of the learners preferred using Nyanja and English, instead of Tonga the zonal language both at lower and upper primary when seeking clarity to facilitate learning among peers and to respond to their teachers. Learners also preferred English to Tonga to facilitate participation and addressing teachers to maintain formality and prestige.

The findings of the study revealed that schools in Chiawa zone did not promote Goba language because it was not the official language of instruction. Despite allowing learners discuss pictures and conversation posters in their language, they were not allowed to write answers in Goba which showed marginalization. These findings are supported by Machinyise (2018) who established that there was language shift due to proximity to the city and the interaction between the indigenous tribes and migrants who came to the city for work and business. The study confirms that language policy is another factor that contributes to language shift. Zonal language policy confines Goba language to the home domain only. It is important to note that the languages widely spoken for business by adults are different from the languages learners use in homes. Therefore, the language policy should take into account the sociolinguistic background of the minority early graders on whom the language policy is imposed in order that they participate fully in class.

The findings revealed that teachers had some learners who could write and read either in Goba or Cinyanja. Teachers showed that learners who could write and read words in Goba had broken through in literacy and only needed encouragement on how to write correct spellings in Cinyanja. In most cases learners misspelt and pronounced words wrongly because they were coming from homes that used Goba, therefore were not conversant with Nyanja vocabulary. These findings are supported by Chinyama (2016) who reported that most learners had semantic challenges as they

were not responding according to the teacher's expectation because they did not understand Bemba since they were coming from homes which were using Namwanga for all manner of communication. This study shows that nearly all the learners in grade one classes had difficulties in pronouncing Nyanja words because of the interference of Goba which their L1 was making it difficult for teachers to understand what their learners were saying as most teachers did not know Goba.

The research also revealed that teachers used linguistic support strategies such as code switching and language mixing during conversation posters and picture reading. Concrete objects were used as prerequisite to language development which enhanced acquisition of literacy skills. Pictures were also used when introducing the sound of the day. This approach enabled learners to relate the picture to the introduced sound. The study by Lungu (2019) confirms that teachers taught literacy using both Chinyanja and English by code switching and code mixing. However, the low reading levels were attributed to variables like difficulties in the methodology, pupil absenteeism and lack of reading and learning materials. Some teachers and pupils did not have much knowledge on the language of classroom instruction (Chinyanja). Both had to learn the language used first before the teaching and learning sessions.

The findings on linguistic oppressive practices through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes are supported by Ruiz (1984) language orientation theory. The Nyanja dominant language and zonal language is imposed on learners viewing minority language as a problem to be solved, perpetuating linguistic oppression. Language as a right orientation disputes these findings, the theory advocates for language rights, contradicting zonal language monopoly, a single language, highlighting the need to recognise and respect learners' language rights. Language as a personal right encompasses the freedom of an individual to speak in and to preserve their language heritage and fundamental freedom. Linguistic minority rights is a human right obligation (UN News Centre, 2014). Therefore, there is need for the district and individual schools to tolerate and promote oriented rights. In this study, language as resource orientation values linguistic diversity contradicting the suppression of minority languages and emphasises the benefits of multilingualism and language diversity in literacy classes.

### **5.3 Linguistic Practices Teachers Use to Teach Learners in A Linguistic Minority Area**

The study's findings showed that teachers were code switching from Nyanja to Goba to accommodate learners' linguistic need and to serve the linguistic minority learners who failed to demonstrate understanding of the language of instruction in class. Learners were encouraged to do class activities in Nyanja because it was the official language of instruction. Teachers' linguistic practices such as code switching, scaffolding and bilingual instruction supported teaching and facilitated learning. These findings are supported by Durán & Palmer (2014) who established that students who identified themselves constantly with either English or Spanish, the languages they were familiar with performed better in class. Using multiple codes and linguistic features to achieve communicative goals came out to be considered a useful form of interaction within the classroom. Code switching is treated as a normal and acceptable classroom practice which is not stigmatised in any way as learners interacted freely with their teachers. Despite the challenges posed by linguistic oppression, teachers in Kafue rural literacy classes had adopted innovative linguistic practices that supported their learners. These practices embraced learners' linguistic diversity by leveraging their existing language knowledge and enabling creation of inclusive learning environments that fostered learner participation in class and helpful in literacy acquisition.

