A RESEARCH PROJECT

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES
USED BY TEACHERS TO TEACH READING AND WRITING IN
MOTHER-TONGUE IN SELECTED SCHOOLS FROM THREE
DIVISIONS OF KITUI DISTRICT.

BY

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DECLARATION

This project is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

Hellen M. Munyasia

This project has been submitted with my approval as university supervisor.

DR. C.W.A. RYANGA
DEDICATION

To God Almighty

To my late sister Jenifer who in her enthusiasm and excellence in matters of education inspired me to read. To my husband Paul who relentlessly stood by me in my educational endeavours.

To my children who had to bear with the consequences of my absence from home from time to time.
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In the course of this study different people assisted me each in their own ways.

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May the Almighty God bless you all.

Above all I thank the Almighty God for giving me strength and Grace this far. To Him be the Glory!
ABSTRACT

This study is an investigation into the various practices and methodologies employed by the teachers of mother-tongue in three divisions of Kitui District.

Although mother-tongue (i.e. Kikamba) is a subject in the primary school curriculum for the first three years of schooling, it has been observed largely that most school leavers aren't proficient in the reading and writing in mother-tongue. Many prefer reading English 'texts, especially the Bible, a language which they are also deficient in.

This study is an attempt to find out whether this language deficiency and negative attitudes stems from the methods/practices employed in teaching the language. The study was guided by the broad assumptions that acquisition of taught material by the learner is dependent on:

(i) Practices/methods employed by the teacher.

(ii) Quality of the teacher in terms of training and experience.

(iii) Availability and use of resource materials.

From the review of related literature it was evident that mother-tongue is an essential component of any curriculum.
(Pattanyak, 1989). Experience in teaching is also an added advantage to training according to Proctor (1995).

Simple survey was carried by use of a questionnaire distributed to thirty two (32) teachers and an observation schedule whereby four (4) teachers were seen in the classroom teaching mother-tongue.

Information gathered was analysed and the findings were used to confirm or refute the assumptions posed by the researcher. The researcher found out that:

(i) Majority of the teachers handling mother-tongue are adequately trained and have a long experience.
(ii) Most of them prepare schemes of work and lesson plans.
(iii) Most classes were over-enrolled due to either lack of teachers or rooms to create an extra stream.
(iv) Teaching resources especially the mother-tongue textbook was either unavailable or inadequate in all schools.
(v) There was unfair competition from the second language: English and Kiswahili which were being favoured by the school language policies.
(vi) That dialectal problems exist between the local spoken variety and what is found in written text (Machakos dialect) hence posing a set back to the learners.

The researcher recommended the following suggestions as a means of minimising the problems encountered while teaching mother-tongue:

(a) Frequent seminars or in-service for teachers of mother-tongue.

(b) Establishment and availability of the recommended class texts and class readers in mother-tongue.

(c) Setting up of language panels which would work to standardize the teaching and testing of mother-tongue.

(d) Close follow-up of the progress of the teaching of mother-tongue to eliminate the negative attitudes towards it.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Rationale

Practice and research as analysed by Pattanayak (1986) have shown that mother-tongue is essential for concept formation and sense of identity. This view is also emphasized by Garret et al. (1984). It was due to this realization that several educational commission reports recommended that mother-tongue be a medium of instruction for the first three years of schooling. The Gachathi report (1976) changed the earlier stance of the Ominde commission of choosing English as a medium of instruction right from class one. The Ominde Commission report explains that the choice of English language did not mean that they undermined the vernaculars. They recognized that the vernacular languages are essential for verbal communication and recommended one period daily for story telling in vernacular in Primary One, Two and Three ([Recommendation 171:60](Mbaabu, 1996).

According to Krashen (1981), language learning is a conscious process. In a school situation it involves not only speaking and listening but reading and writing as well. When a learner listens to and speaks a language with enthusiasm the motivation to read and write in that language is also expected to be high. Language learning
according to Krashen (ibid), depends upon the type of 'input' the learner receives which in turn affects the amount of intake. Richards and Rodgers (1991) notes that "Input must be comprehensible and interesting or relevant. It must be experienced in low-anxiety contexts and in sufficient quantity". Thus the teaching of reading and writing in mother-tongue should be taught in comprehensible and meaningful context.

Reading with understanding stems from sufficient oral practice and oral reading according to Wilson (1983). In our rural areas the social set up present the learners with either a multilingual or bilingual situation and it is important for teachers to be aware of the effects and how they can use the situation to their advantage to overcome the interference. Languages leak' (Mclellan: 1996) that is they flow into one another in a multilingual situation. This is known as code-switching whereby an utterance is composed of words from more than one language.

1 Bilingualism means the use of two languages while multilingualism means the ability to use more than two languages.
An example of this leaking can be illustrated by the following sentence:

Niiniukite kumumiti (I had come to meet him/her)

Jones (1995) points out the fact that the classroom in any society is a microcosm of the wider society. Code-switching, therefore, in Kenyan primary schools illustrates how languages are used out of school for communication. The unchecked use of code-switching may result in some learner never mastering any of the languages proficiently in the end. In the case of mother-tongue it is only at the lower primary level that such correction can be done with regard to speaking, reading and writing. According to Swain (1983) the first principle of successful bilingual education is for the child to receive a strong grounding in his first language which in turn would promote the development of the second language (that is Kiswahili and English).

Consequently, it is known that not all that which is presented to the learner is learned. Similarly, a good teacher would choose a method of teaching and be able to justify it according to the situation. The classroom, as a setting where learning takes place, is made up of many elements including the teacher, the pupils, the building,
furniture, the tasks and the teaching aids chosen. How a teacher manipulates the various elements including time constitutes a methodology.

Proctor, et al (1995) categorizes the elements in the classroom into three categories:

- Physical - space, facilities, layout
- Psychological - individual differences in how children learn.
- Social - friendship.

It is the duty of the teacher to put into consideration those learning contexts whatever the methodology. If a learner is to acquire sensitive cues to the sounds of the Kikamba or any other language and be able to read and write Kikamba words, sentences, an appropriate methodology should be the provider or creator of these cues. Hence the need to find out the practices used in teaching the same in lower primary.

The rationale stemming from this background to the teaching of reading and writing in mother-tongue according to the Mackay Report (1981), is that every examinable level of education is considered terminal in the current system of education (8.4.4). At the end of both primary and
secondary, a large number of students drop out from the educational ladder to eke out a living as a few of their colleagues proceed further to the next level of education. Even the students who proceed up to university, still a good number of them are not able to secure gainful employment in towns and offices where they can use English or Kiswahili on a daily basis. They have to climb down the academic ladder and join their colleagues and parents within their ethnic regions where reading and writing proficiently in mother-tongue counts more than any other language, hence the importance of teaching the reading and writing of mother-tongue well. At present it seems that no uniform methods are used to teach the language. There also exists a confusion of the three languages namely Kikamba, Kiswahili and English being taught at the same time.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Reading and writing are the essence of literacy in any language. However, it has been observed by the researcher that many a youth in rural areas, especially those in secondary and primary schools lack proficiency in reading and writing both English and mother-tongue. While this could be explained with regards to English language, it is surprising that mother-tongue would not be read and written
well by someone having eight to twelve years of schooling. However mother-tongue is only taught for three years. The fact that users of mother-tongue use it at home while still being taught it for the first three years of schooling, the teaching does not seem to have a big impact on the learners proficiency in both reading and writing.

In view of the above observations, could it be that the lack of proficiency in reading and writing Kikamba is as a result of poor attitudes by both the teachers and learners, poor teaching approaches or a lack of teaching resources? What contributory role does the contradictory practice of discouraging mother-tongue usage in the school compound outside class time have?

