

**LECTURERS' EXPERIENCES OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AN ENGLISH MEDIUM  
OF INSTRUCTION IN A TEACHERS' COLLEGE IN ZIMBABWE**

**BY**

**SHAMISO TATIRA**

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**SUPERVISOR: DR ZINHLE P NKOSI**

DECLARATION

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.....

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As the candidate's supervisor, I have approved this thesis for submission.

.....

Dr Zinhle Primrose Nkosi

## **Dedication**

This thesis is dedicated to my husband Liveson Tatira, my two sons, Herbert and Cephas and my father Mr J.M. Mhuru without whose love, help and encouragement this thesis would have never been.

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## **Abstract**

The wave of internationalisation of higher education has rocked many nations in the world, such that most have adopted English as the language of communication. English is spreading rapidly as medium of instruction (EMI), forcing many higher education institutions to become international so as to attract students and staff from the international education market. Zimbabwe, like many other African countries, has also adopted EMI despite the fact that it is a second or third language for most learners. The need to compete in the global village has forced Zimbabwe to retain the language of its ex-colonial master. English thus has continued to be the medium of instruction in higher education. This study explored lecturers' experiences in the implementation of an EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe, with the aim of answering the following questions: 1. What are the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe? 2. How are lecturers affected by their experiences of teaching through English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe? 3. Why do lecturers experience the implementation of English medium of instruction the way it happens in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

The study used the Translanguaging theory as its Theoretical framework. The research site was a teachers' college, which is situated in Harare, Zimbabwe. The participants were 6 lecturers teaching at the teachers' college in three subject areas namely: Mathematics, Physical Education and Theory of Education. The study adopted the Interpretivist paradigm and used a qualitative case study. Non-participant observations, semi-structured and focus group interviews were used as data generating methods. The thematic approach was used to analyse the data.

Six major themes emerged from the findings. Firstly, lack of commitment by government to avail a clear EMI policy. Instead of availing a policy, government relies on the Education Act of 1987 which states that English is the medium of instruction from the fourth grade up to tertiary level, while indigenous African languages are taught as subjects. This makes it difficult for lecturers to implement EMI effectively because there are no clear guidelines on how lecturers should teach. Secondly, lack of commitment by the teachers' college to avail an official document that stipulates the medium of instruction that enhances lecture delivery. Thirdly, failure by government to monitor the implementation of the Education Act of 1987 in relation to EMI. Fourthly, the government's lack of support in funding the teachers' college, which has resulted in failure by the college to extend infrastructure which includes a communication skills centre and a language laboratory to facilitate the learning and acquisition of English skills. Fifthly, the use of English and Shona code-switching in the lecture rooms as a way of bridging the difficulties faced by students in expressing themselves meaningfully in English (Shona, being the mother-tongue of many learners in the college and in Harare). Sixthly, poor English proficiency of students, resulting in both failure to participate in class and in grasping the content taught.

Findings of this study indicate that the implementation of EMI in the teachers' college is done in various ways depending on the lecturers' views. In addition, students fail to participate fully in discussions and question and answer sessions due to limited English language proficiency. I therefore, concluded that lack of commitment by government and the teachers' college to avail a clear language policy largely contributed to the diverse ways in which the EMI is implemented in the teachers' college. The study also found that the language of instruction varies from lecturer to lecturer as some lecturers code-switched while others persistently used the English language but struggled to clearly articulate the content. Moreover, limited proficiency in English language by students led to challenges in understanding content, leading to poor results in assignments and examinations.

The major recommendation of the study is that the Zimbabwean Government should produce a language policy that recommends that in addition to English, at least one official language of the linguistic region concerned, be used to complement the EMI to enhance improved teaching and learning by indigenous African lecturers and students without prejudice to other local languages spoken in Zimbabwe.

## **Abbreviations and Acronyms**

EMI: English Medium of Instruction

DTE: Department of Teacher Education

MHTESTD: Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Science and Technology Development

HEIs: Higher Education Instruments

L1: First language

L2: Second Language

L3: Third Language

ESL: English as Second Language

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

TOE: Theory of Education

PE: Physical Education

HOD: Head of Department

UNESCO: United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNISA: University of South Africa

UCT: University of Cape Town

UWC: University of Western Cape

UKZN: University of KwaZulu-Natal

UNIZULU: University of Zululand

UFS: University of the Free States

City U: City University

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

### 1.1 Introduction to the chapter

This chapter looks at the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, delimitations of the study and definition of terms. This will be in a bid to establish what obtains on the ground at a teachers' college in Zimbabwe concerning the implementation of English medium of instruction (EMI).

### 1.2 Background of the study

The influence of the combination of technologies in this era of globalisation is ensuing in the creation of a new international order. Resulting from the necessity to have a common language in the new international linguistic order, English has become the language of communication (Marsh, 2006). For others, the wide usage of English has become the sole shared practical language (Marsh, 2006) and English is becoming a second tongue for a lot of, if not most of the world's populace. The present widening use of English and the danger of pressure on other languages in the coming century is a grave question for several people.

The acceptance of EMI has been taking over in higher education arena across the world.(Crystal, 2004, Graddol, 1999 and Chang, 2010).English medium of instruction (EMI) has become a key issue among educational institutions worldwide. In spite of the continuous international debate on English as the Transnational lingua-franca or as a 'killer language' or a reverse language shift process in which nations counter it as the ultimate predator(Fishman, 1991 in Coleman 2006), English continues to be the medium of instruction in higher education worldwide. The notion of 'killer language' springs from the perception that as the English language gains supremacy as the medium of instruction globally, other languages face extinction. English thus becomes the major means of instruction in tertiary education landscape. However, using English in teaching may have both positive and negative consequences in

nations where English is not taken as the first language. The positive implications of EMI are seen by the rapid growth of English as a global language with definite reference to trade, science, affairs of state and academia. All English speakers, foreign and native are said to be growing at an annual rate of above 7% (Crystal, 2006). Also in several countries in which English is a foreign language to the people, there has been a move towards EMI in tertiary education (Jensen and Thongersen, 2011).

In Asia, the approval of EMI in tertiary education institutions is considered the order of the day, to entice alien students, better prepare local learners for employment and contain the number of gifted local students learning in foreign countries in this age of internationalisation (Manh, 2012). For that reason, a figure of Asian tertiary education institutions have redesigned their academic laws to internationalise and have started to present English-based programmes (Manh, 2012).

Owing to the internationalisation of higher education, scholars are currently perceived as clients of a multimillion dollar business due to factors such as increasing tuition fees, increasing in the movement of international scholars and the swelling number of EMI programmes and race among countries. Bearing in mind that the evidence that, the international market of tertiary education has mounted to about 2 million students transacting up to 30 billion dollars (Coleman, 2006) in tuition fees, it turns out to be simple to comprehend the races among nations for having a portion from the trade. The global market of students and the amount paid as tuition fees must have tremendously increased by now.

In Europe, the swelling acceptance of EMI at universities has been captured well (Maiwarm and Watcher2002, Watcher and Maiwarm, 2008 in Kirkpatrick, 2014). This has been associated with the Bologna process. The now forty-seven member country Bologna process was initiated in Europe in 1999 as a solution to internationalisation of higher education (Coleman, 2006). The process gave students choices to move around universities and is generating a global village sharing the higher education arena (Coleman, 2006). European Universities have been encouraged to homogenise their degree programmes so as to permit students the opportunities to carry their degree programmes in other universities. By this, English

has been adopted as a universal teaching language. This makes it simpler for learners and staff to change universities in different countries. The Bologna process was said to be creating borderless and democratic European arena (Coleman, 2006). Nevertheless, Phillipson (2008) says that, there is a saleable underlying principle behind English in tertiary education as well as political and cultural scopes.

Phillipson (2009) puts it strongly when he specifies that, what comes out distinctly is that in the Bologna practice, internationalisation means English-Medium in tertiary education. This has led to the acceptance of English philosophy. "How can one set out along using English while deprived of revealing oneself to the danger of being anglicised, in one's intellectual structures, avoiding being conditioned by the linguistic routines?" (Phillipson, 2006, p.68-69 in Kirkpatrick 2014 p.17).

The rise of EMI seems to have endangered indigenous languages, for example in Norway and Sweden, where the Norwegian and the Swedish as languages of academic communication are losing domain. More and more courses are now run in English hence there is a domain loss in Norwegian and Swedish languages (Brock- Utne, 2007). In South Africa, there are eleven endorsed languages, but English remains the standard of instruction in most higher education and basic education institutions (Nkosi, 2014).

Another recent example of the contest between nations for a share from the global market is the "Global 30" mission in Japan which was introduced in 2012 (Kirkpatrick, 2014). The "Global 30" mission is planned to attract global students to Japan to learn in any of the 30 universities subscribing to the "Global 30" project. The Japan international website communicates that with the beginning of the "Global 30" project, the finest universities in Japan are now presenting degree programs in English (Kirkpatrick, 2014). By so doing, these universities removed the language barrier which stood as one of the impediments preventing the global students from learning in Japan. The aim of "Global 30" project is to attract international students and staff and it also increases Japan's revenue base.

The issue of internationalisation and globalisation of tertiary education is forcing many tertiary education establishments to become global so as to attract learners

and staff from the worldwide education market. Coleman (2006) asserts that, the term internationalisation and Englishization are now closely related. This thus means shifting to or retaining teaching in English and thus turning global which would give academic establishments the chance to draw worldwide learners and training staff and also add to the academic status to source for global research finances and to boost their graduates' opportunities of finding employment on the international market.

Education through the use of English in tertiary education is also common in several African countries despite the reason that this is a second or third language to most of the students in this continent (Burkett, 2005). The point of view in favour of education through the use of English only, particularly with regards to users of the African languages, according to Burkett (2005) and Coleman (2006), relies heavily on issues of the multi-lingual nature of the African countries. That is, due to multiple varieties of minority languages which are used as mediums of instruction (thus English serves as a unifying force) and also the discussion of internationalisation and empowerment as their major reason for adopting or retaining EMI, in other words, the reasons for EMI are to attract global students, to organise their local students for the worldwide job market and to lift up the status of the institution.

In South Africa, the constitution officialises all languages namely English, Afrikaans, and nine indigenous languages and these add up to 11 (Kamwendo, Hlongwa and MKhize 2014, Mwaniki, 2012, Nkosi, 2014). As indicated earlier, English, however, is the main medium of teaching in tertiary education. Interestingly, some universities for instance, University of KwaZulu Natal (UKZN), Free State (UFS) and Zululand (UNIZULU) are making visible steps towards becoming bi/multilingual medium institutions (Kamwendo et al., 2014, Mwaniki, 2012, Zondi, 2014).

The trend in South Africa, as observed, seems to show that due to globalisation, it seems difficult to do away with English as a teaching language in tertiary education since it is widely used in many countries. Instead, higher education institutions are opting for dual medium of instruction which includes English and an indigenous language.