The results also indicated that the use of conversation posters, concrete objects, and chats supported learners who were not familiar with Cinyanja language. This approach was useful for introducing sounds and for enhancing the development of Nyanja vocabulary and literacy skills. Although teachers generally tried to stick to the prescription of the language policy, learners were free to use their preferred language and had their response affirmed. Although the practice of bilingualism was seen being practiced by teachers in Chiawa zone to support the linguistic minority, the language policy in the Zambian context only allows to use the official zonal languages according to provinces. The study revealed that teachers were not rigid to using zonal language only but explained concepts in the language familiar to the learners. This approach promoted learning.

The study revealed that the use of conversation posters, concrete objects, and chats supported learners who were not familiar with Cinyanja language. Learners were able to mention names of objects in their own language even if this was not supported by policy. Therefore, teachers were

only limited to using Nyanja for writing. In dispute, Murati (2015) showed that teachers were free to choose the teaching methods and materials they wanted to use and that pupils were involved in choosing the reading materials used in instruction such as youth literature, magazines, and media texts. Even a small number of immigrants' children were given an opportunity to learn to read in their own mother tongue, including Swedish speaking minority. Schools and teachers were involved in campaigns to promote reading as a pastime and there was also long-term collaboration with libraries, newspapers and magazines. Therefore, to effectively impact content information to learners, teachers must be aware of the linguistic rapport of their learners. Teachers should also think about translating instructional content from the target language to the well-known minority languages to foster learners' cognitive development.

The findings of the study established that it was important for teachers to know many languages so they could accommodate learners with different linguistic needs. The ability of teachers to speak multiple languages is a resource that enables learners to participate effectively in class. When learners are engaged in the language they understand, learning takes place. This assertion is supported by Mkandawire (2017) who observed that learners were more engaged in Chinyanja, a language they understood better in classes and were unable to actively participate in English language lessons. Learners were also actively engaged through playing and speaking in the ordinary Chinyanja than the Chewa taught in schools. As a result, teachers moved between languages to assist learners with diverse linguistic practices. It can be assumed that the freedom given to the learners to express themselves in a language they know coupled with the language of instruction enables them to participate actively in class. This shows that learners learn better in a familiar language and face difficulties when learning is done in an unfamiliar language hence teachers code switched languages.

The study's results also indicated that learners who understood the content and had fully developed the desired vocabulary in the language of instruction, their participation in class was enhanced. These findings are supported by Nyimbili & Mwanza (2020) who showed that translanguaging boosted learner classroom involvement, multi-literacy development, cultural preservation, and learners' confirmation of their identities. This implies that learning increases when the curriculum is decolonized, and the classroom is freed by acknowledging learners' linguistic repertoires.

The study also established that interpreting was a promising strategy for teaching diverse learners as it improved participation and cognition. Through interpreting and translating, it becomes clear that classroom multilingualism is no longer perceived as a problem but as a resource to knowledge acquisition since learners share understanding through their local languages and experiences. The results are in tandem with Mkandawire et al. (2023) who observed that pedagogical strategies intended for monolingual classes may not adequately address the educational needs and aspirations of culturally and linguistically diverse learners, as multilingual and bilingual learners differ from one monolingual. Multilingual teachers and bilingual learners were also used as resources for literacy development. Despite the challenges posed by linguistic oppression, teachers in Kafue rural literacy classes had developed innovative strategies to support the linguistic minority learners by embracing their linguistic diversity and leveraging their existing language knowledge. Teachers created inclusive learning environments that fostered participation, engagement and literacy acquisition. Therefore, it can be concluded from the findings that teachers in Chiawa zone use code-switching and interpreting linguistic practices to support learning of literacy among early graders.

In light of Ruiz (1984) language orientation theory, this study has shown that zonal language monopoly stems from a monolingual ideologies and assimilation mind set thereby creating a problem. In other words, the selection of language of instruction based on the speakers of the majority language is problematic in a multilingual society. In this linguistic minority area both teachers and learners used the available linguistic resource to foster learning which would have been impossible if teachers had only used Nyanja, the zonal language and official language of instruction among early graders. Therefore, in this study, the linguistic support practices used by teachers are considered as human right according to Ruiz (1984) language orientation, hence the need to support the language rights to bridge the gap between language of instruction and the community language where early graders do not sign or speak the zonal language.