As a result of the above problems the study has attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Are the methodologies outlined in the syllabus used and are they effective?
2. What causes the ineffectiveness in the learning of mother-tongue and what kills the interest after class 3.
3. Does the multilingualism interfere with the teaching/learning of mother-tongue?
1.3 Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out:

1. The various teaching practices used by teachers of mother-tongue and whether they correspond with the recommended syllabus methods.

2. The extent to which each method used is practical and effective.

3. Identifying problems faced by teachers of mother-tongue and highlight how they affect the acquisition of reading and writing skills.

4. Suggest possible remedies to identified problems of teaching reading and writing in mother-tongue.

1.4 Research Assumptions

In carrying out this research, the researcher assumed that:

1. The methodology employed governs the amount of learning that takes place.

2. Effectiveness of a methodology differs from situation to situation and from teacher to teacher.

3. That the methodologies set out in the syllabus are not working.

1.5 Scope and Limitations

This study covered three divisions of Kitui district whose geographical layout is a bit different. These geographical
differences were expected to bring out differences in physical facilities and availability of teaching resources. The study avoided schools near Kitui town which have a lot of influence in Kiswahili speaking on the pupils in and out of school. Some teachers in and nearby town schools were expected to ignore mother-gongue in favour of Kiswahili.

Private schools were excluded since many lacked standard one and were known to enroll children of mixed ethnicity hence Kikamba is not taught even where the school starts at class one. The educational divisions were selected due to their wetness or dryness which are representative of the geography of the district. Means of transport from one division to the other was also considered which enabled the researcher to overcome communication difficulties and possible delay.

1.6 Significance of the study
Problem areas in the teaching of mother-tongue which are revealed by this study could shed light in the right direction for the teachers of mother-tongue. Some findings could be generalized to apply to the teaching of mother-tongue in other regions where the Akamba language is spoken and taught. The findings would also be invaluable to school inspectors at zonal, divisional and district levels to use
in advising teachers under their jurisdiction so as to improve the teaching of mother-tongue. Education officers and Primary School Inspectors can use the findings of this research to advice the ministry and subject panels at the Kenya Institute of Education (K.I.E.) to consider launching any required material for teaching mother-tongue.

The findings could also form an inspiration to potential researchers as well as writers to do more research and provide reading materials in Kikamba.

1.7 Definition of Terms

The following words and phrases are used in this study with the following meanings:

**Lower Primary** - This refers to standard one, two and three.

**Mother-tongue** - language spoken at a child's home.

**Codeswitching** - mixing or interchanging languages in one's speech.

**Input** - the total amount of language that is exposed to a learner of a language.

**Intake** - the amount of language that the learner actually assimilates for use.

**First language (L1)** - this is the language that the child learns first usually the language used at home or mother-tongue.
Second language (L2) - Any other language learned after L1 has been mastered.

PTA - Parents Teachers Association

T.A.C. - Teachers’s Advisory Centre

Pluri-lingual - Speaking more than one language.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The literature review is aimed at shedding light on what reading and writing entails. It also sheds light on the importance of teacher quality use of instructional materials and evaluation techniques together with the issues which interfere with the teaching. The review of literature is in four parts namely:

1. Educational use of mother-tongue
2. Teacher qualifications
3. Instructional materials
4. Assessment methods

2.1 Educational Use of Mother-Tongue

One of the national goals of education in Kenya is, 'National Unity' (Primary Education Syllabus, Vol 1: 1992:V). According to Kelman (1971) mother-tongue creates cohesiveness in the particular society. It anchors the child to its culture and induces development. Wardhaugh (1987) states that since most ex-colonial states are not 'nations' all ethnic linguistic diversities should be given equal standing so as to avoid feelings of ethnicity and ethnic resurgence when individual minorities are stifled.
towards disappearance. Nowhere else can this be achieved better than in education. Mother-tongue allows the interaction of science and society as Doughty and Peters (1974) point out that pre-reading activities require a lot of participation than is possible with L2. This means that L1 is appropriate in setting ground for further learning in other areas of the curriculum. Since our education, just like education in other former colonies (Mbaabu, 1996), is one which raises a few people to the elite class-level close to the colonizers, and leaves the masses uneducated or semi-educated, mother-tongue plays the crucial role of cementing the chasm between the elite and the ethnic masses. The minority elite prefer L2 and foreign lifestyles. An educated person who once was well founded on L1 would only find parallels in other languages instead of abandoning his or her first language completely.

Pattanayak (1986) in a paper entitled, educational use of mother-tongue, asserts that mother-tongue is the primary expression of human identity. One uses it to perceive the surrounding world and to form the initial concepts. First language (L1) according to Doughty and Peter (1974) is the language with which the individual child sees the world and so forms a spring board to learning L2 and other foreign languages.
A language is usually considered a key component in national identity and "nationalities are sacred providentially constituted" (Wardhaugh, 1987:24). A child or any individual is usually emotionally attached to a language, even if he grows in a multilingual situation lacking such attachment hinders growth towards patriotism (Pattanayak 1986). It can be concluded that the loss of mother-tongue results in the loss of rootedness in one's society and culture. Since another of our national goals of education is "Respect and development of cultural heritage" (Primary Education Syllabus Vol. I, 1992:v), no doubt that mother-tongue is such a heritage. Linguistic identity has cultural, economic as well as political values (Wardhaugh, 1987). Lack of mother-tongue proficiency which might be as a result of negative attitude by the teachers, poor methodology and lack of facilities leads to a language deficiency. This situation gives rise to an elite class who despise their origins and who migrate to foreign countries in search of jobs and identity. The brain drain in Kenya is, perhaps partly as a result of a lack of a sure sense of origin and identity on the part of the individuals concerned, hence the need to investigate the current trend of teaching mother-tongue.
Swain et al. (1991) in a study comparing L1 literacy and L2 learning arrive at the conclusion that transfer of knowledge and learning process across languages do take place. Learning of L1 is a foundation for further learning in content subjects. Similarly in the UNESCO report:

“The best medium of teaching a child is his mother-tongue. Psychologically it is the system of meaningful signs that in his mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally, he learns quickly through it than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium (UNESCO, 1953:11)”

In the Kenya educational system both English and Kiswahili have political as well as economic status against mother-tongue. For this reason, mother-tongue lacks the basic emphasis resulting in poor proficiency.

2.2 Teacher Quality and Preparation

Teaching is a complex process that cannot be explained in a statement or even a paragraph. Proctor (1995) explains that teaching “is like driving a car: you have to think of many things all at once”. The competent driver is aware of more things along the road than what a passenger or pedestrian is aware of. Teaching competence just like driving competence is not acquired with training alone but with practice and time. The teacher being involved in the
process of teaching has to consider various aspects of the child like age, level of intelligence, psychological set up as well as physical limitations. The teacher also has to bear in mind the aims of the school curriculum. These should be fulfilled by the lesson. The physical conditions have their allowance and limitations.