Zimbabwe has also been caught up in this wave of globalisation and internationalisation of higher education. Considering its colonial history of being a British colony from 1890 to 1980, Zimbabwe like other African countries which were once British colonies, has retained the legacy of its master (English language), (Nhongo, 2013, Gora, 2013 and Ryhan, 2014). Sociolinguistically, Zimbabwe is a multilingual country with fifteen indigenous African languages. These languages are Chewa, Shona, Kalanga, Chibarwe, Koisan, Ndau, Nambya, Ndebele, Shangani, Sotho, Tonga, Tswana, Venda, Sign language, and Xhosa (The Constitution of Zimbabwe 2013). Of the fifteen indigenous African languages, according to the Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013), of Zimbabwe's 13 million people, Shona is the widely spoken language with at least 75%, followed by Ndebele which is spoken by 16,5% and 3% by the other fourteen language groups often referred to as minority languages. According to the Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013), all the fifteen indigenous African languages are officially recognised for use in education. Over and above the indigenous African languages, English is also an officially recognised language in Zimbabwe and is a language of instruction in tertiary education.

In such a diverse linguistic situation, English becomes a unifying force. Mudenge, the late Minister of higher education in Zimbabwe, in his speech at Bulawayo Polytechnic graduation ceremony in 2012 said, "In countries like Zimbabwe, where people speak different languages, English plays an important function in communication among people of different linguistic backgrounds and also helps to unify people" (Chingwaru, 2012).

While English is a unifying force in Zimbabwe, like other African governments who are advocating for use of local languages in tertiary education, the need to compete in the global village, has forced Zimbabwe to retain the language of its ex-colonial master (Nziramanga, 1999). English has continued to be the way of teaching in higher education as enshrined in The Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 which stipulates that EMI should be used from the fourth grade up to tertiary level, while native African languages are taken as subjects. The Ministry of Higher Education (1998) also officialised the use of English in tertiary education (Ministry of Higher Education 1998). However, Gora (2013) posits that the use of EMI in higher

education in Zimbabwe has made its citizens linguistic prisoners, in the sense that one's mother tongue is a value which should not be taken away.

While adopting EMI in higher education has both cultural and political implications, in Zimbabwe where English is a second language to some and foreign language to others, internationalisation of higher education and the desire to compete globally has led to the retention of EMI in higher education in independent Zimbabwe. English was and still is the gateway to higher education, employment and economic social networks locally and globally.

Nziramasanga (1999) established that colonial governments allowed the teaching of Shona and Ndebele, which are major languages from Grade One up to university stage as subjects. They were held inferior to English hence were not used as mediums of teaching in tertiary education. English thus has stayed on as the official language, a medium of teaching in schools and higher education, an enforced subject and also a prerequisite for an Ordinary level ('O' level) certificate to be considered complete (Nziramasanga 1999). 'O' level is a post primary education which takes four years of secondary education in Zimbabwe.

An 'O' level certificate is said to be complete when the holder has passed five subjects with C Grade or better including English language and Mathematics. It normally takes four years of secondary education to acquire an 'O' level certificate in Zimbabwe. This notion of a full certificate is also outlined in the Secretary's Circular Number 3 of 2003 dated 28 January 2002 that, "A full 'O' level certificate shall consist of not less than five subjects passed at Grade C or better including English and Mathematics". Therefore this is the reason why English is made the medium of teaching in higher education. This therefore means that one cannot access higher education, the job market locally and internationally without English.

In the hope to keep pace with the global village, English is adopted as training language in higher education, teachers' colleges included. The University of Zimbabwe, Department of Teacher Education (DTE) Handbook (2012, p.14), indicates that "Diploma in education (primary) a three year program is targeted at generalised teacher training for suitable post 'O' level candidates to teach at primary

school level (Grade 1-7). To pass this competitive, internationally recognised programme, candidates should satisfy examiners in the broad areas of teacher education competence." Thus due to the need to have graduates who fit in the international market, teachers' colleges are forced to maintain the EMI.

This study focuses on the pre-service primary teachers' college. There are eleven pre-service primary teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe, eight of them are owned by the state while the other three by church organisations. All the eleven colleges function under the Ministry of Higher Education under the scheme of association with DTE at the University of Zimbabwe which confers primary school teachers with a Diploma in Education after a three year course. These teachers will teach at primary schools from Grade 1-7.

The University of Zimbabwe, through DTE is the standards control department which ensures that programmes at these colleges are similar in terms of structure, duration and number of subjects. Subjects offered at these colleges are Shona or Ndebele, English, Social Studies, and Religious and Moral Education, Mathematics, Environmental Science, Art, Music, Home Economics, Physical Education, Health and Life Skills, National Strategic Studies, ICT, Theory of Education and Professional Studies. The colleges may differ regarding emphasis, for example Philosophy as opposed to Psychology (Chikamba, Johnston, Shchneller and Schwille, 1986). English is used in all subjects at these teachers' colleges except for indigenous African subjects, Shona and Ndebele (Ministry of Higher Education, 1998). The colleges are organised in such a way that those in Mashonaland, Masvingo, Manicaland, Midlands provinces where the main language used in the day to day communication is Shona hence students are mainly bilinguals of English and Shona. Those in Matebeleland where Ndebele is the main language used in the day to day communication, are mainly bilinguals of English and Ndebele. However students are recruited at any one of the colleges without focusing on their linguistic backgrounds. This then means that students from other linguistic backgrounds other than Shona can enrol at colleges in Mashonaland Province while a non-Ndebele speaking can enrol at colleges in Matebeleland, creating a multilingual situation at teachers' colleges. However, at the teachers' college studied, Shona is the main language of

communication out of the learning environment for both lecturers and students. English is only used for teaching and learning and other formal settings.

Using EMI in higher education as shown by aforementioned researches, might seem attractive as it appears to prepare students for global educational market. Nevertheless, with regard to African context, broad research has shown that several African lecturers and students are not proficient enough in using English in teaching and learning (Brock-Utne, Desai and Qorro 2004; Kyeyune 2010, Webb 2002, 2004).

Since the learners are the receivers in the implementation of EMI, many educationists have complained about the problem of learners' language barriers as it affects the implementation of the programme. They argue that if students do not understand well enough the language being used in teaching, they will have difficulties in developing academically (Heugh, 2000, Ngara, 1982, Wolf, 2011, Webb, 2004). In the same vein, Kamwendo, Hlongwa and Mkhize (2014, p.88) note that, "students who may be using languages other than their first language in learning, lack helpful tool to proper understanding, deepening their grip of ideas and their expression of issues in class discussion and written work."

Using native African languages for teaching noted by Kamwendo et al. (2014) is largely limited to the primary school in Africa. The argument put against the use of indigenous African languages in higher education is that indigenous African languages do not have enough sources and appropriate terminology to handle academic discourse in higher education (Mpofu cited in Gora, 2013). However, even without adequate resources the translanguaging theoretical framework according to Hibbert and Walt (2014) can be applied in a classroom situation, even when students' languages are not officialised for teaching, the indigenous languages can be utilised to explore and contextualise students' educational work and serve as ladders in academic discussion.

Nziramasa (1999) notes that, using English in teachers' colleges results in learners' poor levels of academic accomplishment and poses potential challenges that lecturers who are implementers of the EMI policy might not be proficient in English. Nziramasa presented that there is a mystified and half-hearted

execution of the current language of teaching and learning policy, which officialise English as a medium of teaching in schools and in higher education. The report was supported by findings that the constant use of EMI has disillusioned a lot of Zimbabweans because it produces poor results in examinations at all levels of education and also because such a policy is colonial, (Nziramasanga, 1999).

As was observed by Nziramasanga (1999), the EMI policy results in poor grades in examinations at all levels of education. Kurtan (2004) also notes that the application of EMI poses various questions for example, the teachers' linguistic proficiency to teach courses in English, and the learners' understanding of the content. In line with Nziramasanga, Paahla (2014) speaking about South African students at the University of South Africa (UNISA) noted that the students' problem with English emanates from their background where most of them are not in contact with the native English speakers in their local environment and have been tutored by non- English native speakers, who also struggle to use the English language. Most of the students in Zimbabwean teachers' colleges also share the similar background with the UNISA students, of not having been exposed to native English speakers in their homes, primary and secondary education. This contributes in students having poor proficiency in English.

In the same vein Mudenge, the late Minister of Higher Education in Zimbabwe in his speech at Bulawayo Polytechnic graduation ceremony in 2012 observed that a significant number of lecturers saw that it was easier for students to understand information taught in their indigenous languages. Therefore, he challenged Zimbabwean lecturers to use students' most familiar language or mother tongue from Grade One to all tertiary institutions for all subjects, be they humanities and sciences as students would understand concepts better (Chingwaru, 2012).

Mudenge argued in line with social justice in higher education which demands teaching in the mother tongue because the mother language inculcates critical thinking, but as has been said earlier, African governments including Zimbabwe, do not want to be excluded from the global village hence for now English will be maintained as the teaching medium.

Although the option of English as EMI is usually supported by political, social and economic power (Trudell, 2010), research has asked about the justice and success of learning given through an unfamiliar foreign language to students and lecturers. Regrettably, in Zimbabwe English which is a second or alien language is used in teaching in higher education. Ngara (1982) notes that, rote learning is a familiar feature of Zimbabwean education in that, children, even university students commit to memory concepts and terms, they hardly understand.

Another study by Nziramasanga (1999), notes with concern that EMI results in poor grades in examinations. A recent study by Gora (2013) also posits that, due to lack of the command of English, students cannot comprehend concepts delivered in English. Some lecturers who are the implementers of EMI are also challenged by insufficient mastery of the language of instruction in their implementation of EMI as well, as already highlighted before. Thus, using English is problematic to learners and teachers. The language is a barrier to effective learning and communication during the lessons (Nyawaranda, 2000). Rather than the technical language of their subjects, it is the common use of English that a number of EMI lecturers lack and the classroom language to successfully set up tasks, provide meaningful explanations, intermingle with their students and normally make their lessons interesting (Nyawaranda, 2000).

For these reasons, the study seeks to carry out a thorough enquiry into the implementation of EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe in order to investigate lecturers' experiences on the use of EMI. This research seeks to add to the scarce literature on lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI which facilitate understanding of concepts in EMI by students in Zimbabwe. This is the gap that this study seeks to address. The next section deals with the problem declaration.

### 1.3 Statement of the problem

The use of EMI in higher learning in Zimbabwe has been viewed as problematic in that some of the lecturers and students who are the important beneficiaries in the use of the policy may have challenges in using the language since it is their second or foreign language. More so it has been observed, that in all communications

outside the classroom and other informal settings, indigenous languages for example (Shona) are used for communication. This further demonstrates that lecturers and students may not be comfortable in using English outside the classroom and only use it in the classroom because it is policy. English as observed is only used in the classroom and other formal settings. Thus there is a need to investigate lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI and to find out how lecturers are affected by their experiences in teaching through English as a means of instruction in the implementation of EMI in Mathematics, Physical Education and Theory of Education and to explore the reasons for lecturers to implement EMI in the way it happens.

#### 1.4 Purpose of the study

This study sought to find out lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI at a teachers' college in Zimbabwe with the ultimate goal of finding out how lecturers were affected by their experiences in teaching through English language of instruction and explored the reasons for the lecturers to experience the implementation of English as language of instruction the way it happened.