#### **5.4 Chapter Summary**

The chapter has discussed the findings according to the study literature and theory presented in the earlier chapters. Linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly is a significant issue in grade one linguistic minority areas. The study shows that Goba the minority language predominantly spoken in Chiawa zone is prone to being marginalized and assimilated in favor of



Nyanja the zonal and dominant language. The findings revealed that learners in Chiawa zone were either monolingual or bilingual with inadequate vocabulary in Nyanja. Teachers were prompted to use the language understood by learners and not the only mandated Nyanja language of instruction in the classroom which improved learners' participation in class. The implementation of Nyanja, the zonal language, was hindered by Goba, a language mostly used in the community and familiar to grade one learners. To make learners participate fully in class, teachers used language practices such as code-switching and translating, interpreting and language mixing. The conclusion and recommendations are presented in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **CONCLUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.0 Overview**

The analysis and discussion of the findings were presented in the previous chapters. This chapter discusses the conclusion and recommendations on linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in Kafue rural literacy classes. Based on the research's findings, this chapter also provides recommendations and suggestions for future studies.

#### **6.1 Conclusion**

The discussion of the research findings regarding linguistic oppression through zonal language monopoly in Kafue rural literacy classes led to a number of conclusions. The study revealed that the literacy classes exhibited linguistic diversity with its learners mostly speaking Goba and a fair Soli and Tonga. However, the official language of instruction Nyanja dominated class instruction causing low learner participation.

##### **6.1.1 Conclusion of Objective One**

The first research objective was to describe how linguistic oppression affects learner performance through zonal language monopoly in literacy grade one classes. The study revealed that the imposition of a zonal language (Nyanja) perpetuates linguistic oppression on learners who speak minority languages, including Goba. Nyanja dominated instruction, learning materials, teaching and assessment, causing low literacy levels. This language monopoly was promoted by teachers' linguistic choice supported by language policy. The language monopoly excluded learners who spoke other languages, limiting their participation and academic achievements. Therefore, learners in Chiawa zone experienced linguistic oppression which caused low literacy levels.

##### **6.1.2 Conclusion of Objective Two**

The second objective of the study was to establish the linguistic oppressive practices being experienced through zonal language monopoly in literacy classes. It was established that only Nyanja textbooks and materials were available for use in class. There was not a single aid written in Goba, the community language. Therefore, Goba language was being marginalized by Nyanja

language. The consequences of this if not well checked may affect the multilingual status and power of Zambia that it is well-known through the notion of one Zambia, one nation. In a one Zambia, one nation, all linguistic repertoires must be given equal opportunities to use in school the same way politicians use them during campaigns.

### **6.1.3 Conclusion of Objective Three**

The third and last study objective was to explore the existing solutions on linguistic practices that teachers use to teach learners in a linguistic minority area of Kafue Rural. The study has shown that teachers were abrogating the zonal language policy by code-switching and interpreting. This approach enabled learners to integrate their home language with the school language. The language practices teachers used promoted effective teaching and learning. When teachers could not use the target language, they used learners' linguistic resources to support their linguistic limitations. Rather, what teachers made use of was the linguistic practices to improve communication between the teacher and the learner. Therefore, it can be concluded that early graders of Kafue rural literacy classes are fertile for code-switching and language mixing. This is evidence that schools located in linguistic minority areas also need pedagogical changes because early grade learners may not be familiar with the imposed language of instruction.

## **6.2 Recommendations**

Based on the research findings and conclusion of the study, it is recommended that;

- i. The Ministry of Education should have a systematic support and policy reforms to address the language barrier and promote linguistic diversity in education to ensure that there is equal access to quality education for all learners, regardless of their linguistic background.
- ii. Universities and colleges of education should ensure that teachers' efforts are enhanced through training them in multilingualism, accesses to bilingual materials and by encouraging flexible language policy so that teacher are empowered to effectively support linguistically diverse learners leading to improved academic outcomes and a more inclusive education system.
- iii. Schools should recognize and value linguistic diversity with communities to create a more inclusive and equitable learning environment for all learners and to have a stronger relationship between schools and diverse communities.

### **6.3 Recommendation for Future Research**

Due to some issues that emanated from this study which were beyond the scope of this research, the researcher made the following suggestions for future studies.

- i. There is need to conduct a study on the impact of linguistic oppression on learners' identity and self-esteem in multilingual urban schools.
- ii. There is need to conduct a study on framework for developing and evaluating language support strategies for rural literacy classes.
- iii. There is also need to conduct a study to examine the role of language policy in perpetuating or addressing linguistic oppression.