The competence of the teacher of mother-tongue or any other content subject would depend on the length and quality of training, the length of the teacher’s experience and the teachers disposition (Proctor, 1995). Teaching is two faceted: the deliberate and they learned skills and the intuitive response to children, their parents and events. Teaching involves the application of theoretical knowledge into practical situations. According to Proctor, teaching skills should involve the interpretation of the curriculum correctly together with the update policies for teaching a language. Edwards (1983) points out that the teacher’s attitude and handling of a mother-tongue lesson while teaching it would promote or inhibit the learners acquisition of that language. Misinterpretation of the language policy both at the school and national level can lead the teacher of mother-tongue to instill negative attitudes towards the language in learners. This interferes with their competence of that language.
Another important skill, is the preparation for teaching. There is both the long-term planning like in preparation of schemes of work and the short term planning as in preparing individual lesson plans. A prepared teacher identifies teaching strategies; chooses the necessary teaching resources and plans for class re-arrangement to suit set objectives. Thus, a lesson on would be geared towards certain letter shapes, words, or joining letters. According to Claessen and Stephens (MS) 'there is no one way to teach or learn', (p.95). In view of this, teaching can be a pragmatic trial and error exercise in which what is found to be productive is retained while that which does not work is left alone. For instance, when a teacher is teaching reading in mother-tongue, there are methods of teaching it which are at the teachers disposal like:

(a) the phonic method - m /m/ - a /a/ - n /n/
whereby the learner is taught the sound of each phoneme individually and pronounce it wholly as in the above sounds. The word finally would be ma-na is mana.

(b) the alphabet method - in which the mother-tongue teacher extracts the letters of the alphabet that are used in mother-tongue from the English alphabet, for example: the seven Kikamba
vowels a e i i o ù u; the fourteen consonants – b d g h k l m n s t v w y z; formation of the double and triple consonants as in nd, mb ng th nth, ndy and so on.

It is only through experience in addition to training that the teacher will be able to identify the most suitable approach to his class of learners.

2.3 Instructional Materials and Approaches

Literacy in any language entails the ability to listen with understanding, speak, read and write in that particular language. By the time a child comes to school it has acquired a reasonable ability to listen and speak in mother-tongue. What remains is for the teacher to avail opportunities for further listening and speaking. Garrêt, et al., (1994) identifies cultural esteem as a communicative function of the language; hence, in teaching mother-tongue reading situations rich in cultural backgrounds like: feeding habits, daily economic and social activities should be presented to children to talk about, read about, and observe, probably in pictorial forms. The teaching material would thus include:

(a) Stories for discussion after listening to them during story-telling sessions.
(b) Pictu~e stories to recreate and discuss
(c) Talking about current social economic activities harvesting.
(d) Verbalising actions which are mimed
(e) Language games also offer children an opportunity to be involved in language use more naturally.

According to Claessen and Stephens, language games provide a stemming ground for further discussion, since the children are given an opportunity to talk about a given reality. Thus, when the learner comes to writing, she/he will write words, sentences and stories with interest and understanding.

2.3.1 Reading

Along with listening and speaking, the learners should have well grounded pre-reading skills like the left to right eye movement, letter sound association and picture reading. According to Gray (1953), the analytic method of matching pictures with words and later removing the pictures to let the learner identify the word, helps him to acquire a 'word bank'. He can then utilize this to make meaningful sentences. Use of cards with different familiar words provides the learner with an opportunity to practice the skill of word recognition and sentence meaning. This
approach is in line with the teaching approaches recommended in the syllabus for teaching reading in mother-tongue (Kenya Primary Syllabus, Vol. 1: lower primary:239). It is important to make sure learners are able to recognise and read words that represent objects in their environment first.

2.3.2 Writing

This is a skill that stretches from letter-shape recognition and formation through to composition writing at a higher level (Cashdam 1986). It also involves the recognition of the relevant referent sounds. A teacher of mother-tongue, just as in any other language, should be conversant with the graphics of the language which constitute various sounds of that particular language (Awoniyi, 1982). In Kikamba a teacher should be able to take the learners through the Kikamba alphabet: a b d e g h i k l m n o s t v u w y z. It must also include the variants of the two vowel sounds /i/ and /u/.

The ability to write is the ability of the learner to represent the mental language sounds with visual symbols on paper or any other surface (Thornton, 1980). The teacher's task in lower primary is to take the reader through pre-writing skills like drawing and modeling, pattern making
and cutting shapes. These exercises and further writing would imprint the images of the various letter shapes on the learners minds in such a way that recall would be automatic (Peacock 1986). The skill of writing can only be mastered through continuous practice with children given opportunities to write simple and familiar names of people and objects.

2.4 Assessment Methods

Assessment is a kind of a measurement carried out on a subject to find out an existing ability or ability achieved through a process of learning, (Kiminyo, et al., 1988). This can be carried out using a variety of tests depending on the purpose intended, for instance, identification of reading difficulties; monitoring of children’s mastery of specific reading skills; effectiveness of teaching methods etc (Beard, 1987).

The usefulness of an assessment method would depend on the use to be put on the scores thus obtained. The mother-tongue teacher can use teacher-made tests, like word-recognition, sound recognition and spelling for instance, to ensure the acquisition of reading and writing abilities. Writing exercises assess both reading and writing abilities (Heaton, 1988). The frequency and manner of using each
test type might spell a lot on the teaching skills and effectiveness of the particular teacher.

"Learning to read is a lot like learning to talk. You learn both things by doing them" (Fuller, S. et al., 1990). This suggests that assessment of reading is a continuous process which the teacher has to pay attention to at close range and keep a record – a reading scheme.

To be more effective, mother-tongue should be inclusive in nature, that is, a single test should be integrated enough to test both reading and writing skills in the functional use of language. Since listening, talking, reading and writing are integral parts of language, assessment in all of them in order to merit the progression in development would be a wholesome approach to teaching a language (Fuller, et al 1990). Classroom language tests should be evaluative intended to locate the precise areas of difficulty. As Heaton (1988) states that: "Just as it is necessary for the doctor first to diagnose the patient’s illness, so it is equally necessary for the teacher to diagnose the student’s weaknesses and difficulties". The teacher of mother-tongue should be clear what each test she sets is going to test in the learner's language skills.
The review of literature in this chapter shows that teaching a language is an art by the played between the teacher, the learner and the environment to enhance a change of behaviour in the learner. The teacher, as the one that effects the art of reading and writing, is the crucial determinant of how this is effected. The particular situation in which the teaching takes place also guides the teacher's choices. The teaching skill is, as noted earlier, improved by experience.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology used in carrying out the present research. It focuses on the research design, sampling technique, research instruments and application.

3.1 Research Design and Sampling

The present study is a simple survey and data was obtained by use of observation and questionnaire as tools to find out what currently goes on in lower primary mother-tongue classes. The findings are reported in a qualitative description.

3.1.1 Sampling

The sample of schools was selected from schools within the educational divisions of Rumuli, Central and Matinyani in Kitui district. The distance between individual schools ranged from 5-45 kilometres. This distance range was deemed adequate in providing diversity, hence adequate data from which conclusions could be made.

From a list of schools of each division obtained from the D.E.O.'s office, simple random sampling was done to provide
a zone from each division. Each school in the chosen zone was given a number. Putting all the numbers in a container and picking at random three schools from zone. If two schools which were too chosen to one another were selected in this way, a second picking was done to ensure diversity. In this manner nine (9) schools were chosen. In each school, the target population was teachers teaching mother-tongue in standard one, two and three. In single stream schools, this would mean studying only twenty seven (27) teachers but since some schools had double streams, the study included thirty two (32) teachers.

Through the method of numbering and picking a school from each zone was chosen to provide a teacher to be observed while teaching reading and writing in mother-tongue. A total of four teachers were observed while teaching; three in standard two, and one in standard three. Standard two was expected to be a well placed class to represent factors found in standard one and three. The standard three teacher was observed to provide a comparative situation to the other observations.
3.2 Data Collection

Two instruments were used to collect data from the sample described above. These are a questionnaire and an observation schedule.