#### 1.5 Objectives of the study

This study has the following objectives:

1. To find out lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe.
2. To find out how lecturers are affected by their know-how of using English as medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe.
3. To explore the reasons for lecturers to experience the implementation of English medium of training the way it happens in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe.

## 1.6 Research questions

1. What are lecturers' experiences on implementing English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?
2. How are lecturers affected experiences of instructing through English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?
3. Why do lecturers experience the implementation of English medium of instruction the way it happens in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

## 1.7 Significance of the study

The implementation of EMI in higher education in Zimbabwe seems to be faced with a number of challenges given Zimbabwe's sociolinguistic background where there are 16 indigenous African languages which are not used as mediums of teaching in higher education. Instead English is used as a second or an alien language in teaching and learning. It thus makes it significant to investigate lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI and to find out how lecturers are affected by their experiences of giving lessons in English and also explore the reasons for them to experience the implementation of EMI the way it happens.

Many studies have been conducted on English-medium of teaching in tertiary education and have focused on the impact of EMI on students' performance, students' perceptions of the EMI, challenges of students in the EMI, lecturers' perceptions on EMI, university lecturers preferences (Coleman,2006,Moodley, 2009, Mwaniki, 2012, Kirkpatrick, 2014, Chang, 2010, Lei, 2013). Such studies have been conducted in countries like Europe, China, Iran, and South Africa. Despite the extensive literature on the driving force behind EMI, few studies have focused on the lecturers' experiences (Vinke, Snippe and Jochems, 1998, Flowerdew 2000, Brock Utne, 2007, Paxton, 2008, Nkosi, 2014 Zondi, 2014 and Mohamed 2013), and students' (Kagwesage2013, VU and Burns (2014) in the implementation of EMI. Most of the studies have been conducted in Rwanda, South Africa, Vietnam and Europe. This study thus seeks to add to the scarce literature on lecturers' experiences in the implementation of EMI in Zimbabwe to facilitate students' learning. Previous studies



on lecturers' experiences on the implementation of the EMI were conducted in Central Africa, South Africa, Europe and Asia. Therefore, it is not clear to what extent the findings from these researches can be extended to the Zimbabwean context. Given such a scenario of social cultural and linguistic and educational differences between Central Africa, South Africa, Europe, Asia and Zimbabwe, it is important to research on lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI in the Zimbabwean context to establish how universal the existing findings are.

As the researcher in this study, I hope that its findings may influence personnel at the teachers' college to reflect on their experiences in implementing the EMI and improve on them as a way of ensuring the success of EMI implementation. The study will also benefit learners if lecturers reflect on their experiences in teaching through English in order to meet learners' needs.

### 1.8 Delimitations of the study

The study was carried out at a teachers' college which is situated in Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe. The study focussed on six lecturers purposively selected from three subject areas namely, Mathematics, Physical Education and Theory of Education. The study thus did not involve all teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe therefore there is no desire to generalise the findings. The results of the study apply to a particular teachers' college. I appreciate that each teachers' college in Zimbabwe is unique; therefore one cannot generalise findings across the board.

### 1.9 Limitations of the study

Like any other researches, limitations and problems are anticipated. In this research, I thought I would encounter the problem of accessing the research site. In order to confront this challenge, I sought written permission from the Ministry of Higher Education to gain access to the site. I also thought I would encounter a problem of participants who may not be free to give out honest information hence I assured them confidentiality of the whole exercise as well as anonymity by use of pseudonyms, in the research reporting stage and by altering specific contextual fine points that may reveal the identity of participants. I also anticipated financial problems. This problem was overcome towards the end of year as my dependents

by then had completed their studies. The other problem that I encountered was that of time that I was left with before completing the study. To mitigate this challenge, I applied for the extension of my study through the guidance of my supervisor. The scarcity of literature on EMI in Zimbabwe was another challenge that was likely to affect the study. To mitigate this challenge, I had to review literature on EMI on other European, Asian and African countries to gain insights on lecturers' experiences in their teaching through the English medium of instruction to facilitate students' grasping of concepts. The main problem was that the literature that was reviewed had a foreign sociolinguistic, economic and political background which is different from Zimbabwe. To mitigate this, insights gained from the literature were discussed and interpreted in the Zimbabwean context.

### 1.10 Thesis outline

This thesis is structured into seven chapters with the first one presenting the introduction, where I articulate the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose, objectives, delimitations and limitations of the study.

Chapter two discusses literature review. This chapter explores studies that have been conducted internationally, continentally and locally.

Chapter three discusses the research methodology which is qualitative research approach, the interpretive paradigm and a case study design. The research made use of non participant observations, semi-structured interviews and focus group interview data generation techniques.

Chapter four is a conceptual and theoretical framework chapter, where I define key concepts and discuss the Translanguaging theoretical framework that guides this study.

Chapter five is data presentation on my first study question: What are the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe? Data from interviews and discussions with six lecturers will be presented in chapter 5. I discuss the findings on the articulated study questions for the research. The chapter also discusses broad themes that emerge from the findings.

Chapter six presents data from observation. The interviews findings and group discussions are going to be used for triangulation. The second study question: How are lecturers affected by their experiences of teaching through English in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

Chapter seven analyses and discusses findings from the interviews which are semi-structured, focus group discussions and observations. My third research question will be answered in this chapter: Why do lecturers experience the implementation of English medium of instruction the way it happens in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

The chapter also gives the conclusions, implications for future research, and recommendations hinged on the findings.

### 1.11 Conclusion

All areas mentioned in the introduction to this chapter have been addressed. The chapter also spelt out the arrangement of the thesis. It has established that EMI is spreading tremendously throughout the world to the extent that some countries are introducing EMI from primary up to tertiary level. The spread of EMI has been attributed to globalisation of higher education. This phenomenon has both negative and positive impact. The positive impact is in that lecturers and students can study and work in any part of the world where English is the medium of teaching. Whereas the negative impact is that the use of English only may result in poor grades in examinations and may also threaten national languages and cultures. Review of literature will be dealt with in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter interrogates the literature around the area of study. The literature review is divided into subheadings namely, the centrality of language in Education, why English Medium of Instruction (EMI) at teachers' colleges and African experience on EMI policy implementation. It further goes on to discuss factors affecting the implementation of EMI policies, lecturers' challenges in teaching in second language (L2) and lecturers' experiences on the use of English medium of instruction in higher education, locally, continentally and internationally.

#### 2.2 The centrality of language in Education

Language is at the centre of discussion in education because it is mostly through it that information is transmitted. Language is a means by which human beings make sense of their world. It is through language that people live, think and understand (Vygotsky 1986). Hence language can be defined as a means by which human beings can communicate ideas, emotions and desires (Sapir 1921). It is therefore evident that it is through language that people negotiate meaning.

In a classroom situation, language is a tool by which knowledge is transmitted. Komareck (1997) describes education as synonymous with communication and language as the basis for communication is a significant tool for any teaching and learning process. Thus, according to Komareck (1997), to instruct students in a language which they have not mastered, is to make life unnecessarily difficult and frustrating for them.

Language, as noted above, is of significance in education for it is a medium through which knowledge is passed on. Many educationalists like Cole, Gay, Glick and Sharp (1971) advocate for mother tongue instruction at all levels of education; that is from primary to higher education for it inculcates critical thinking. Fawcett 1970 in Ngara (1982) identifies the basic concepts in modern primary school as activity, discovery and expression. Thus, he suggests that the integral part of this philosophy of

education is that children should be allowed to externalise their experiences by talking about them. Fawcett 1970 in Ngara (1982, p.120) says,

Throughout the activity, through the process of discovery, the child needs language for communicating with the teacher. This communication should be free and natural. The teacher too should be able to communicate freely and naturally with his pupils. If this freedom of expression, this natural form of communication is not to be stifled, there is no option but to use the child's mother tongue.

Fawcett's submission was mainly focusing on primary school children but even in higher education, studies have shown that students who use English language as a medium of instruction seem to struggle with the mastery of concepts. Another expert in bilingual education, McNamara (1973) also observes that students who conduct their studies in a foreign language encounter serious difficulties because of their insufficient mastery of the language of instruction.

Ngara (1982, p.121) notes that, "children and even university students commit to memory concepts and terms they hardly understand." The findings from the two above studies show that African education is characterised by rote learning. This is so because pupils and students lack the language of instruction, a tool that facilitates learning.

Vygotsky (1986) notes that, language is not only for expressing ideas but a tool for visualising them, thereby making a person aware of them thus creating knowledge. Kagwesage (2013) in agreement says that language used for teaching and learning should be a familiar language to students to enhance their acquirement of knowledge and comprehension and the development of skills, in order for them to show the knowledge they have acquired successfully in assignments and examinations.

Kagwesage (2013) in line with Brock-Utne and Alidou 2011, Heugh 2000, and Webb 2004 note that, if learners are not proficient in the language being used as means of instruction effectively, they will have problems to grow academically. Hence all students need a language which they have mastered to be able to participate in

class discussions. The difficulties with which speakers of an African language experience can be explained in terms of the psycholinguistic theory concerning the relationship between first and second language in education as indicated by Cummins 1986 in Dalvit, Murray and Terzoli (2009). Cummins (1986) distinguishes between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as two kinds of language abilities that should be viewed as distinct abilities affecting language proficiency.

- Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency is the dimension related to Cognitive Academic Skills or general intelligence. Such skills develop in a formal classroom situation.
- Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skill is the basic skill required for oral fluency as well as sociolinguistic aspects of competence developed naturally (Freeman and Lang 1991 in Dorasamy 2012, p.18).

Cummings, according to Dalvit, Murray and Terzoli (2009) claims that a bilingual can develop two languages independently up to BICS level, while at CALP level, the two operate symbiotically. Meaning that, in situations that are cognitively challenging, the stage of CALP in an L2 relies on its phase of development in the L1. A failure in the development of the CALP in the first language fights against the acquisition of academic language skill in the second language, this is referred to as the interdependency hypothesis.

In support, Baker (2006 in Dalvit et al., 2009) notes that, once academic proficiency is developed in one language, it can be transferred to another, given enough motivation and exposure to the target language. It is therefore important to note that pupils need more time to develop both BICS and CALP so as to be able to use the first and second language effectively in an academic situation. The next section looks at the reasons why English Medium of instruction (EMI) is adopted at teacher colleges.

## 2.3 Why English Medium of instruction (EMI) at teachers' colleges?

In today's globalisation and dominance of English as a global language (*lingua-franca*), knowledge of spoken and written English is increasingly viewed as inseparable with various fields such as business, diplomacy and academia. In order to keep pace with this global phenomenon, many HEIs, in countries which do not speak English all over the world, are embracing English as medium of instruction at their institutions of higher learning (Coleman, 2006). Several reasons have been given for the embracing of EMI in HEIs over and above regional and international governments to launch programmes or maintain courses taught through English.