### **6.4 Chapter Summary**

Linguistic oppression occurs in Kafue rural literacy classes due to the zonal language monopoly. The teachers' exclusive use of zonal language (Nyanja) marginalizes learners who use other languages. Learners also face challenges in understanding instructional content, leading to poor academic performance and decreased self-esteem. The implications of these findings are that language policy reforms are necessary to recognize and support linguistic diversity. Further, teachers need training on inclusive language practices and language support strategies. Community involvement is also crucial in promoting language diversity and addressing linguistic oppression.

## References

- Ahmed, W., Brandes, H., Gyawali, P., Sidhu, J. P. S., & Toze, S. (2014). Opportunistic pathogens in roof-captured rainwater samples, determined using quantitative *PCR*. *Water Research*, 53, 361-369.
- Banda, F. (2013). Contesting language norms and ideologies: Voice and agency in classroom interaction in selected black and coloured schools in Cape Town. Keynote presentation at the LSSA/SAALA/SAALT Conference, 1 – 4 July 2013, *Stellenbosch University, South Africa*.
- Banda, F., & Mwanza, D. S. (2017). Language-in-education policy and linguistic diversity in Zambia: an alternative explanation to low reading levels among primary school pupils.
- Barriball, K. L., & White, A. (1994). Collecting data using a semi-structured interview: a discussion paper. *Journal of Advanced Nursing Institutional Subscription*, 19(2), 328-335.
- Bravo, G. M. (2019). Teachers' beliefs and strategies when teaching reading in multilingual settings. A case study in German, Swedish and Chilean Grade 4 Classrooms. *Berlin: Lagos Verlag*
- Bwalya, V. (2019). Democratization of the Classrooms: An Analysis of Teachers' Language Practices in Selected Multilingual Classrooms of Chibombo District. (*Unpublished Masters dissertation, University of Zambia, Lusaka*).
- Casanave, C. P., & Li, Y. (2015). Novices' Struggles with Conceptual and Theoretical Framing in Writing Dissertations and Papers for Publication. *Publications*, 3(2). 104-119.
- Chibamba, A. C., Mkandawire, S. B., & Tambulukani, G. K. (2018). Primary reading programme versus primary literacy Programme in Zambia: exploring their similarities and differences.
- Chibesakunda, M., & Mulenga, I. M. (2019). Challenges of using Ibibemba in the Learning of Initial Literacy in selected Primary Schools in Serenje District of Zambia. An Analysis of Views of Teachers and Learners. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Language and Social Sciences Education*, 2(1), 143-167.

- Chikodzi, M. I. & Kaino, L. M. (2020). Shona Mathematical Instructional Practices in Bilingual Primary Schools in Zimbabwe. *Africa Education Review*, 17(14), 104-115.
- Chinyama, M. M. (2016). Effects of Using Bemba as Medium of Instruction on the Reading Levels of Grade Two Pupils in a Predominantly Namwanga Speaking Area of Nakonde District, Zambia. (*Unpublished Master's Degree Thesis*). University of Zambia
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research Methods in Education* (7th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. (3<sup>rd</sup>ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications
- Dearden, J., & Macaro, E. (2016). Higher education teachers' attitudes towards English medium instruction: A three-country comparison. *Studies in second language learning and teaching*, 6(3), 455-486.
- Dunlap, R. E., & McCright, A. M. (2008). Social movement identity: Validating a measure of identification with the environmental movement. *Social Science Quarterly*, 89(5), 1045-1065.
- Durán, L., & Palmer, D. (2014). Pluralist discourses of bilingualism and translanguaging talk in classrooms. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 14(3), 367-388.
- Garcia, O. & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan
- Gautam, B. L., & Poudel, P. P. (2022). Diversity, multilingualism and democratic practices in Nepal. *Bandung*, 9(1-2), 80-102.
- Gordon, R. (2014) "Language of Education Planning in Zambia," *Linguistic Portfolios*: 3(6)
- GRZ (1996). *Educating Our Future: National Policy on Education*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- Gunawan, J. (2015). Ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Belitung Nursing Journal*, 1(1), 10-11.