3.2.1 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was used to collect information from all the 32 teachers. The variables included in the questionnaire are teacher's age, sex, teachers' academic and professional qualifications, experience, teaching methodologies and instructional practices commonly used by teachers while teaching mother-tongue and the frequency of assessment methods.

The researcher visited the schools, explained the purpose of the study and how to complete the questionnaire to the concerned teachers. A date was agreed upon between the researcher and the concerned teachers on when to collect the completed instrument and carry out observation where applicable.

3.2.2 Observation Schedule

This instrument consisted of an outline of professional practices with which the researcher cross-checked the teaching practices of those teachers who were observed.
while teaching mother-tongue. The researcher then compared the teacher/pupil classroom interaction with what is recommended in the syllabus and also what the teachers themselves gave in the questionnaire.

During this observation, the researcher was able to observe closely physical facilities, space, sitting arrangement, numbers in class and availability of various teaching resources.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter analyses data collected using two sets of instruments: the questionnaire and the observation schedule. The data is presented in tables and discussed in chapter five. The data was computed from thirty two (32) questionnaires and four (4) observation schedules. Each table is accompanied by a brief description. Inferences are easy to make in such tables.

4.1 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of twenty seven (27) questions which dealt on six areas considered important in the process of teaching:-

(i) Teacher characteristics
(ii) The syllabus
(iii) Teaching methods
(iv) Teacher preparation
(v) Mode of evaluation
(vi) Instructional problems
Majority of the teachers teaching mother-tongue in the sampled schools are women comprising 71% as shown in Table IV.1(a). Over 60% are aged above thirty six years and 81% of all these have worked for over ten years as seen in Table IV.1(b).

Table IV.1

(a) Teacher characteristics: sex and age (N=32)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>19-24</th>
<th>25-30</th>
<th>31-35</th>
<th>Above 36 yrs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29%</td>
<td></td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Teacher characteristics: Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Below 2 yrs</th>
<th>2-5 yrs</th>
<th>6-10 yrs</th>
<th>Above 10 yrs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

65.6% of the teachers studied are educated up to 'O' level and trained as either P1 or P2 teacher according to Table IV.2. The observation shows that mother-tongue teaching is handled by competent personnel.
Table IV:2

Academic and professional qualifications (N=32)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CADRE</th>
<th>CPE</th>
<th>KJSE</th>
<th>EACE</th>
<th>UT</th>
<th>P3</th>
<th>P2</th>
<th>P1</th>
<th>S1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

100% of the teachers studied referred to their syllabus at the beginning of each term. Only one of them, a P2, who said he referred to the syllabus once more when making the lesson plan. This is shown in Table IV.3(a). 87.5% of the teachers according to Table IV.3(b) said they find the syllabus very useful or useful during their course of teaching. A teacher of under five years of experience and three other teachers with similar experience said they found the syllabus not useful at all and not useful respectively.

Table IV:3(a) Syllabus use (N=32)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When used</th>
<th>Daily</th>
<th>Weekly</th>
<th>Termly</th>
<th>Yearly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table IV.3(b) Syllabus usefulness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Usefulness</th>
<th>Very useful</th>
<th>Useful</th>
<th>Not very useful</th>
<th>Not useful at all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>43.75</td>
<td>43.75</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

60% of the teachers according to Table IV.4(a) employ a variety of methods to teach mother-tongue. A minimal 14% and 17% use group instruction and mass lecture. Only a minimal 5% said they used individual instruction. Table IV.4(b) shows that 72% rely on teacher-made tests to evaluate the learners of mother-tongue. Another 14% according to the same table do use a mixture of test types and sources. Text book exercises are minimally used by only 8%.

Table IV.4(a) Instructional methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mass lecture</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group instruction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual instruction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixture of all</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>59.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table IV.4(b) Test types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test type</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text book exercises</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own made tests</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bought tests</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A mixture of all</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the sampled teachers except one said that they prepare their schemes of work on a termly basis. The exceptional one prepares schemes monthly as shown by table IV.5(a). 60% of the teachers however said they prepare a lesson plan for every lesson taught as shown by Table IV.5(b). This is whether it was a repeated lesson or not. In fact they reported that repeating a lesson which was not well taught or covered was a reason to write afresh one. 40% of the teachers, however said they don’t write a lesson plan for every lesson taught because one lesson plan could take more than one period to be covered.
Table IV: 5(a) Planning for teaching (N=32)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schemes of work</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Termly</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yearly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV: 5(b)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson plan</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>59.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occasionally</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most common sitting arrangement according to Table IV. 6(a) is in rows while group work is only attempted by 27% of the teachers. The same table shows that other teachers employed more than one pre-reading activity, hence the failure of the numbers to tally with thirty two. However, letter-sound recognition and syllable formation activities were the two commonly used by the sampled teachers. The least used pre-reading activity is word recognition.
Table IV.6(a) Sitting arrangement (N=32)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sitting</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rows</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>65.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV.6(b) Pre-reading activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-reading activities</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Picture reading</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letter-sound recognition</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllable formation</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word recognition</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other/all</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table IV.7(a) 53% of teachers said they ensured the pupils participated in the lesson individually by oral practice while 27% used written exercises to achieve pupil participation. Few teachers favoured chorus participation. Table IV.7(b) shows that all the teachers used more than one mode to assess their learners. However, 75% did assess their pupils weekly.
Table IV.7 (a) Pupil Participation (N=32)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil participation</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Chorus</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Individuals</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Writing</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 2 &amp; 3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV.7(b) Frequency of assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortnightly</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Termly</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV.8(a) shows that all teachers studied said they correct errors immediately pupils make them. In addition to correcting the errors, three teachers said they also tell off the pupil. Could it be a misunderstanding of what telling off means or could it be in connection with the type of error made? Telling off a learner embarrasses him/her reducing his motivation (Garry, 1996). This is illustrated by the fact that 100% of the teachers as shown by Table IV.8(b) agreed indiscipline in class should be
dealt with more politely by just alerting erring learners to attention.

Table IV:8(a) Teacher-Pupil relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading errors</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ignore completely</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ignore till end of lesson</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct immediately</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tell off</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV.8(b) Action taken against indiscipline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Action</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Send out</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beat</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scold</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Call to attention</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mother-tongues text book is the commonly used resource material being used by 69% of the teachers in the sample. Table IV.9 shows. The remaining percentage of teachers seem to be using other resources apart from the text probably due to the unavailability of the mother-tongue text book. However, all in all, the various resources seem to be used in combination for no one resource material is
The percentages reflected by the above table shows that there is no discreet boundary to the use of any resource material.

Table IV:9 Resource materials used by teachers (N=32)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource material</th>
<th>How relied on</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text books</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charts</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher made notes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planned activities</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alphabet chart</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table IV.10(a-c) no teacher was found to stick to one type of test or a particular source of the test. The one teacher who said he did oral testing only is a standard one teacher. This could be probably due to the level of learners as far as writing and reading skills are concerned. 84% of the teachers used both oral and written tests as shown by Table IV.10(a). Dictation as a method of testing was a prevalence of standard three (Std III) teachers. Above 74% of the teachers relied on their own made tests according to Table IV(10c) supplemented by those set by subject panels and others commercially acquired.
Table IV.10(a) Mode of evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test type</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Oral and Written</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>84.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-reading Activities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV.10(b) Frequency of evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortnightly</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Termly</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV.10(c) Source of test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of test</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher mode</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text exercise</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject panel</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchased</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total 115.3% of the teachers as shown by Table IV.11 concentrated their testing in grammar and reading each practiced by 59.2% and 56.1% of the teachers respectively.
These are followed by writing tests with 37% and 26.9% going to vocabulary testing.