In European higher education institutions, Coleman (2006) outlines seven reasons for the adoption of EMI which are content and language integration, learning, internationalisation, student exchanges, teaching and research materials, staff mobility and graduate employability in domestic and international global markets. These seven reasons by Coleman (2006) have also been transferred to many higher education institutions including teachers' colleges. EMI at teachers' colleges prepares students for prospect business careers or pursuits and supply domestic labour market with qualified personnel with a high level of globally oriented skills (Byun, Chu and Kim, 2010).

In Asia, the adoption of EMI in higher education institutions is being taken as the "policy fashion" (Byun et al., 2010). The reason is to draw foreign students, better equip local students for the job market and curb the high number of gifted local students studying abroad in the wave of internationalisation (Byun et al., 2010). Balla and Penning 1996 in Byun et al., (ibid) indicate that formerly British colonised Asian countries in South Asia like India, Singapore, Malaysia and Hong Kong have broadly adopted EMI in higher education, teachers' colleges included, in order to match the current global phenomenon of internationalisation. In Southern African countries, English is also wide spread as medium of instruction in all HEIs. As a language, English increases easy access to information, employability, facilitates development, relocation prospects and chances of studying abroad (Coleman, 2011).

In Zimbabwe, English is a gateway to success in higher education, employment, law and economics (Nziramanga, 1999). Therefore, emphasis is highly placed on EMI in higher education as a way of facilitating the internationalisation of teachers' colleges to battle for students and academics (Wilkinson, 2013).

The Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 as amended in section 55 part 1(c) states that, "from the fourth grade, English shall be the means of instruction provided that Shona and Ndebele shall be taught as subjects on an equal time allocation basis as the English language." This policy shows that English is the sole means of teaching in tertiary education while indigenous African dialects are taught as subjects. In line with the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act, the main goal of higher education in Zimbabwe as spelt out in the University of Zimbabwe, Department of Teacher Education (DTE) handbook, (2012, p.14) is that,

Diploma in education (primary), a three year programme, is targeted at generalised teacher training for suitable post 'O' level candidates to teach at primary school level (grade 1-7). To pass this competitive internationally recognised programme, candidates should satisfy examiners in the broad areas of teacher education competence.

The above stated document means that the teachers who graduate at primary teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe should be able to teach from grade 1-7 locally, regionally and internationally, hence EMI at teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe.

EMI at teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe helps to attract local and international students, which may increase the colleges' revenue as well as profile. Thus the need to compete in the global market encourages teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe, to retain English the language of the former colonial authority (The British) in higher education (Nziramanga, 1999).

The notion of a full certificate in Zimbabwe as outlined in the Secretary's Circular Number 3 of 2003 dated 28 January 2002 highlights that, a full 'O' level certificate shall consist of at least five subjects passed at C grade or better including English and Mathematics. The circular seeks to justify that one cannot access higher education (teachers' colleges included) without English. Thus, English at teachers'



colleges in Zimbabwe enables local students to gain access into higher education hence the use of EMI in teachers' colleges.

Zimbabwe, being a multi-linguistic society has fifteen indigenous African languages and English, all of which are officially recognised for use in education (Zimbabwean Constitution, 2013). EMI enables communication between students with different linguistic backgrounds in teachers' colleges. The teachers' colleges enrol students from all the parts of the country who come with their different indigenous African languages, thus English becomes an important language for teaching and learning in teachers' colleges. Thus just like any other higher education institutions in the world, Zimbabwean teachers' colleges adopt EMI to boost national competitiveness in knowledge making (Hu, 2007).

EMI has also been seen to facilitate the internationalisation of teacher education. This has made teacher education in Zimbabwe to compete for students and open up new sources of revenue (Wilkinson 2013). Furthermore Zimbabwean teachers' colleges like many international universities have embraced EMI to improve the employability of their graduates globally (Bjorkman, 2008), Pecarori (2011) in (Lei, 2013).

Thus, the reasons for adopting EMI at teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe can be summarised as follows:

- To prepare local students for employment locally, regionally and internationally
- To enable qualified teachers to pursue degrees locally, regionally and internationally.
- To attract international students and lecturers
- To open up new sources of revenue
- To raise the profile of the institutions
- To facilitate migration of students and lecturers within teachers' colleges locally, regionally and internationally.

After discussing the reasons for EMI at teachers' colleges, the next section discusses African experience on EMI policy.

## 2.4 African countries and English Medium of Instruction (EMI) policy implementation

Implementation of EMI policy in African countries is almost similar because the language of instruction is a colonial language. The colonial language, in this case, English, is the language of the former colonial master, which is a foreign language to the majority of students. Former colonies of the British have English while former colonies of France have French (Bamgbose, 1991). African countries because of their multilingual nature are faced with the dilemma of the language to use as the means of instruction in higher education. This is so because as Hadebe (1996) noted, in any country with many languages, there are far-reaching implications on the status of that language or group of languages chosen for a specific purpose or function. This dilemma results in a second language (English) as the case in this study, being used as the language of instruction. Using a foreign language as a language of teaching results in ambiguously worded policy statements as noted by Bamgbose (1991, p.111) who states:

Language policies in African countries are faced by one or more of these problems: avoidance, vagueness, arbitrariness, fluctuation and declaration with no implementation.

The ambiguous policies make it difficult for classroom practitioners to implement them in the same manner as might be desired by the policy makers hence this results in various implementation styles. Before looking at African experiences on EMI policy implementation, there is need to give a brief background of how some policies came into being in Zimbabwe. As in several African countries, Zimbabwe has no clearly pronounced language policy (Makoni 2010, Gora 2013). The reason for lack of clear policy may date back to the colonial days. Before 1980, when Zimbabwe got independence from the colonial rule, class distinctions were related to races, where the whites belonged to the higher class and blacks to the lower class. English the language of the former colonial master enjoyed supremacy over African languages Shona and Ndebele [which were then regarded as the major African languages in Zimbabwe] (Makoni, Dube and Mashiri, 2008). The children of the white rulers enjoyed education in private and government schools that were well

equipped and meant for the elite white, while black children were educated at schools with lower status. English was maintained as a language of teaching from grade one upwards at these elite schools. However, the majority of Zimbabweans attended poorly equipped urban schools as well as schools in rural areas, which were not proficient in the English medium of instruction. The majority of students who attended such poorly equipped schools later enrolled at higher education institutions.

At independence in 1980, the new black elites in Zimbabwe, were then in the leadership of the country. They were concerned about providing their children with opportunities that were formerly enjoyed by white children (Makoni, Dube and Mashiri, 2008). It is no surprise that English was maintained as the medium of instruction from primary up to tertiary level whilst indigenous African languages, Shona and Ndebele remained languages which were taught as subjects and were not considered as mediums of instruction. Up to this time English still enjoys higher status than indigenous African languages in Zimbabwe. The internationalisation phenomenon has also made African countries to maintain English medium of instruction. This results in policies which are characterised by ambiguity as noted by Bamgbose (1991), in the sense that the African countries do not have clearly pronounced language policies (Makoni, 2010, Gora, 2013), as said earlier.

The EMI policy creates an artificial environment for example; the Constitution of Zimbabwe (2013), under subheading 1 item (1) states that:

Languages such as Chewa, Chibarwe, Shangani, English, Kalanga, Koisan, Ndau, Ndebele, Shona, Nambya, Sign language, Sotho, Tonga, Venda Tswana, and Xhosa, are the officially recognised languages of Zimbabwe.

Item (4) states that,

Zimbabwe must be supportive of all languages spoken including sign language to provide a favourable environment for their advancement (The Constitution of Zimbabwe, 2013, p.17).

Thus, in line with Bamgbose (1991), the Constitution does not state how these languages should be used at all levels of education. In the same vein, Prah (2006) in Zondi (2014, p.265) notes that: "all over, African post-colonial governments have on paper raised the position of indigenous African language, but nothing beyond this has perpetually been achieved". As a result higher education relies on four documents which advance the use of English medium of instruction without mentioning indigenous African Language. The four documents are:

- a. The Government of Zimbabwe's Education Act of 1987 subsection 3, which stipulates that from Grade four up to higher education level, English shall be the means of teaching, while local languages are taken as subjects.
- b. Similarly, the Ministry of Higher Education policy on the medium of instruction as reflected on the ministry's website is simply, English is the platform of instruction in advanced education (Ministry of Higher Education, 1998).
- c. The Secretary's Circular Number 3 of 2003 dated 28 January 2002 highlights that for an O' level certificate to be considered complete "shall consist of at least five subjects passed at grade C or better including Mathematics and English". It therefore means that one cannot access higher education, job market and the international community without English, emphasising the importance of EMI.
- d. the University of Zimbabwe Department of Teacher Education (DTE) which confers diplomas to teachers in its handbook (2012, p. 14) indicates that, "Diploma in education (primary) a three year programme is targeted at generalised teacher training for suitable post 'O' level candidates to teach at primary school level (grade 1-7) to pass this competitive internationally recognised programme candidates should satisfy examiners in the broad areas of teacher education competence. This quotation implies that the medium of instruction is English.

The above documents however, although they show that in higher education the medium of instruction should be English, do not clearly outline the implementation procedures. This is thus left to the practitioners to decide on how to implement the

policy. Thus, the implementation of EMI may vary depending on the practitioners' understanding of the policy (Yeh, 2012).

The implementation of EMI may vary in African contexts due to early introduction of English in the primary schools. In the Zimbabwean context as noted in the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987, English is introduced as early as in Grade four which is the fourth year of primary school education. Despite this early introduction of English, Gora notes that, "it is shocking to note that some students at teachers' colleges and universities having been exposed to English for long periods [about 10 years of primary and secondary schooling] are not able to communicate proficiently in English" (Gora, 2013, p.128).

Chua (2011) notes that early introduction of English as a teaching medium may not be sufficient to prepare students who are non-English speakers at home. The problem of early introduction of English in primary schools in Africa was also noted by Kyeyune (2010), Nguen and Nguen (2011), Vu and Burns (2014). Williams (2011) identified problems of early experience where primary school children in EMI classes in higher education become academically disadvantaged because English was introduced to them before they had mastered the mother tongue. Ngara (1982) argues that children who are introduced to the second language before they have mastered the first language may have problems in mastering the second language and also to use it as medium of instruction. Ngara (ibid) further notes, these students generally lack fluency, self-assurance or depth in their expression of ideas.

In some instances Ngara (ibid) notes that students in their group discussions may resort to using their mother language to carryout meaningful discussions. This is so because as noted, there is a rapport between language expertise and intellectual performance (Kishindo and Kazama 2000, Nobel 1982 in Kamwendo et al., 2014). Hence Williams (2011) notes that this early introduction resulted in implementation problems where the practitioners have to decide on how best they can facilitate the implementation of EMI to students who have not mastered the language of instruction.

Lueg and Lueg (2015) also note that although proponents of EMI argued that it increased graduate employability, it can contribute to various implementation styles applied in different African institutions. Generally in all African countries, Zimbabwe included, there is an over dependence on the language of the past colonialist (Bamgbose 1991). The large numbers of African students in tertiary education however, have to struggle with content as well as alien languages as media of tutoring. Batibo (2009) notes that, in higher education students are exposed to new information, new concepts and ideas while they struggle with the language. Thus, due to insufficient control of the medium of instruction, the students struggle to apply the new concepts within their logical and conceptual framework and experience, to understand and internalise the information, hence resort to rote learning (Ngara, 1982).