- Hoominfar, E. (2014). Challenges of Monolingual Education. (*Doctoral dissertation, Bowling Green State University*).
- Hornberger, N. H. (1989). Continua of biliteracy. *Review of education research*, 59 (3). 271-296.  
[https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf\\_docs/PA00TZM9.pdf](https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00TZM9.pdf).
- Iversen, J. Y. & Mkandawire, S. B. (2020). Comparing Language Ideologies in Multilingual Classrooms across Norway and Zambia. *Multilingual Margins*, 7(3), 33-48.
- Kasonde-Ng'andu, S. (2013). Writing a Research Proposal in Education Research. *Lusaka: University of Zambia Press*.
- Kaur, J. (2020). Using English for interaction in the EMI classroom: Experiences and challenges at a Malaysian public university. *English-medium instruction and the internationalization of universities*, 129-154.
- Kombo, D. K. & Tromp, D. L. A. (2006). Proposal and Thesis Writing: An Introduction: *Nairobi: Paulines. Publication Africa*.
- Lincoln, Y. S. et al. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revised. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds). *The sage Handbook of Qualitative Research (4th Edn: pp.97-128)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lipinge, K., & Banda, F. (2020). Language ideology, policy and classroom practices in Oshiwambo speaking area, Northern Namibia. *Multilingual Margins*, 7(3): 14-32
- LoBiondo-Wood, G., Haber, J., & Singh, M. D. (2014). Non-experimental designs. *Nursing Research in Canada-E-Book: Methods, Critical Appraisal, and Utilization*, 234.
- Lungu, I. (2019). The Effects of the Use of Chinyanja as Medium of Classroom Instruction on Reading Levels of Grade Three Learners in Multilingual Primary Schools in Chilanga District, Lusaka. (*Doctoral dissertation, The University of Zambia*).

- Maala, A. & Mkandawire, S. B. (2022). Factors Contributing to Low Performance in English Reading Comprehension in Selected Secondary Schools of Lusaka District. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Language and Social Sciences Education*, 5(1), 111-132.
- Machinyise Elliot (2018). Language shift and revitalization among speakers of Soli and Goba languages of Lusaka province of Zambia. *The International Journal of Multi-disciplinary Research ISSN: 3471-7102, ISBN: 978-9982-70-318-5*
- Madonsela, S. (2015). Language anxiety caused by the single mode of instruction in multilingual classroom: *The case of African language learners. African Education Review*, 12(3), 447-459.
- Mambwe, K. (2014). Mobility, Identity and Localization of Language in Multilingual Contexts of Urban Lusaka. (*Unpublished PhD Thesis*) University of the Western Cape
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. B. (2010). Designing Qualitative Research. *London: SAGE*.
- Mataka, T. W., Bhila, T., & Mukurunge, T. (2020). Language in Education Policy: A Barrier to Academic and Cognitive Development of Learners across Grades: *A Case of South African Teachers' narratives. International Journal of All Research Writings*, 2(1), 117-124.
- Matanzima, J. (2022). 'We were displaced several times since 1956': the Tonga-Goba involuntary resettlement experiences at the Kariba Dam. *Water International*, 47:8, 1249-1266, DOI: [10.1080/02508060.2022.2085851](https://doi.org/10.1080/02508060.2022.2085851)
- Mensah, H. A. (2014). Language Policy and Practice in a Multilingual Classroom: Managing Linguistic Diversity in a Namibian High School. (*Master's degree thesis*). Stellenbosch University
- MESVTEE (2013). The Zambia Basic Education Curriculum Framework. *CDC, Lusaka*.
- Ministry of Education. (2013). Zambia Education Curriculum Framework 2013. *Lusaka: Curriculum Development Centre*