**Table IV:11 Areas of testing in Mother-tongue**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>59.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV.12 shows that 46.8% of the teachers said the environment contained plenty of resources while another 17% found moderate resources from the local environment. 31% of the teachers claimed the environment around them offered few or no resources at all.

**Table IV:12 Teachers getting resources from the local environment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount of resources</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A lot of resources</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few resources</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No resources at all</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Instructional problems cannot be channelled into a single cause but from the above table it is obvious that the key problem facing the teaching of mother-tongue is the unavailability of textbooks which was cited by 74.9% of the sampled teachers. The second problem is the socio-linguistic background of the learners and the overcrowding in classes which occur in 46.8% each of the cases studied. 37% of the problem lies with the syllabus which is either too extensive or not clear. Table Instructional problems cannot be channelled into a single cause but from the above table it is obvious that the key problem facing the teaching of mother-tongue is the unavailability of textbooks which was cited by 74.9% of the sampled teachers. The second biggest problems are the socio-linguistic background of the learners and the overcrowding in classes which occur in 46.8% each of the cases studied. 37% of the problem lies with the syllabus which is either too extensive or not clear as shown by Table IV.13.
Table IV.13 Problem areas in teaching mother-tongue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>No. of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Number of syllabus copes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Syllabus too extensive</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Syllabus not clear</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Little time in the time table</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Unfair competition from L2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Socio-linguistic background</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Unavailability of text books</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>74.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Overcrowding in classes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Inadequate sitting facilities</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 The observation schedule

Three schools were once more sampled out, one from each division to supply a teacher to be observed while conducting a mother-tongue lesson. Out of interest a fourth school was picked for observation due to the relatively young age of its teachers of mother-tongue. This was done for comparative purposes. The list of these schools appears in the appendix.

All the four teachers who were observed while teaching had their schemes of work for the term ready for both mother-
tongue and for other subjects. However Table IV.14 shows that only two had their lesson plans ready for that particular lesson. One teacher had her objective well stated and adhered to while the second teacher who had a lesson-plan was not able to cover all the steps. The objective required a lot to be covered. The objective was stated like this:

Objective: At the end of the lesson pupils will be able to read and write words starting with 'Nw'a', 'Nw'e', 'Nw'i', 'Nw'o', 'Nw'u'.

She was able to cover only the first three syllables. This made her conclusion not possible the way she intended. The teacher was young with an experience of 3-5 years. She claimed this was her first year to teach in lower primary.

Another teacher who did not have a current lesson-plan used an earlier taught lesson plan and hence faced difficulty in the conclusion. The exercises had already been done earlier.
### Table IV:14 Readiness for teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Available</th>
<th>Not available</th>
<th>Satisfactory</th>
<th>Unsatisfactory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Schemes of work</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson plan</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steps in lesson plan</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The teacher of mother-tongue as illustrated by Table IV.15 is competent. The teacher has a good voice, that is, loud enough, has mastery of the language and manages the class well by promptly correcting errors and moving around the classroom. The teachers' weakness is seen in the habit of code-switching, for instance a teacher after writing a sentence on the blackboard said:

'N̄n̄d̄u ūngī asyokele sentensi iswa.'

Meaning 'Let another person (pupil) read that sentence.'

'v̄a ̄a r̄ōw̄n̄i ̄ İ̄n̄o.'

Meaning 'In this row.'

Thus the teacher fails to use the K̄īk̄ām̄b̄a words for 'sentence' and 'row' and the learners are bound to follow the teacher's example.
Another weakness observed in the teachers is the inability to improvise teaching aids from the environment. Most of the classrooms visited looked very bare except for the desks and the pupils.

Pupil participation as indicated in Table IV.15 below is on the average. The teachers were observed to be unable to achieve good pupil participation due to overcrowding in the classes. The smallest class which was observed was composed of forty six (46) pupils and about ten (10) pupils were absent on that day. In one school, a standard three class had a total of one hundred and four (104) pupils but those present on the particular day were ninety three (93). On checking the pupils written work in this particular class, it was clear that the teacher rarely saw what each pupil wrote. Some pupils' handwriting was something next to scribbling, while others wrote quite satisfactorily.

Sitting in most classes was always in rows (Table IV.15) with one desk being shared by four to six (4-6) pupils. Most schools had brick-walled classrooms but lacking in both door and window shutters. This was observed to be a contributing factor in teachers not collecting teaching aids most of which would be stolen or destroyed after school. The number of classrooms also was inadequate and
this was one reason why a large number of pupils shared a
room instead of being in separate streams.

The other reason for joining two classes into one was
shortage of teachers. Two schools visited were found to
have PTA teachers who are untrained, to supplement the
shortage. One of these was teaching lower primary which
means he also taught mother-tongue.

In all schools where a questionnaire was administered, I
observed that shortage of books was a common problem. When
it was time to read one book was shared between four to six
(4-6) pupils who also shared a desk. This is shown
evidently by Table IV.15 where shortage of text books was
common. Other desk members had no books at all. They only
listened. When one of them was called to read aloud, he or
she had to solicit for a book from others.

The Kikamba series that was found in common usage was:

- Kūsoma kwa mbee (reader I for Std I)
- Kūsoma kwa kelī (reader II for Std II)
- Kūsoma kwa katatū (reader III for Std III)

This series, the teachers complained had no teachers' guide. There were found to be absolutely no Kikamba
supplementary readers in the schools, hence the learners lacked adequate Kikamba reading practice.

A final general observation made was that mother-tongue was not taken seriously by both teachers and pupils. Sometimes the mother-tongue period on the timetable was found to be used by teachers to teach some other more 'useful' subject like maths or English. After class three, the common language policy in schools is not to use 'mother-tongue' within the school compound. This policy mitigates against the language and the subject is taken lightly by both learners and teachers. After all mother-tongue is not examinable.
Table IV:15 Events during the lesson

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Events</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Common</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Inadequate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pupils participation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers movement</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error correction</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ language</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mastery of M/T</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code-switching</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sitting facilities</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowding</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other teaching aids</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reinforcement</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5

DATA INTERPRETATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

In carrying out this study, the researcher employed the assumption that teaching methods are an important factor in determining how learning takes place. There was the assumption that there is a very close relation between teacher characteristics and the methods the teacher employed. The fact that the researcher believed there existed a problem of lack of reading and writing proficiency amongst primary school leavers, the syllabus was deemed to be faulty in one way or the other. Why was the content and methods set out in the syllabus lacking impact on the learner of mother-tongue?

On the other hand, the learner is a key participant in the process of learning. Learner characteristics, especially those that might affect learner's intake and retention of taught material, are briefly examined. The environment as a constituent of the process of learning was also examined.

5.1 Teacher Characteristics

As illustrated by table IV.1a, mother-tongue is commonly handled by women teachers who comprise 71% of the sampled
teachers. It is a common belief that women are good in matters of language (Britton: 1980). Table IV.1(b) shows that 81% of the teachers handling this subject have a teaching experience of over ten (10) years and 62.5% are aged above 36 years. As the old adage goes, 'wisdom matures with age' and teaching like driving is perfected by practice (Proctor: 1995). From the above observation, it is seen that mother-tongue teaching is in the hands of competent teachers, both in age and experience.