In most cases, lecturers use languages available to them to mediate cognitively demanding intellectual tasks. This in turn results in lecturers having different experiences in their implementation of EMI. In Rwanda, Kagwesage (2013) notes that the large number of the people has a single language in common, Kinyarwanda, but the medium of instruction is English. The policy situation in Rwanda is characterised by 'fluctuation', to use Bamgbose (1991) description of African policies. Kagwesage (2013) noted that before 1994 the language of teaching in tertiary education in Rwanda was French.

In 1995 English the third language (L3) was introduced and officialised as the language of instruction in schools, hence French and English were the media of teaching in tertiary education. However in 2009, the new policy made English the only medium of instruction in higher education. This change in policy adoption of EMI resulted in lecturers having challenges in implementing the policy, at the same time students also had problems in grasping concepts presented in an unfamiliar language. Thus, lecturers and students used other languages to mediate their teaching and learning. Kagwesage (2013, p.1) notes that, "implementing EMI while other locally spoken languages are not accepted officially as languages of instruction

in tertiary education, they mediate in content teaching and learning by the use of responsible code-switching and translanguaging.”

In Tanzania, Brock-Utne (2007) also notes that African experience on EMI policy implementation is marked by linguistic challenges to lecturers and students. Brock-Utne (2007, p.369) says, “I have observed the problems learners had communicating in alien language [English].” Also on the implementation challenges at secondary school in Tanzania, Brock-Utne(2006) in Brock-Utne (2007) records that the usage of EMI in secondary school was even worse than in higher education. “Here the language of instruction was a real obstruction to knowledge, preventing students from grasping what the teacher was saying” (Brock-Utne 2007, p.369), speaking about her experience at the University of Dar-as-Salaam, from 1987 to 1992. Brock-Utne (2005) in Brock-Utne (2007) also expressed how she was shocked to hear lecturers and students communicating in Kiswahili yet the instructional language was English. Brock-Utne’s example shows that African students and lecturers have challenges in using a foreign or a second language such as English. As a result, different lecturers had different experiences in their implementation of EMI.

In South African universities, Kamwendo, Hlongwa and Mkhize (2014) at KwaZulu-Natal, Abongdia (2015) at Western Cape, Paxton (2009) at Cape Town, Zondi (2014) at Zululand and Nkosi (2014) at KwaZulu- Natal mention that the medium of instruction in tertiary education in South Africa is English. However on changing to democracy in 1994, South Africa acknowledged 11 official languages as means of instruction in tertiary education. This resulted in a Ministerial Committee recommending in 2003 that together with English and/or Afrikaans, at least one approved African language of the province in question should be presented as an instructional language (Paxton, 2009). Again, each institution of higher learning was granted an opportunity to devise institutional policies where English and/or Afrikaans and an indigenous African language were to be incorporated as an instructional media. However, even in such a flexible context, lecturers from various institutions noted the problems that students had in understanding concepts presented in

English. Thus, lecturers at these institutions in implementing EMI adjusted their teaching style to enable students to comprehend content presented in a foreign language English. Paxton (2009) and Zondi (2014) identified code-switching and translanguaging as essential tools to mediate the implementation of EMI.

The literature reviewed on African experiences on EMI policy implementation has shown that since currently English is the intercontinental language, none of the countries is willing to do away with it as a means of instruction in tertiary education. Instead all African institutions embrace it as the medium of instruction, but due to the challenges it poses to lecturers as implementers of the policy, the lecturers resort to mother tongue use to enhance the effectiveness of the policy. The next section discusses factors affecting the implementation of EMI policies.

## 2.5 Factors affecting the implementation of EMI policies

In non-English speaking situations, English might be mandated as media of instruction by government policies. EMI in most cases appears to be a phenomenon which is introduced 'top-down' Kaplan (2009) by policy makers and education managers without consultation with key stakeholders (Dearden and Zhao 2014). Most policy makers consider the social and economic settings of policies (Tollefson and Tsui 2004), the English's function in language policies, Chang (2010), Coleman (2006), the relationship between indigenous languages and English (Coleman, 2005), the usefulness of the policies on EMI without considering the implementers on the ground.

As said earlier, English is considered to play a major role in "rising chances of employability, facilitating global mobility, availing chances of development bringing forth essential knowledge and acting as an unbiased tongue" (Coleman 2011p.18). As a result it is accepted very much by governing authorities and is enforced as policy without consulting the implementers that is, teachers and students. Kaplan (2009) noted that the top-down policies fail to depict challenges they impose on individual actors in the implementation process namely teachers and learners and



need for consultation with them in language policy production is a significant source of failure.

Another reason for failure is that many of the policies are not accessible to the practitioners. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) noted that, language policy may take the form of comatose implementation of legal and political decision but this does not mean that the policy does not exist. In this regard, Honberger (1996) noted that policy is rarely accessible to practitioners working in the classroom and the underlying ideology motivations of policies tend to be implicated. As a result, practitioners end up implementing the policies according to their own understanding.

The other reason for failure as noted by Kaplan (2009) may be failure by practitioners to interpret the policy due to the fact that the policy may not be clear enough to direct practitioners on how the implementation process should be like. Tsui and Tollefson (2006) concur that policy is made at the level of government but practitioners in charge of the implementation regularly have access to the implementation of policy merely through syllabi and textbooks. Instead of implementing the policy as expected by policy developers, efficient teachers adjust practices that are passed to them through textbooks and syllabi to serve the requirements of their learners.

Some educationists with the necessary expertise, adequate education, time or materials to use may refuse and pay no attention to the policies and materials altogether. Therefore at times experts and policy makers may conclude that teachers are not implementing the policy well, instead of reflecting on the nature of the materials or policy making process. Nziramasanga (1999, p.169) reporting about the Zimbabwean situation notes:

There is a mystified and weak implementation of existing language of teaching and learning in which the official medium of instruction in schools and tertiary education is English. The report was on the assertion that the nonstop use of English medium of instruction has

disillusioned a number of Zimbabweans because it gives poor grades in examinations at all levels of education and because it is colonial.

The aforementioned report simply reflects the importance of consulting key stakeholders in policymaking process at national and international levels, to be able to produce a user-friendly document which may reduce negative effects on EMI implementation on the learning of academic subjects.

The disparity between policy and real implementation is also agreed to in Asia (Hamid, 2013), (Manh, 2012) and (Sert, 2008). Kaplan, Baldauf and Kamwangamalu (2011) indicated several main causes of failure of EMI implementation which are insufficient learning time, unsuitable materials and methodology, inadequate teacher training and lack of enough resources. Dearden and Zhao (2014) concur that in several countries the educational infrastructure does not sustain the provision of quality EMI, shortage of linguistically competent personnel, no stated expectation of English language proficiency, and few organisational or pedagogical procedure which might lead to effective implementation, little or no EMI content in early teacher training programmes.

Another factor that affects the implementation of EMI is that, when the language of instruction is foreign official language such as English, the truth is that lecturers are conscious of the limitations of their students, which may result in them switching between the official medium and mother tongue in a bid to make their teaching important (Williams 2011). Thus, an official medium in tertiary education classes in some instances is a myth, for the inspectors of schools and visitors to think about (Dearden, et al., 2014). The myth is that policy and practice do not match. In line with Dearden (ibid), Knagg (2013, p.24) notes that:

Given the EMI policy context, we become aware of an inclination to believe that if a countrywide or institutional authority stipulates that a definite situation is EMI in policy statements and written materials, then that becomes the case.

Knagg (ibid) noted that the algorithm of policy and practice is distant from reality. Knagg (2013) gave an example of an educationist's personal story to exemplify this, that when he was walking in a corridor at a university in South Asia city, he listened to the reality of teaching of many subjects going on. He noticed that learners and lecturers had one common thing of speaking in the dominant mother tongue which is understood by majority of the university community (Cantonese) hence a myth that policy and practice did match.

Lecturers' and students' inadequate English proficiency as reflected in studies by Doiz (2013) Webb (2002) is another factor that affected the implementation of EMI. Due to the students' inadequate productive command of English, learners were seen to contribute less in classroom interactions Webb (2002), had serious difficulties understanding lectures or using English to communicate subject based content (Airey, 2010). As a result of lecturers' and students' inadequate command of English, some lecturers allowed code-switching or translanguaging in which more languages are used in interactions. This was in trying to have balanced prerequisite to use EMI with their usual need to give students excellent education outcomes that are skills, knowledge and attitudes (Knagg, 2013).

As a result of different factors that affect EMI implementation there are many different practices where what is really happening in class may be dissimilar from what policy makers think is happening. The next section looks at what actually happens in the classrooms in different environments in the implementation of EMI. It reviews literature on lecturers' challenges in teaching in a second language (L2).

## 2.6 Lecturers' challenges in teaching using a second language (L2)

Teaching using a second language poses a lot of problems to lecturers whose mother language is not English. The majority of lecturers who teach in EMI contexts in African, Asian and some European EMI contexts are not indigenous speakers of English. To the majority of them English is a second (L2) or third language (L3). In this scenario, language becomes the biggest constraint of their teaching in EMI programmes, hence different experiences (Nguyeni, Walkinshow & Pham 2017). According to Walkinshow (2013) in Nguyeni et al., (2017, p.45), "Academics

teaching in an EMI situation must concurrently balance proficiency in their discipline and proficiency as users of English as a supplementary language.” Jensen, Denver, Mees and Werther (2013) concur that lecturers should be able to demonstrate understanding of the subject and the teaching skills. On the contrary, lecturing in a second language seems to present challenges to lecturers who are the implementers of EMI.

The major challenges that lecturers experience in implementing EMI, include students’ proficiency, lecturers’ language abilities, inadequate resources and inadequate time. The first challenge that is, students’ insufficient command of English is believed to cause poor participation in class (Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2011), Flowerdew and Miller, (1998). It also causes Poor performance (Zondi 2014), failure to grasp concepts Kagwesage (2013). Flowerdew, Miller and L1 (2000) also acknowledge the problem of implementing EMI as a result of students’ weakness in English when they noted that, most of the lecturers complained that their learners had limited proficiency in English, which increased their problems in lecturing.

One lecturer in Flowerdew (Ibid)’s study indicated that the measure of English became poorer and poorer year by year. This posed a lot of challenges to lecturers in the presentation of lectures. Some lecturers claimed that students’ weakness in English, results in students pressurising lecturers to teach in Cantonese (L1 of students) in the lecturers (Flowerdew et al. 2000).

Lecturers in another study at a Chinese University conducted by Lei (2015) complained about students’ grip of English, which they alleged to fall far below English competency required for efficient EMI implementation. The major problem highlighted was students’ inability to understand the instructional content given through English and their inadequate facility with English, mainly in speaking and listening presented challenges to lecturers (Lei, 2015).