- Ministry of education. (2014). Education Curriculum Framework 2013. *Lusaka: Curriculum Development Centre.*
- Mkandawire S. B. (2017). Familiar Language-Based Instruction Versus Unfamiliar Language for the teaching of Reading and Writing Literacy Skills in Primary Schools of Lusaka District. *Zambian journal of Language Studies* 1(1) pp. 53-81
- Mkandawire, S. B. (2017b). Terminological Dilemma on Familiar Language Based Instruction and English Language: *A Reflection on Language of Initial Literacy Instruction in Zambia. Journal of Lexicography and Terminology*, 1(1), 45-58. ISSN: 2517-9306.
- Mkandawire, S. B. (2019). Selected common methods and tools for data collection in research. In: M. K. Banja (Ed.). *Selected Reading in Education Volume 2.* (pp. 143-153).
- Mkandawire, S. B. Zuikowski, S. S., Mwaansa, J. M., & Manchishi, P. C. (2023). Instructional Strategies used by Teachers in Multilingual Classes to Help Non-speakers of the Language of Instruction Learn Initial Reading Skills in Zambia. *International Multilingual Research journal*, 1 -26.
- Mkandawire, S. B., Zuilkowski, S. S., Mwansa, J. M., & Manchishi, P. C. (2024). Instructional strategies used by teachers in multilingual classes to help non-speakers of the language of instruction learn initial reading skills in Zambia. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 18(2), 93-118.
- Mulenga, I. M. (2015). *English Language Teacher Education Curriculum Designing: A mixed Methods Analysis of the Programme at the University of Zambia.* PhD Thesis. The University of Zambia.
- Mulikelela, S. (2013). Challenges Faced by Second Graders during the Transition from the Language of Initial Literacy (Nyanja) to English: A Case of Selected Schools of Chongwe District, Zambia. (*Doctoral dissertation*).
- Mumpande, I., & Bames, L. (2019). Revitalization of the Tonga Language in Zimbabwe: The Motivational Factors. *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Southern Africa*, 50(3), 46-69.

- Murati, R. (2015). Conception and Definition of the Democratisation of Education: *Journal of Education and Practice*. [www.iiste.org](http://www.iiste.org)ISSN 2222-1735 (Paper) ISSN 2222-288X (Online) Vol.6, No.30, 2015173
- Muzeya, N. (2023). An analysis of Classroom Language Practices in selected Multilingual Primary Schools of Choma District of Zambia (*Doctoral dissertation, The University of Zambia*).
- Mwiinga, C. (2024) Analysis of the Use of Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) Strategies by Teachers in Lower Primary Grades in Chongwe Rural District.
- Ndeleki, B. (2015). Teacher Perceptions on the use of Local Languages as Medium of Instruction from grade 1-4 in Selected Private Schools of Lusaka (*Doctoral dissertation*).
- Nhongo, R. & Siziba, L. P. (2022). Instruction through Translanguaging in Triglossic Classroom Context of Midlands Province in Zimbabwe. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, 28(4).
- Nkolola-Wakumelo, M. (2013). “A Critical Analysis of Zambia’s Language-in-Education Policy: Challenges and Lessons Learned”. In H. McIlwraith (ed.). *Multilingual Education in Africa: Lessons from the Juba Language-in-Education Conference*. London: British Council
- Norro, S. (2021). Namibian Teachers’ Beliefs about Medium of Instruction and Language Education Policy Implementation. *Language Matters: Studies in the Language of Southern Africa*, 52 (3), 45-71,
- Nyimbili, F. & Mwanza, D. S. (2020). Quantitative and Qualitative benefits of translanguaging pedagogic practices among first graders in multilingual classrooms of Lundazi District in Zambia, *Multilingual Margins*, 7(3): 69-83
- Nyimbili, F. & Mwanza, D. S. (2021). Translanguaging challenges faced by teachers and learners in first grade multilingual literacy classrooms in Zambia. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature*, 9(3) pp.20-31.

- Nyimbili, F. (2021). *Impact of translanguaging as pedagogical practice on literacy levels among grade one literacy learners in Lundazi district, Zambia*. (Doctoral Thesis, University of Zambia, Lusaka, Zambia).
- Nyimbili, F., Sakala, B., & Mungala, R. (2023). Pedagogical Practices Teachers use to teach Cinyanja in Monolingual Tumbuka Secondary Schools of Chasefu district in Eastern province of Zambia. *Journal of the Educational Research Association of Zambia*, 1(1), 45-59.
- Patel, S. R., White, D. P., Malhotra, A., Stanchina, M. L., & Ayas, N. T. (2003). Continuous positive airway pressure therapy for treating gress in a diverse population with obstructive sleep apnea: results of a meta-analysis. *Archives of internal medicine*, 163(5), 565-571.
- Polit, D.F., & Beck, C.T. (2014). *Essentials of Nursing Research: Appraising Evidence for Nursing Practical (8<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Philadelphia, PA: Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Pulinx, R., Van Avermaet, P., & Agirdag, O. (2017). Silencing Linguistic Diversity. The Extent, the Determinants and Consequences of Monolingual Beliefs of Flemish Teachers. *International journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 20(5), 542-556.
- Pütz, M. (2020). Exploring the linguistic landscape of Cameroon: Reflection on Language Policy and Ideology. *Russian Journal of Linguistics*, 24(2), 294-324.
- Rigole, A., Cooper, P., Jukes, M. (2014). Reading and Writing Instruction: *South Africa (Sepedi)*.
- Roche G. (2019). Articulating Language Oppression: Colonialism, Coloniality and the erasure of the Tibet's Minority Languages. *Patterns Prejudice*, 53(5):487 – 514
- Rogers, S. (2014). Multilingualism in education: The role of first language. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 1-9.
- Ruiz, R. (1984). Orientations in Language Planning. *NABE Journal*, 8 15-34.
- SACMEC. (2010). The Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEC). [www.sacmec.org](http://www.sacmec.org).