From Table IV.2, it is clear that mother-tongue is again handled by trained teachers except a negligible 2% of untrained personnel. Over 65.6% of these trained teachers are educated up to the ordinary level certificate. About 31% who are of Primary and junior secondary level of education are all trained and have years of experience behind them. Only a negligible 5% are untrained. For this reason, the standard of the teachers' academic and professional qualification cannot be blamed for the failure of the learners of mother-tongue becoming proficient in reading and writing. The teachers' failure to perform as required must lie elsewhere.
5.2 The Syllabus

100% of the teachers studied agreed that they do use the syllabus at one time: once a term as shown by Table IV.3(a). As revealed by Table IV.5(a), this is probably when they are preparing schemes of work for the term. This suggests that the syllabus is shelved most of the time. Since each school rarely has more than one syllabus, it means each teacher does not have enough time to scrutinise and understand what is required by this instrument. However, 87.5% of the teachers do agree that the syllabus is a useful tool in the process of teaching. It is only an inexperienced teacher as reported under Table IV.3(b) who claimed that the syllabus was not useful at all to him.

What causes this insufficient use of the syllabus by the teachers, despite the fact that they recognise its usefulness, remains to be hypothesized. Could it be due to the pressure of work, lack of sensitization about how to use it or the insufficient number of the copies?

5.3 Instructional Methods and test types

From Table IV.4(a), 59% of the teachers said that they used a mixture of mass lecture, group instruction and individual instruction. It is clear from table 4.6 that the most common sitting arrangement is in rows and this encourages
the lecture method of teaching. Sitting in rows facing the chalkboard facilitates this method for it inhibits the methods of group and individual instruction. During actual classroom observation it was found that the rows and the individual desks were packed to over-capacity making individual instruction impossible. The fact that only a minimal 14% of the teachers attested to using the mass lecture shows that the teachers are aware of the weaknesses associated with this method and they would not like to be associated with it. This can be explained by the fact that over 95% of the sampled teachers are professionally trained.

According to Table IV.10(c) 75% of the teachers rely on tests which they themselves construct. Another 14% use these teacher-made tests plus tests from other sources including the textbook exercises. This fact elaborates the teachers' professional abilities as well as the shortage of textbooks as shown by Table IV.13. The absence of a language and this individualistic approach to assessment explains the diversity that exists in as far as the teaching and assessing of mother-tongue is concerned. This diversity in teaching and assessing mother-tongue can be a source of failure to achieve reading and writing proficiency amongst the learners generally.
5.4 Planning for teaching

All the teachers studied said they prepare schemes of work. They usually prepare at the beginning of the term except one teacher who prepares monthly as shown by Table IV.5(a). This shows that there is an established practice of preparing schemes of work in this given region, while other modes are still acceptable. This also shows that there is always an on-set go preparation for teaching. However, preparing a scheme of work and accomplishing it are two different things. Table IV.5(b) shows that 59.3% of the teachers claimed they prepared a lesson-plan for each mother-tongue lesson. The question still remains as to whether the lesson objectives are appropriate and are achieved at the end of each lesson. If not achieved, does the teacher realise so and repeat the lesson? 59% of the teachers did say that when a lesson was not well covered, they still would write a fresh one in order to cover what they had not covered. This is in contrast to the 40.9% who said that one lesson-plan could be taught for several periods. These two contrasting opinion amongst the teachers are a crucial point to be born in mind. There could be an underlying problem in these differing opinions that could be a root-cause of the lack of proficiency in
reading and writing mother-tongue amongst learners and school leavers.

The teacher who is using one lesson plan severally could be dwelling on one area, whilst the one who prepares daily might be moving at a speed which the learners cannot cope with. A remedy is required to ensure learners needs are met.

Table IV.9 indicates that teachers fall short of resource materials, especially text-books. This means that each teacher is forced to use his initiative to come up with well sequenced language material for each lesson. Lack of initiative and laziness can lead a teacher to dwell only on familiar ground leaving other aspects of language untouched.

5.5 Sitting arrangement

Table IV.6(a) shows that the most common sitting arrangement is in rows. This makes it easier for the teacher to maintain class control as shown by Table IV.8(a) & (b). The teacher is able to notice any misbehaviour in the crowded class and deal with it immediately. It also makes it easy for the teacher to move to different parts of the classroom as Table IV.15 shows. This again enhances class control. Although this sitting arrangement is known to reduce contact with individual pupils (Proctor, 1995),
it is, as revealed in this study, a situation that is forced by circumstances.

As observed earlier in the discussion of planning for teaching, each teacher uses their own ingenuity to prepare and teach mother-tongue. This is once more revealed in Table IV.6(b) where teachers are seen to use a mixture of pre-reading activities with some using more than one activity. Similarly, Table IV.7(b) shows that teachers do not use common or regular modes of assessing their pupils. Some assess daily and then do it again weekly and fortnightly. There are others who wait until the end of the term in order to assess their learners. However, 75% assess their pupils weekly.

In Table IV.8(b), the relationship between teachers and pupils is portrayed as cordial. This is in accordance with the teachers' professional ethics. For instance, telling off a learner embarrasses him or her and reduces his motivation to learn (Garry, 1996). Immediate correction and calling them to order when wayward is quite in order professionally.
5.6 Resource Materials

As portrayed by Table IV.9, no single type of resource material is used alone. Stephens and Claessen in their manuscript (P.95), state that teaching is a pragmatic trial and error business to achieve the desired end. However the mother-tongue textbook which is seen to be the commonly preferred teaching resource. It is used by about 70% of the teachers as shown by the table referred to. Second to the textbook in use is charts which are used by 56%. This can be explained by the fact that a chart can carry quite a substantial textual information hence a close substitute for the textbook where they are inadequate. The textbook is therefore the indispensable single teaching resource. Despite this singular importance of the textbook, Table IV.13 indicates that about 75% of the teachers suffer from the problem of textbook unavailability. Literacy entails the use of textbooks in order to read and write words (Garet et al 1994). The textbooks, thus, remains the means as well as the target of teaching to read and write in any language.

The shortage of textbooks of mother-tongue is earlier reflected (Table IV.4) where only 8% use textbook exercises to assess their pupils. 72%, in the same table have to make do with teacher-made tests probably from their
own creativity. However a 69% in table 4.9 still insists that the text book is the best resource material. This observation makes the shortage of text books very acrid.

Another problem tied to this one text book shortage is that according to Table IV.12, less than half, that is 46.8% of the teachers are the ones who are seen to be able to improvise resources from the local environment. 31% of the teachers according to this table claim to be unable to get resources from the environment. A mere 17% can only improvise moderately. Given this kind of situation coupled with text book shortage, it can be said that very minimal teaching of mother-tongue takes place in the schools.

These problems when coupled with an earlier observation that teacher and pupils have a negative attitude towards mother-tongue, then we can clearly see how the teaching of mother-tongue is adversely disadvantaged in comparison to other subjects in the school curriculum. The negative attitude towards mother-tongue emanates from the national language policy as well as the subsequent school language policies. To quote one teacher, 'mother-tongue is never examined nationally, nor is one credited for speaking it and it is only taught for three years!' This according to
the teacher diminishes mother-tongue as a subject in the eyes of teachers and pupils.

5.7 Evaluation
A combination of oral and written tests is the most common feature practiced by 84% of the sampled teachers as shown by Table IV.10. A negligible number of teachers comprising of 2% and 11% use a single mode of testing. This implies that reading as a skill is rarely assessed. This skill of reading which involves sound and word recognition, sentence meaning and eventually passage comprehension is essential if the learner is to be practical in the use of language as a literate person (Awoniyi, 1982). With limited reading exercises coupled with the shortage of text books, as noted earlier, the learner is bound to have a limited 'word bank' (Garry, 1953) and hence, limited in the use of the language either in writing or reading.