Ryhan (2014) speaking about the implementation of EMI at tertiary education institutions crosswise the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia notes that:

Students have to put effort to understand instruction in English and deal with the shift (from Arabic to English). I have observed students lacking concentration, looking through the roof, chewing pens, low attendances which are the indications of the loss of concentration and communication among the learners and the instructor (Ibid, p.141).

The quotation shows that lecturers had challenges in controlling lessons in EMI environments, hence students' English proficiency becomes a problem for implementing EMI. The challenge as noted in Saudi Arabia universities is that English is mandated as the means of teaching and learning at the tertiary education level. The mother tongue of the entire kingdom is Arabic, which is the only medium of instruction in all schools up to high school level. English is thus officially introduced as medium of instruction at university undergraduate level. This abrupt shift in language according to Ryhan (ibid) produces a barrier which results in negative reception of the policy, hence poses challenges to lecturers as the implementers of the policy.

In studies in African and Asian countries, students' language inabilities also posed challenges to lecturers in lesson presentations (Byun and Chu et al., 2011, Kyeyune, 2010, Manh, 2012). Kyeyune (2010) in his observations of interactions in Ugandan classrooms reports the frustrating communication because of students' poor competency. He says, "Educationists therefore presume their learners to be able to use the language fluently while they are not" (Kyeyune, 2010, p.175).

In another African context Zondi (2014) quotes a grade 8 and 9 Zambian Geography and English teacher from Bwasana Basic School who says:

As much as we want to teach in English, we have to realize that these learners have their first language, which is chiTonga. So generally when teaching, they would want to take part well when you employ their own language, that's why in most instances we have to incorporate their own language. The minister will say, "No in the higher grades, you have to use English right through", but

we are also disturbed with the pupils participating, they have to participate in their own way and they learn well when they participate. So we are forced, really we have to use their language at some point to clarify the content well. We find our own way, though our books are printed in English, denoting that we have to teach in English but the people we are facilitating to, they do not understand English well. So where we feel that we have to use chiTonga we do so to make them comprehend better (Clemensen, 2010, p.35).

In the same vein, Setati and Adler (2000) speaking about South Africa, note how teachers are in the problem of code-switching, using students' indigenous tongue to make communication achievable while feeling the responsibility to teach in English.

The second problem highlighted, is the lecturers' own ability to conduct lectures in English. Some lecturers as Klaasen and De Graaff (2001) note tend to have problems with pronunciation, fluency and even non-verbal behaviour in their lesson presentation (Klaassen and DeGraaff, 2001). Wilkinson (2005) notes that, "the lecturers felt that communication becomes 'poor' because of a weaker ability to use idiomatic or familiar language, create digressions, relate anecdotes, use comedy or give unplanned examples" (Wilkinson, 2005, p.3).

In some Dutch Universities, Vinke, Snippe and Jochems (1998) reported that lecturers were too technical with and being inflexible by not creating free and relaxed atmosphere which would in turn enable students to acquire the expected content with ease. As a result of their inability to use English in teaching, some lecturers were therefore less able to express themselves clearly and accurately, explain the content in different ways, qualify or refine statements or improvise (Vinke, Snippe and Jochems, 1998). These lecturers as reported had difficulties in expressing themselves efficiently in paraphrasing, probing for alternative words and enlightening statements. Such factors resulted in less content coverage and knowledge loss which negatively affected students' learning (Vinke et al., 1998).

Lei's (2013) study at a Chinese University in China revealed that the lecturers' inadequate English proficiency enabled them to follow the textbook closely when delivering the content whenever they could not communicate fluently in English. They could not deliver a lecture in a spontaneous, interactive, freewheeling manner. Lei (2013), reports that lecturers were less flexible and also lacked improvisational skills in their lecture delivery. The lecturers instead had to code-switch to Chinese when explaining difficult concepts or when teaching challenging content, because to use English exclusively would inhibit them from conveying disciplinary knowledge effectively (Lei, 2013).

Sohamy (2012) echoes the same sentiments in the context of Israel, that university professors would have high understanding in one area (content) and not the other tongue (Sohamy, 2012). In the same vein Karakas (2014) posits that the use of foreign instructional language (English) appear to have a limiting effect on certain teaching behaviours on lecturers whose indigenous language is not English. The lecturers may be well equipped to teach their subject matter but their English proficiency may be the limiting factor.

From the discussion above it can be noted that, the two main challenges that lecturers experienced in implementing EMI are students' inadequate language expertise to investigate abstract concepts, participate in class or even understand lectures in English (Duff, 1997). In the like manner, using English as means of instruction often resulted in reduced lecturer expressiveness and clarity which as Vinke et al. (1998) note, may affect students' learning negatively. The same sentiments were echoed by Nziramasanga (1999 p.169) who reports that, "continued use of EMI has disillusioned numerous Zimbabweans because it is not fundamentally colonial but results in weak grades in tests at all levels."

The aforementioned challenges that EMI posed resulted in different experiences by lecturers in their implementation of the policy to the extent of using the indigenous language of students to explain concepts. The third challenge experienced by lecturers in EMI implementation is inadequate resources. Dang Nguyen and Lei (2013) and Manh (2013) note that limited resources posed challenges to lecturers in the implementation of EMI. Many Asian countries have language policies but

insufficient funding for normal programmes, the education of teachers and for textbooks concluded Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu and Bryant (2011).

The fourth challenge indicated was the time factor. According to Wilkinson (2005), teaching through English demanded more time so that concepts could be explained. More time was needed to evaluate concepts in the learners' different context to enable them to understand. Students too, needed more time to talk and intervene in lectures or discussions. Thus, due to time constraint discussions became less lively.

The different challenges highlighted above lead to different stories to be told by lecturers with regard to their experiences in implementing EMI. Nguyen et al., (2017) note that higher education contexts differ due to their financial, logistical and objectives, hence different experiences can be viewed between lecturers and students concerning the issue of lecture presentation. These different stories as noted resulted from the different contexts in which the lecturers performed their duties. The next subheading discusses lecturers' experiences in implementing EMI locally.

## 2.7 Lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction in tertiary education locally

In the Zimbabwean context, unlike in the continental and international arena, there seems to be very few studies on the experiences of lecturers on the carrying out of EMI in higher education. Among the few researchers who have conducted studies on teachers' experience on the carrying out of the means of instruction in primary schools are Mnkandla (2000), Shumba and Manyati (2000) and Mhindu (2016). Nziramasanga (1999) and Gora (2013) conducted their studies in higher education.

The study by Mnkandla (2000) on the carrying out of Zimbabwe's language policy in the primary school showed that, teachers were conscious of the policy which stipulated that they were supposed to teach grades one to three in indigenous African languages and to use English from Grade four upwards. The study further revealed that teachers' experiences on the carrying out of the medium of instruction policy depended upon the location of the school. In rural schools most teachers used indigenous African languages as medium of instruction in all classes in the primary school on the basis



that using English at primary level would not benefit pupils as they did not understand it.

In multi-racial schools, teachers tend to use English which is perceived to be understood by every student. The study further revealed that at these schools, pupils spoke to each other primarily in Shona and yet appeared to understand their teachers who taught in English except for few explanations in Shona to clarify some concepts. Some teachers at multi-racial schools switched from Shona to English when teaching grade two pupils. Mnkandla (2000) noted that at former white only schools, teachers used English as a platform for instruction from Grade one. This was so because the students preferred it.

In another study Shumba and Manyati (2000) studied language and unrestrained behaviour in Environmental Science lessons in Zimbabwean primary school. The study revealed that when teachers used English only to teach Environmental Science concepts, "pupils' involvement remained limited due to lack of proficiency in English" (Shumba & Manyati, 2000, p.43). The study however noted that, when teachers switched to indigenous African languages and allowed students to communicate in their mother tongue, "pupils gave longer answers and communicated more productively; code-switching by both teachers and pupils improved frequency of contributions and level of understanding among pupils" (Shumba and Manyati 2000, p.43).

The study thus recommended that process of instruction in Environmental science (ES) should take a more bilingual character by adopting code-switching policies. The study went on to indicate that code-switching in ES could result in pupils' better appreciation of environmental issues and understanding of scientific ideas. Shumba and Manyati (2000, p.43) further revealed that, "Code-switching could also bridge the gap between children's everyday experiences and environmental science concepts."

A recent study by Mhindu (2016) on experience by teachers in using Shangani as a teaching language at three Zimbabwean primary schools in Chiredzi District showed different experiences by teachers depending on their L1. The study premised on the Constitution of Zimbabwe, (2013) that encouraged the use of all the fifteen local languages in Zimbabwe as mediums of instruction from Grade one to three. Shangani

is one of the fifteen indigenous languages. The study established that those teachers who were non-Shangani speakers lacked competency in Shangani. This resulted in them making errors when teaching in Shangani, further resulting in pupils laughing at them hence teachers felt humiliated. The study revealed that being proficient in Shangani enabled Shangani speaking teachers to implement the policy well since they communicated well with their learners using the language. The study further revealed that teachers whose mother tongue was not Shangani were no longer comfortable in using Shangani to teach due to the negative comments that came from the pupils.

Due to the fact that teaching resources like text books for different subjects are still in English, teachers translate English content to Shangani and vice versa, because examination are English based. The study further revealed that using Shangani as medium of instruction is implemented at a lower level in the sampled three schools. Mhindu (2016, p. vii) commenting on the situation on the ground about using Shangani as teaching language from Grade one to three says, "it is still verbal due to a several challenges." The study thus concluded that, absence of political will to support local language policies largely contribute to collapse of the policies. An additional conclusion was that if the language policy is not crafted well, it is likely to be chaotically and haphazardly implemented.

The aforementioned studies show that there is no proper application of the mother language education policy from Grade one to three as outlined in the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 and the Constitution of Zimbabwe, (2013) chapter 1 section 6. Both provisions give priority to the use of home language in early stages of learning.

If such a scenario as spelt out in the Zimbabwe 1987 Education Act and the Constitution of Zimbabwe, (2013) chapter 1 section 6 was implemented it would go a long way in helping students to grasp concepts taught. It is clear that the studies by Mnkandla (2000), Shumba and Manyati (2000) and Mhindu, (2016) were conducted in primary school classrooms, and as such very few Zimbabwean studies have explored lecturers' experiences on the implementation of the medium of instruction policy in higher education. It is, therefore, reasonable to apply some of their research findings on teachers' experiences on the application of local language policies in primary grades

to higher education. Having discussed teachers' experiences on using the medium of teaching policy, in Zimbabwean elementary schools, it is pertinent to look at what transpires in higher education.

Among a few studies on EMI in higher education in Zimbabwe are Nziramasanga (1999) and Gora (2013). The study by Nziramasanga (1999) focused mainly on the challenges of the implementation of EMI in Zimbabwe. Through workshops and discussions with lecturers, the study revealed that EMI resulted in poor grades in examinations. It further noted confusion and half-hearted use of EMI by lecturers in Zimbabwe. The study reported that the continued use of English medium of instruction disillusioned a lot of Zimbabweans because this policy resulted in poor marks in examinations. The other disillusionment was the fact that English medium of instruction posed challenges that some lecturers who were the implementers of the policy might not be proficient in English. In the same manner, the students who were receivers in the implementation of EMI also had problems in understanding concepts presented in English (Nziramasanga 1999). The study recommended that Shona and Ndebele (the so called major languages then) be used alongside EMI in tertiary education to ease lecturers' challenges on using English as a medium of instruction, and also help students to understand concepts.