- Scudder, T. (2005). The Kariba Case Study. Social Science Working Paper, 1227. *California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA. (Unpublished)*  
<https://resolver.caltech.edu/CaltechAOTHORS:20170808-151727675>
- Silavwe, A., Mwawa, T., & Mkandawire, S. B. (2019). Understanding the Concept of Functional Literacy by Selected Residents of Lusaka District of Zambia. *Journal of Lexicography and Terminology (Online ISSN 2664-0899. Print ISSN 2517-9306., 3(2), 1-30.*
- Simachenya, M. M (2019). Language Practice in a Multilingual Classroom Situation: A Case of Selected Primary schools in Livingstone Urban. *(Unpublished Masters Dissertation. University of Zambia).*
- Taff A, Chee M, Hall J, Hall MYD, Martin KN, Johnston A. (2018). Indigenous language use impacts wellness. *In The Oxford Handbook of Endangered Languages, ed. KL Rehg, L Campbell, pp. 862–83. Oxford, UK: Oxford Univ. Press.*
- Tembo, G and Nyimbili, F. (2021). The Practicality of using Indigenous Language (Nsenga) as Medium of Instructing at Grade 1-4 in Selected Primary Schools of Petauke District. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL).* 9(10), PP 1-10
- USAID Education Data (2018) Early Grade Reading Assessment Baseline Report. Zambia.
- Wolfe P. (2006). Settler colonialism and the elimination of the native. *J. Genocide Res.* 8(4):387–409.
- Yin, R. K. (2011). Qualitative research from start to finish. *New York. Guilford Press.*

## Appendices

### Appendix 1: Research Instruments

#### A) INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

##### **1. How is Linguistic Oppression Affecting Learner Performance through Zonal Language Monopoly in Grade One Literacy Classes?**

- i. How does the use of Cinyanja affect literacy skills acquisition in this schools?
- ii. What common Goba words differ from Cinyanja?
- iii. What is your experience with the learners' language during phonemic awareness activities?
- iv. How do you ensure learners are assessed effectively in a different language from their home language?
- v. How does the language challenge exhibited affect learner participation in literacy lesson?

##### **2. What are the Linguistic Oppressive Practices Being Experienced through Zonal Language Monopoly in Literacy Classes of Kafue Rural?**

- i. What does the policy say about zonal language and children who do not know such a language in class?
- ii. What kind of linguistic oppressive practices do learners experience through the use of Nyanja as medium of instruction in Chiawa?
- iii. How do you provide support to learners who do not use Nyanja as language of instruction in class?
- iv. What other kind of language support do you provide to grade ones who fail to use Nyanja in class?
- v. How do you view children who can write in their language and not the LoI in your class? Why say so?

##### **3. Which Linguistic Practices Do Teachers Use to Teach Grade One Learners in Linguistic Minority Areas?**

- i. How do you teach literacy to grade one learners who are not familiar with Nyanja?
- ii. What linguistic practices do teachers use to teach grade one learners who are non-speakers Nyanja?
- iii. How can the linguistic practices suggested improve learner participation in literacy lessons?

## CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

NAME OF OBSERVER: .....

SERIAL NUMBER FOR THE TEACHER OBSERVED: .....

NUMBER OF PUPILS PARTICIPATED IN THE LESSON: ..... Boys: ..... Girls: .....

TYPE OF THE LESSON OBSERVED: .....

DATE: .....