Table IV.11 also reveals that vocabulary is not a favourite area of testing. This implies a situation where by learners are short of the knowledge of certain venarcular words which if the reader is presented with later in life will be unable to read correctly.
Kikamba being a tonal language, the learners might only know one vocabulary and never come across other vocabularies which are spelt similarly but pronounced differently. For instance:

Úthùku - (evil/bad)
Úthuku - (bronze)

Íia - milk
Íia - weeds
Íia - lake

The meaning is differentiated in the beginning by raised or low tone for /í/ and raised or low tone for the final /a/.

A reader who reads using the wrong tone will affect the meaning of context being read. Therefore, vocabulary building is an essential part of the reading process.

5.8 Instructional Problems

From table IV.13 the teachers pin pointed three key areas that acted as a draw back to their efforts to teach mother-tongue. These include: unavailability of text books with 75%. Socio-linguistic background and overcrowding in classes both constituting 46.8%. The issue of text books has been discussed earlier exhaustively under resources.
What needs to be commented on is that it is a problem that cuts sharply, like a ray of light, in the whole process of teaching and learning.

Concerning the socio-linguistic background it is important to note that Kikamba like many other languages of the world including English has varieties or dialects (Fuller, et al., 1990). Most of the Kikamba texts are written using the dialect of Machakos district while the area in which the study was carried out is in Kitui district.

It was noted during observation that even teachers had problems in pronouncing certain words the way they were written. In one questionnaire, a teacher highlighted the words which are a problem in teaching as they are not commonly used in Kitui district.

**Kikamba words**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Machakos</th>
<th>Kitui</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kūimaimana</td>
<td>Kūtundua</td>
<td>be foolish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyunzu</td>
<td>Nusu</td>
<td>a half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ŭsūa</td>
<td>Sūsū</td>
<td>grandmother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malondu</td>
<td>Malūngu</td>
<td>sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Úkomo</td>
<td>Kītanda</td>
<td>a bed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kūela</td>
<td>Kūthi</td>
<td>to go</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Such words and others when used in the texts commonly used in schools are strange to the learners who already speak the language. They then act as a draw back to the learners' progress of learning to read and write the language. Very often, a learner of language spells the word the way they pronounce it. As such, many children in Kitui find themselves at a disadvantage. Many such words exist between Machakos and Kitui. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Machakos</th>
<th>Kitui</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nthi</td>
<td>nzí</td>
<td>earth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nthiní</td>
<td>nzíni</td>
<td>inside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nthwaia</td>
<td>nzwaia</td>
<td>gazelle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nthooko</td>
<td>nzooko</td>
<td>peas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The issue of crowdedness in a single class has been highlighted in tables 5.5, it inhibits the teaching and learning mother-tongue in that it is not possible for the teachers to pay attention to individual learners.
Another problematic area is the syllabus. It is either too extensive or not quite clear to a good 37% of the teachers in each case. If the syllabus is not followed due to any of the above reasons, it is no wonder objectives of the lessons observed seem not to be well achieved. According to Swain (1983), the first principle of a successful bilingual education is for the child to be well grounded in his or her first language. This forms a base for L2 learning and the learning of other subjects in the curriculum. Given the circumstances already discussed concerning the teaching of mother-tongue in this study, could these problems facing mother-tongue be one of the reasons why the district does not perform well in the annual Kenya Certificate of Primary Education? Mother-tongue is the initial tool with which a learner forms concepts (Pattanayak 1986).

5.9 Planning for Teaching and Lesson Progress

Table IV.14 shows that planning for teaching is taken seriously by most teachers, especially the stage of drawing schemes of work. Half of the teachers prepared the lesson plan but even those who did not have one seemed well versed with what they wanted to teach. Despite their competence, lack of prior preparation coupled with the lack of a
teachers' guide and a pupils' textbook made the teacher's methodology haphazard. It ended in lack of application of what was taught.

Table IV.15 highlights most of the issues already discussed. A new issue in this table is the idea of code-switching which is characteristic of language usage where speakers are pluri-lingual. Where an English word is integrated into a Kikamba sentence like in, 'vaa rownî Ḣino (in this row), the pupil might never get a chance of knowing the Kikamba word for row, hence, fall short of Kikamba vocabulary.

5.10 Recommendations

Following the above data analysis and interpretation, the following are some recommendations which the researcher thinks could help to eradicate or minimize some of the problems revealed concerning the teaching of mother-tongue,

1. Organise seminars and refresher courses to sensitize lower primary teachers about the importance of mother-tongue and discuss ways of improving the teaching.
2. Schools to be supplied with or asked to by more than one copy of the syllabus.
3. The issue of space in classrooms in relation to enrolment to be addressed by the authorities that be, like, the PTA, school committees and the education office. This should also be looked into together with the issue of teacher - pupil ratio.

4. Text books should be made a priority in every school. A panel of teachers of mother-tongue can sit and come up with a tentative guide to the text in use to ensure uniformity in the teaching of mother-tongue. In addition supplementary readers should be identified and recommended for use along with the primary text.

5. The school inspectors in the district education office should form a follow-up of the teaching of languages paying keen interest to the teaching of mother-tongue.

6. Teacher’s Advisory Centres (T.A.Cs) to be charged with their rightful obligation to design and suggest a variety of teaching aids which can be passed on to teachers to construct according to one’s talent. This talent can then be shared with other teachers during seminars.

7. A centralised fund to be established within particular jurisdictions, say, a zone or division, with which to purchase books for schools within that particular area.
8. Panels formed by lower-primary teachers of mother-tongue to come up with common solutions of how to combat dialectical problems. This move can be initiated from the district level. The outcome of the deliberations of the zonal panels can be shared at the higher level whereby a centralised uniform approach would be established and then passed on.

9. A standardized uniform test to be done at the end of class four. Passing in his exam should be certified at the district level and be compared with other districts which speak the language to know the best district. This would ensure that learners do not abandon reading and writing in Kikamba after standard three.

Conclusions

In this study, I have tried as closely as possible to examine the teaching practices carried on by teachers of mother-tongue. It is no doubt that the biggest weakness in the teaching of this subject lies with the issue of textbooks coupled with the negative attitude towards the language, occasioned by the various language policies. It is obvious that the problem is slightly above what an individual teacher can do on his own to resolve the issue. The recommendations suggested above seek the concerted
efforts of the parents and the educational authorities to ensure that a chain of command takes the initiative to rectify the loopholes that exist in the teaching of mother-tongue. Once this is done, the small problems that accompany the major ones would be cleared.

It is my sincere hope that this study will prompt future researchers, authors and educationists to play their role in upholding the sanctity of our mother-tongue.
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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Your are requested to answer the questions as honestly as possible to the best of your knowledge. Put a tick (✓) in the box against the appropriate answer provided. The information thus given will be used solely for study purposes and nothing else.

SCHOOL ________________ DIVISION ________________
DISTRICT ________________ CLASS ________________

I. The teacher:

(1) Sex: Female [ ] Male [ ]
(2) Age: Below 19 years [ ] 20-24 years [ ]
     25-30 years [ ] 31-35 years [ ]
     Above 36 years [ ]
(3) Experience in teaching: Below 2 years [ ]
     3-5 years [ ]
     5-10 years [ ]
     Above 10 years [ ]

II. Qualifications

(4) Your highest level of academic education is:
    KPC/CPE/KCPE [ ]

68
KJSE [ ]
EACE/KCE/KSCE [ ]
Other (Specify) _______________________

(5) Your professional qualification is:
Graduate/Approved teacher [ ]
S1 [ ]
P1 [ ]
P2 [ ]
P3/P4 [ ]
UT [ ]

III. Syllabus Use

(6) When do you refer to the syllabus?
(i) Once a year [ ]
(ii) When writing schemes of work [ ]
(iii) When preparing lesson plans [ ]
(iv) Before teaching [ ]

(7) How useful do you find the syllabus in the teaching of mother-tongue?
(i) Very useful [ ]
(ii) Not very useful [ ]
(iii) Useful [ ]
(iv) Not useful at all [ ]
IV. Instructional methods:

(8) What strategy do you use to teach reading in mother-tongue?