A later study by Gora (2013) looked at EMI in higher education in Zimbabwe. Gora (2013) like Nziramasanga (1999), focused mainly on the challenges posed by the EMI in Zimbabwe. Through literature review, Gora (2013 p. 127-28) noted that, "It is quite shocking to note that some students at colleges and universities who have been exposed to English for long periods were unable to communicate proficiently in English." English in Zimbabwe according to the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 is introduced from Grade four that is, four years of primary education and six years of the secondary education to make a total of ten years.

Despite this long period of the use of English, students still had problems in grasping concepts presented in English and had communication problems. The study thus recommended the use of the mother tongue as medium of instruction to be extended to tertiary level. This is in line with the 1951 UNESCO Meeting of Experts held in Paris, which recommended that, the application of the mother language as medium of

teaching be used more in later stages in education (UNESCO, 1951, p.13). Thus, the study recommended using their native language in Humanities and practical subjects in higher education. This according to Gora (2013) would develop the learners' control of language as well as critical thinking.

The two studies by Nziramasanga (1999) and Gora (2013) suggested the use of the dual language approach (code-switching) in teaching in higher education in Zimbabwe to facilitate learning. The two studies however, relied on workshops and discussions with lecturers and literature review respectively hence did not use empirical evidence, the gap this research endeavours to fill. Furthermore, this research wishes to add on to the few studies on lecturers' experiences on the implementation of the English medium of instruction policy in higher education in Zimbabwe. The next section discusses lecturers' experiences on the implementation of the EMI in tertiary education continentally.

## 2.8 Lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction in higher education continentally

This section focuses on the implementation of English medium of instruction in higher education within the African context. Several studies were reviewed on the experiences of lecturers in the implementation of EMI to assist students in understanding concepts presented in a second or foreign language (English) within the African context. Paxton (2009) studied EMI in the economics at the University of Cape Town (UCT) in South Africa and noted that it was easy for students to learn in their home language than in English. This was because in EMI students needed to learn the language first before they learnt the concept. The study noted how students' insufficient mastery of the medium of instruction (English) was negatively affected by the implementation of EMI at the university.

This study also discussed how code-switching was an extremely valuable communicative resource which enabled teachers to accomplish both social and educational objectives. Paxton quoted Adendoff (1996) who, from his teaching experience notes that "the mother tongue is the solidarity code, the link language mediating between students' knowledge of the world (which is presented to them at

home in the mother tongue) and the preferred mode of representing that knowledge at school in English” (Adendoff, 1996, p.402). In the same vein, Setati et al. (2002) giving their experience in Mathematics classrooms in South Africa in an EMI context, concluded that code-switching was important for enabling learners to explore ideas and concepts in a familiar environment.

According to Swain and Cummins (1979), studies have shown that, knowledge of a second language can be an advantage in the acquisition of concepts as it helps learners to view different representatives of the same ideas. These studies, however, were carried out in primary and secondary school classrooms. Interesting to note is that Paxton (2009) extended the study at the University of Cape Town and from his experience in teaching in the Economics Department commended that, unless students were given a chance to explore concepts through various languages, they would not really develop their own personal construction and enrich understanding. The study thus concluded that in the implementation of EMI, combining the target language and students’ home language yields better results than using English only in a multilingual university.

Paxton’s (2009) study revealed that learning of economic concepts is restricted by the use of the second language only. The study also revealed that students did not understand new concepts in economics and thus their learning needed to be scaffolded to broaden understanding. The study thus concluded that, “If we are to give our second-language, students’ access to the new concepts, they need to be offered opportunities to explore ideas and concepts in both English and their primary languages” (Paxton, 2009, p.12).

In the same vein, Abongdia (2015) studied the impact of monolingual medium of instruction (English) in a multilingual university of South Africa, particularly the University of Western Cape (UWC). The study revealed that the use of English only as a medium of instruction in a multilingual institution affected students’ academic performance negatively to those students whose home language was not English. An extract from one lecturer’s experience also shows the benefit of using mother tongue medium of teaching. The lecturer says, “English speakers are being taught in their language and thus have a significant advantage over others. But most students who

enrol at UWC do not speak English as their first language” (Abongdia, 2015, p.480). The extract is clear evidence that the use of a foreign language as medium of instruction affects students’ academic performance, and as a result, lecturers resort to code-switching and translanguaging to ensure students understand concepts.

Another study by Kagwesage (2013) on coping with English as a language of instruction in higher education in Rwanda was reviewed. The medium of instruction at the University of Rwanda was English. The study revealed that, the use of other languages in a lecture helped to mediate cognitively demanding academic tasks. It further revealed that responsible code-switching and trans-languaging can play a mediating role in content learning.

Furthermore, another study from a South African University by Nkosi (2014) on postgraduate students’ experiences and attitudes towards IsiZulu as medium of instruction, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) which is an English medium university, reported the advantage of using the mother tongue (IsiZulu) in higher education. WaThiongo (1986) noted that, “While African languages do not receive the same respect as English, international studies reveal that starting by teaching children in their mother tongue not only allows them to become bilingual later but also results in higher academic achievement (WaThiongo (1986) in Nkosi 2014, p.248).

Nkosi (2014) gave an example of six students who were taught in their mother tongue (IsiZulu) at Bachelor of Education Honours level in 2012. The study showed that three of them were registered for Masters Degree in 2013 and all completed their studies in 2014. According to Nkosi (2014) the use of mother tongue enabled students to finish their studies on the stipulated time. The study also revealed that the first student to do Master’s Degree in Education in the mother tongue at UKZN enrolled for a PhD which she finished within the minimum three year period at the same University in 2010. This according to Nkosi (2014) reflected that learning in the mother tongue had advantages for students. It also made life easy for lecturers who presented content in the mother tongue. Therefore the mother-tongue instruction yielded very good results.

In a more recent study, Zondi (2015) reported on the relationship between EMI and student performance at the University of Zululand in South Africa (UNIZULU) (2012-

2014). The study demonstrated that when students were taught entirely in English, 40% of the students failed. When Zondi (2015) later used the same manual while teaching in two languages English and IsiZulu, the home language of most of the students, results were found to be better than in 2012 when English only was used. In 2014 Zondi changed the English edition of her teaching manual from English into IsiZulu. Both versions (IsiZulu and English) were used in teaching. The results were even much better. The study revealed that after the teaching handbook was translated into IsiZulu, nineteen distinctions were realised compared to five in the previous year when IsiZulu and English were integrated and none when English was solely used. The study therefore concluded that translation and dual language teaching (code-switching) had positive impact on students' performance.

The experiences from the African context revealed that students with deplorable background of English had trouble in grasping concepts taught in English only, hence lecturers from their experiences in the classroom noted that the use of code-switching, trans-languaging and mother tongue were very useful in enhancing participation in class as well as understanding difficult concepts. The next sub-heading discusses lecturers' experience in implementing EMI internationally.

## 2.9 Lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction in tertiary education internationally

Kling (2001) reporting on how ten lecturers of Applied Natural Sciences at the University of Copenhagen (in Denmark) perceived themselves and their implementation of EMI, notes that lecturers in her study were concerned more on content delivery than the language challenges. One lecturer commenting from her experience says: "If something goes wrong in a lecture presentation, one has to ignore the mistake and brush it off with some humour and continue teaching" (Kling 2001, p.211). Other lecturers also indicated that it was important to ignore language errors but to make sure that the content was sufficiently presented.

A study by Vu and Burns (2014) on the implementation of EMI focussed at a Vietnamese Tertiary institution. This study also reflected that when lecturers alleged

difficulties in instructional interface, they resorted to code-switching, where they reverted to Vietnamese. One lecturer was quoted saying:

There was a time during the lecture when I had to bring in new expressions or response to the questions of the students. There are things I felt I was unable to explain meticulously or articulate opinions effortlessly, hence hard for learners to comprehend. It is at that time I considered it necessary to change into Vietnamese (Vu and Burns, 2014, p.17-18).

Another lecturer agreed that using Vietnamese on the EMI programme was beneficial in that it helped the students to understand things quickly. The lecturer went on to state that if students understood the content, they would be motivated, hence the success of EMI. Barnard and McLellan (2013) note that code-switching could offer efficient pedagogical and educational usage, when teachers shared the first language with their learners.

In another study, Chang (2010) studied lecturers' experiences at a university in Taiwan and says, 'Taiwanese professors at this university often switched from English to Mandarin during class for several reasons: when students looked confused, when students asked for explanation in Mandarin and when the concept introduced was difficult' (Chang, 2010p.67). Some lecturers repeated the content in Mandarin when they noted students' difficulties in grasping the content. The switch act of moving from the native to the target language (English) reflected that the Taiwanese professors were aware of students' potential difficulties in the implementation of EMI. This considerate attitude as noted by Chang (2010) might help reduce students' level of anxiety hence increasing the degree of their satisfaction with EMI courses.

In the same way, Flowerdew, Miller and Li (2000) studied lecturers' experiences in lecturing to non-English speaking students in the implementation of EMI at City University (City U) in Hong Kong. Both lecturers and students at the university were Chinese and had a common L1 (Cantonese). Through interviews, all the lecturers were aware of the college policy on English as medium of instruction. Lecturers were also aware that the policy was flexible to some extent in that it allowed some Chinese to be



used in lectures. Most lecturers liked the policy for its flexibility. One lecturer on answering the question, "Do you know the policy?" He said that he knew that it was English and he had no problem in using it. But he felt that it was good for him to use some Cantonese sentence to make the students comfortable in learning.

Another lecturer replied that, the use of some Cantonese in teaching would enable students to comprehend facts easily.

Flowerdew et al., (2000, p.117) revealed that, lecturers who spoke Cantonese taught in English because they knew that English is highly regarded worldwide. It will also raise the international status of Hong Kong. However when they could not teach effectively in English they resorted to Cantonese their mother tongue. This is in line with Loucks-Havseley and Matsumoto (1999) who note that, in terms of implementing EMI, teachers can generate own style and methods in order to convey lessons to the students. Most of the lecturers commented that students' pitiable level of English was one of the main problems which increased their difficulty in lecturing.

Flowerdew et al., (2000) note that, there was evidence that lecturers used the mother tongue because they also struggled to use English which was their L2. But all the lecturers in the study did not admit that they used the mother tongue to help them explain the content clearly and also to save time, but all the lecturers reported that they used mother tongue to help students grasp the content of that subject.

The study revealed that lecturers used Cantonese (code- switching) in order to help students who had limited proficiency in English. Although the degree of code-switching varied, all the lecturers interviewed showed that they used the indigenous language in teaching. In agreement to the use of the mother tongue, Tang (2002) showed that limited use of the indigenous language in English medium classes does not lessen students' exposure to English, but can help in the educational process.