STATION/SCHOOL: .....

| S/N | RESEARCH QUESTIONS  | COMMENTS |
|-----|---|----------|
| 1   | Language learners use for interaction in class  |          |
| 2   | Language learners use to respond to teacher's conversation  |          |
| 3   | Learners' reaction when emphasis is made on Cinyanja use  |          |
| 4   | Kind of classroom linguistic support to learners who are linguistically oppressed through zonal language monopoly |          |
| 5   | Teacher's creation of linguistic supportive environment literacy skills acquisition.                              |          |
| 6   | Language mixing and code switching practices from teachers  |          |
| 7   | Translation of words and concepts   |          |
| 8   | Phonemic awareness in community language  |          |
| 9   | Examples using community language   |          |
| 10  | Teacher encourage pupils to express their thoughts in the language they understand                                |          |

**Appendix 2: Letter of Permission from DEBS**

Chalimbana University,

Research Postgraduate Studies and Consultancy,

Private Bag E 1,

LUSAKA.

18<sup>TH</sup> JULY, 2024

The District Education Board Secretary,  
Kafue District Education Board Office,

P.O Box

KAFUE.

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: PERMISSION FOR POSTGRADUATE RESEARCH DATA COLLECTION**

I am a student at Chalimbana University pursuing Master of Education in Applied Linguistics. I am currently collecting data on the research study entitled "**Linguistic Oppression Through Zonal Language Monopoly: A Case of Kafue Rural Literacy Classes**". Data collection will be done in Chiawa Zone of Kafue District.

I write to request your able office to allow me collect data from sampled schools within Chiawa Zone of Kafue District for my dissertation as part of the University requirement for the award of a postgraduate degree.

Your kind consideration will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

  
Njekwa Njekwa

Student ID: 227136640



*Supported*  
*Headteachers, kindly allow the officer to proceed accordingly*  
*Prof. ESO-GI for DEBS*

## Appendix 3: Ethical Clearance from Chalimbana University



**Chalimbana University**

Office of the Director  
Directorate of Research & Postgraduate  
Private Bag E1, Lusaka.  
Email: [researchethics@chau.ac.zm](mailto:researchethics@chau.ac.zm)  
Website: [www.chau.ac.zm](http://www.chau.ac.zm)  
Phone: +260 979 024363

Research Ethics Clearance Form 1c

### **ETHICAL APPROVAL FOR PROPOSED RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN PARTICIPANTS**

**Researcher: Njekwa Njekwa**

**Supervisor: Dr. Nyimbili F.**

**Title of research: Linguistic Oppression Through Zonal Language Monopoly: A Case of Kafue Rural Literacy Classes**

Thank you for application for research ethics clearance by Chalimbana University Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research.

The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to an applicable national legislation, professional code of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.

Ethics approval is granted for the period July, 2024 to July 2025 on condition that the researcher will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved proposal by the supervisor. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date, July 2025.

Kind regards,

Dr. R. Chikopela

**Chairperson**

**Research Ethics Committee**

Dr. A. D. Sikalumbi

**Director**

**Research, Innovations and Postgraduate**

*Integrity. Service. Excellency.*



## Appendix 4: Introductory Letter from Chalimbana University



# Chalimbana University

RESEARCH, POSTGRADUATE STUDIES & CONSULTANCY  
PRIVATE BAG 11  
LUSAKA,  
E-Mail: [directorateresearchchau@gmail.com](mailto:directorateresearchchau@gmail.com)  
<http://www.journal.chalimbanauniversity.net/>  
Phone: +260777148751

12<sup>th</sup> July, 2024

**SUBJECT: INTRODUCTORY LETTER- POSTGRADUATE RESEARCH DATA COLLECTION**

**STUDENT NAME: NJEKWA NJEKWA**

**STUDENT ID NO: 227136640**

Chalimbana University Directorate of Research Postgraduate Studies, Consultancy and Innovation would like to introduce the above named student pursuing Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics. The student is currently collecting data on the research study entitled **"Linguistic Oppression Through Zonal Language Monopoly: A Case of Kafue Rural Literacy Classes."** We request you to allow him collect data for his dissertation as it is part of the University requirements for the award of a postgraduate degree.

Your assistance rendered to the student will be greatly valued.

Yours Sincerely,



Dr. SIKALUMBI A. D.

**DIRECTOR**

**RESEARCH, POST GRADUATE STUDIES, CONSULTANCY AND INNOVATION**

---

*Integrity. Service. Excellence.*