(i) Mass lecture
(ii) Group instruction
(iii) Individual instruction
(iv) All the above

(9) How do you test taught/learned skills in reading and writing?

(i) Use test book exercise [ ]
(ii) Categorise exercises for various Abilities [ ]
(iii) Make up own exercises [ ]
(iv) Buy test papers [ ]

V. Teaching Skills:

(10) How often do you prepare schemes of work?

(i) Weekly [ ]
(ii) Monthly [ ]
(iii) Termly [ ]
(iv) Yearly [ ]
11. Do you prepare a lesson plan for every mother tongue lesson contacted?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

12. If yes, state difficulties you face in adhering to the plan?

13. If no, give reasons for not preparing the lesson plan

14. What sitting arrangement do you find convenient for your teaching?
   (i) Sitting in rows [ ]
   (ii) Sitting in groups [ ]
   (iii) Conference style [ ]
   (iv) Others (Specify) ____________________________

15. What pre-reading activities do you take your pupils through before commencing on actual reading?
   (i) Picture reading [ ]
   (ii) Letter/sound recognition [ ]
   (iii) Syllable formation [ ]
   (iv) Word recognition [ ]
   (v) Other (specify) ____________________________
(16) How do you ensure the participation of every pupil in class activities?

(i) Through chorus answers [ ]
(ii) Calling upon individuals [ ]
(iii) Exercises/marking [ ]
(iv) Other (Specify) ____________________________

(17) How often do you give homeworks?

(i) Daily [ ]
(ii) Fortnightly [ ]
(iii) Weekly [ ]
(iv) Rarely [ ]

(18) How often do you mark/correct pupils exercises?

(i) Immediately [ ]
(ii) Daily [ ]
(iii) Occasionally [ ]
(iv) Weekly [ ]

(19) How do you respond to oral (reading) mistakes made in class?

(i) Ignore them until end of lesson [ ]
(ii) Ignore them completely [ ]
(iii) Correct them immediately [ ]
(iv) Tell off the offender [ ]
(20) How do you deal with erring pupils in your class (e.g. noisy, absent minded)?

(i) Send them out of class [ ]
(ii) Beat them [ ]
(iii) Scold them [ ]
(iv) Alert them to attention [ ]

(21) What resource materials do you use in preparation and teaching of mother-tongue?

(i) Text books [ ]
(ii) Pictures [ ]
(iii) Charts [ ]
(iv) Own made up notes [ ]
(v) Planned activities [ ]
(vi) The alphabet [ ]
(vii) Specify others ________________________

VI. Evaluation mode

(22) What type of tests do you use to evaluate learning in reading/writing?

(i) Oral [ ]
(ii) Written [ ]
(iii) All combine [ ]
(iii) Other (Specify) ________________________
(23) How often do you test your pupils?

- Daily [ ]
- Weekly [ ]
- Fortnightly [ ]
- Termly [ ]

(24) Who sets the tests you use to evaluate mother-tongue teachings?

- Self [ ]
- Panel [ ]
- From text [ ]
- Bought [ ]

(25) What areas of language do you often test your pupils in?

- Vocabulary [ ]
- Grammar [ ]
- Reading [ ]
- Writing [ ]

VII. Instructional problems

(26) Specify instructional materials which can be easily/cheaply improvised from the local environment.

1. ____________________________________________
(27) Which of the areas listed below do you find instructional problems resting on?

(a)  (i) Syllabus unavailable [ ]
     (ii) Syllabus too extensive [ ]
     (iii) Syllabus not very clear [ ]

(b)  (i) Little time allocated in the time table [ ]
     (ii) Unfair competition from English and Kiswahili [ ]
     (iii) Linguistic/social background of the Learner [ ]

(c)  (i) Unavailability of text books [ ]
     (ii) Overcrowding in classes [ ]
     (iii) Inadequate sitting facilities [ ]
## APPENDIX B

### OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Trained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Untrained Teacher</td>
<td>Trained Teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. **Schemes**
   - Available [ ] Inadequate [ ]
   - Not available [ ]

2. **Lesson Plans**
   - Available [ ] Sketchly [ ]
   - Not available [ ]

3. **Objectives**
   - Well stated [ ] Poorly stated [ ]
   - Fairly Stated [ ]

4. **INTRODUCTION**
   - Lesson linked with the previous lesson through
     - Questioning [ ]
     - Explaining [ ]
     - Story-telling [ ]
     - Pictures [ ]

5. **Learner's Participation**
   - Extensive [ ] Average [ ] Limited [ ] Poor/None [ ]

6. **Correction of errors**
   - Instant [ ] Appropriate [ ] Rude [ ] None

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existent [ ]

7. **Teacher’s mastery of the language**
   Very good [ ] Inadequate [ ] Poor [ ]

8. **Questioning Techniques in reading/writing**
   Leading questions [ ]
   Open-ended [ ]
   Choice questions [ ]
   Repetitive questions [ ]

9. **Feedback**
   Immediate [ ] withheld [ ]
   Positive [ ] Negative [ ]

10. **Reinforcement Techniques used:**
    Reading Loud [ ] Songs [ ] Role play [ ]
    Story-telling [ ] Dramatization [ ]

**Overall Comments**
APPENDIX C

PROJECT WORK SCHEDULE (M.ED(PTE))

1. Writing Research Proposal  Feb-March 2000
2. Handing in and Review of Proposal  April 2000
3. Collecting data  May 2000
4. Analysis of data and compiling of Final project  June-July 2000
6. Handing in project  August 2000
APPENDIX D

The schools which were sampled out and included in this study were:

1. Kathivo Primary school
2. Kombu Primary school
   * 3. Kithumula Primary School
   * 4. Mbusyani Primary School
5. Ithiiani Primary School
   * 6. Kwa Kunuuwa Primary school
* 7. Ngangani Primary school
8. Kitungati Primary School

* The school where actual observation was done
## APPENDIX E

### ESTIMATED BUDGET

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Writing materials</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Typing and photocopying proposal</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Binding</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Typing and photocopying research</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruments</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Transport (fuel)</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Type final project</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Photocopying</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Binding Project</td>
<td>2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Miscellaneous expenditure</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>20,000</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
25 April, 2000

The Headmaster,

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: REQUEST TO ASSIST KENYATTA UNIVERSITY M.ED. STUDENTS

Mr/Miss/Mrs.

Is a bona fide student of Kenyatta University doing his/her M.Ed. (PTE). As a part of fulfilment of the course, he/she is supposed to carry out a small scale project. To do this, he/she will need some assistance from you.

So, please assist him/her to get some data from your school. Data will be used only for conducting this research project.

Thank you,

PROF. M.M. PATEL
CO-ORDINATOR M.ED. (PTE) PROGRAMME
SCHOOL FOR CONTINUING EDUCATION
APPENDIX G

The headteacher,
Primary/Secondary,
KITUI.

REF: RESEARCH ON LANGUAGE TEACHING
MRS. HELENE M. MUNYASIA

The above referenced person is carrying out a research on the matter still referenced above. The research is for the purpose of writing a dissertation for she is a student at Kenyatta University.

Please, should she call into your school do accord her the necessary assistance.

Thank you.

[Signature]

FOR: DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER
KITUI.

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