The issue of using the mother tongue in second or foreign language classrooms has been controversial. On one hand the opponents argued that teachers using the mother tongue in the language classroom reduce learners' access to the target language input and thereby limit students' learning opportunities (Swain and Lapkin, 2000). On the other hand, proponents of the mother tongue use contended that wise use of code-

switching by teachers could have a pedagogical advantage particularly when it is not easy or time taking for students to practise and understand the target language (Cook, 2000). Similarly, in content-based classrooms, code-switching has been adopted as a pedagogical skill in the implementation of EMI (Ariffin and Husin (2011), Flowerdew et al., (1998), Flowerdew et al., (2000), Taha (2008), Wilkinson (2005).

Content teachers' experiences in implementing EMI have shown that lecturers have been bound to switch over to students' mother tongue to complement their weaknesses in English, manage student-teacher relationship and supplement English- medium teaching for example through repetitions, translations, elaborations and explanations of material offered in English. For example Flowerdew et al., (1998) observe that Cantonese L1 lecturers used Cantonese when they wanted to encourage students to ask questions and cite local examples. Wilkinson (2005) also notes that content teaching in English medium could be effective if code-switching was allowed. Thus according to Yeh (2012) code-switching may be seen as violating the official-all- English policy but content teachers generally believed that code-switching was helpful in the implementation of EMI.

The literature review has revealed that most of the researches on lecturers' experiences in EMI in higher education have been conducted in other continental countries like Rwanda and South Africa and internationally particularly Asia and Europe. Little research on EMI in higher education has been conducted in Zimbabwe. As of now, it is not clear the extent to which the continental and international-based findings, concerning lecturers' experiences in the implementation of EMI in tertiary education, can be extended to the Zimbabwean context.

Given the socio-cultural, linguistic, economic and educational differences between Zimbabwe, and other countries, it is, therefore, imperative to carry out such a research in order to establish what obtains in the Zimbabwean context. More so , most of the studies reviewed were conducted in universities and this study will be conducted at a teachers' college in Zimbabwe, hence the need to find out lecturers' experiences with regards to EMI at a teachers 'college in Zimbabwe.

## 2.10 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed literature on the implementation of EMI in tertiary education. The literature focused on the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI. The studies reviewed revealed that most lecturers in the implementation of EMI were aware of the problems students had in understanding concepts presented in a second or foreign language. Thus in a bid to assist their students in grasping concepts, lecturers resorted to the use of both English and the mother tongue to explain difficult concept, manage student-lecturer relationship at the same time to complement their weaknesses in teaching in English. Translation and translanguaging were also viewed as collaborative language tools that enhanced lecturers' implementation of EMI. These collaborative tools were found to be in line with the translanguaging theoretical framework that guides this study. The next chapter deals with research methodology.

# CHAPTER THREE

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Introduction

The methodology used in this study is going to be discussed in this chapter. The chapter begins by outlining and justifying the research approach, then moves on to the research paradigm, describes and justify the research design, sample and sampling procedures. The chapter also discusses the data generation and analysis methods. Furthermore, this chapter discusses cases of validity, reliability and trustworthiness and ethical considerations then gives the summary of the chapter. This study will begin by looking at what the research approach is.

### 3.2 Research Approach

#### 3.2.1 Qualitative research

Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p.3), described Qualitative research as;

a research that seeks to understand things in their usual setting, attempting to make sense or interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them.

Creswell (2009) believes that researchers in qualitative research lean on collecting data in the field at the spot where participants practice the case or problem being studied. Nyaruwata (2013) notes that, the purpose of qualitative enquiry is to understand human behaviour and their experience better from the participants' perspective. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) also state that, human beings are capable of creating their own understanding of situations. This is in line with Nyaruwata (2013) who observes that social research needs to examine situations through the eyes of the participants in order to grasp their point of view of the world and in relation to life. According to Nyaruwata (2013) these views include feelings, ideas, thoughts and actions.

From the definitions above qualitative research is:

- Is a real life inquiry

- Employs non-interventionist data generation strategies to find out normal course of events (for example non-participant observation, semi-structural interview and focus group discussions.)
- Describes and analyses individual and collective social behaviour, beliefs, feelings and perceptions (as heard or observed).
- Has data gathered by interacting with people.

(Adapted from Nyaruwata 2013, p.107-108).

In contrast to the quantitative researchers, qualitative researchers do not bring participants in the laboratory. They do not send out instruments to participants for them to complete. Instead, qualitative researchers go to the actual site, talk straight to the people concerned, and observe them as they operate within their natural setting (context) (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative researchers engage in face-to-face interactions with participants over a certain period of time usually a long period (Creswell, 2009). In such studies researchers are the key instruments for data generation. This is done through observing actions and interviewing participants. The researchers collect their data and they do not rely on instruments developed by other researchers, they instead develop their own instruments.

According to Punch (2013), it is understood that the geo-social environment is created by humans' shared cultural understanding of situations. Hence the conviction those participants continually build their social world by negotiating with other meanings of their behaviour. The qualitative approach was selected for this study for its realistic approach that seeks to understand phenomenon in their natural setting that is experiences of lecturers in their implementation of English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe. As a researcher, I did not have control over the lecturers' activities at the teachers college but to just listen to them narrating their own stories about their activities at this particular teachers' college. According to Magwa and Magwa (2015) qualitative research is frequently called naturalistic because the researcher stays at the site where the event he or she is interested in naturally occurs. I thus stayed for about three months at the teachers' college observing, talking to lecturers, day after day as they carried out their normal duties. This lengthy stay enabled me to collect thick data. In line with Creswell

(2009), I developed the research instruments that are, the observation and interview schedules, as well as focus group questions and generated the data on my own without the assistance of any other person. (The name of the teachers' college shall be called Oakford in this study in line with ethical considerations).

Tuli (2010) posits that in the qualitative research process, the researcher does not bring with him/herself pre-conceived ideas of the situation, but focuses on the meaning that the participants hold about the issue at hand. In qualitative research, the design emerges in the process of the research (Creswell, 2009). This means that the plan of research may not be strongly prescribed, but all stages of the process may change or shift after the researcher gets into the field as the data generation process begins. Questions may change, individuals studied and the places visited may be modified. The main emphasis of qualitative research therefore, is to discover the case from participants and to address the research to get that information. Thus this research attempts to interpret reality from the participants' point of view since reality is socially constructed. I wanted to gather lecturers' perspectives, which would illuminate on the inner dynamics of the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI, how they are affected by their experiences of using English medium of instruction and the reasons why it happens.

Miles and Huberman (1994) in Punch and Oancea (2014, p.147) give a summary of the basics in qualitative research as follows:

- Qualitative research is carried out through an intense and prolonged contact with a 'field' or life situation. The situations are classically bound or are normal ones, contemplative of the everyday existence of individuals, groups, societies and organisations. The researcher's role is to gain a holistic overview of the context under study, its logic, its arrangements, and its open and implicit rules.
- The researcher tries to capture data on the perceptions of local actors from the inside, through a process of deep consideration, of empathetic perception and of suspending or bracketing preconceptions about the topics under discussion.

- Reading through the materials, the researcher may detach certain themes and expressions that can be reviewed with participants but should be maintained in their original forms during the study.
- Main job is to exemplify the conduct in particular setting, come to understand, account for, take action, and manage their day-to-day situations.

I selected the qualitative approach for this study because it had the usual setting as the straight source of data hence it was not based on preconceived ideas but on perspectives that come out from the data gathered. This study therefore, investigated lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction, find out how lecturers' experiences of using EMI affect them and explored why lecturers experienced the implementation of English medium of instruction in the way it happened.

### 3.3 Justification for a qualitative research approach for the study

As is the case with qualitative research, this research intended to get an in-depth, holistic perspective of the implementation of EMI at a teachers' college in Zimbabwe by interacting closely with lecturers at the teachers' college. In this regard, the research sought an understanding of the human behaviour and experiences in real situations which in turn helped to develop grounded theories from the experiences of the lecturers. I interacted with the lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College on a daily basis in order to understand their behaviour with regards to their experiences on implementing the EMI policy, how their experiences of using EMI affected them and why they experienced the implementation of the policy the way it happens from their point of view.

Through the use of qualitative research, I prolonged my stay at the site about three months talking directly to the lecturers, observing them as they carried on with their normal duties. I did not interrupt the day-to-day activities at the college hence a holistic overview of the implementation of English medium of instruction emerged. I was able to understand the logic arrangements, explicit and implicit rules at the site through observations. Through face-to-face interactions, I was able to generate data

from the insiders' perspective without bringing in some pre-conceived ideas about the situation.

Furthermore, I was not restricted to specific questions. The interview guide only helped me to get started and the discussions helped me to yield relevant information regarding lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI at Oakford Teachers' College. Through qualitative research, I was able to generate data in a more informed and relaxed manner, which encouraged participants to give detailed information about their experiences in implementing the EMI. The next sub-heading tackles the interpretive paradigm.

### 3.3.1 The Interpretive Paradigm

This study was located under the interpretive paradigm since it sought to comprehend the subjective environment experience by humans. Cohen et al. (2011) state that interpretive paradigm was introduced as a review of positivism in social sciences. Positivists on the one hand believe that pragmatic facts exist separately from personal ideas or views, they are concerned with the laws of root and effect, and characteristics of social truth are stable and awareness of them gives an additional value (Neuman, 2003). Positivists maintain that, reliable knowledge is based on direct observation or manipulation of natural phenomena through empirical, often experimental means (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Thomas, 2013).

On the other hand, in an interpretive constructivist paradigm, the theoretical framework for most qualitative research sees the world as socially constructed by people in their interactions with one another and with the wider social systems (Creswell, 2009; Holmes, 2011). The purpose of inquiry according to the interpretive paradigm to a population is not to generalise but to comprehend a distinct phenomenon attributed to it (Farzanfar, 2005; Holmes, 2011).

Interpretivism's main idea is that it is mainly concerned about people and the manner in which they interrelate, their thoughts and their logic about the world (Thomas, 2013). In other words Interpretivists have to analyse what people are doing by involving themselves and their understanding of the humanity as people. They have to submerge themselves in the context of investigating more into what



they are concerned about, for instance chatting with people much, hearing actual words from their mouths. According to Thomas (2013), the key issue is to understand people from their own point of view of the situation. I sought to comprehend lecturers' experiences in the implementation of EMI while they are at their participating site (Oakford Teachers' College) and not to generalise the findings of this study to other teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe.

The interpretive researchers seek to better understand the humankind through personal experience, honest reporting and use of real quotations of actual discussion from insiders' point of view (Merriam, 1998) than examining the laws of man's behaviour (Bryman, 2014). To retain integrity of the phenomenon being investigated, efforts are made to get inside the person and to understand from within (Cohen et al., 2011). Interpretive researchers according to Cohen et al., (2010), start with individuals and come to understand their explanation of the environment around them. In this regard, researchers do not enter the site with theories about the phenomenon but theories emerge as data is generated. Thus, investigators work directly with experience and understanding to build their theory on them. The data thus will include meaning and purposes of the people who generate it.

The assumption is that, people have feelings and understandings about the world in which they live, and these affect the ways that they perceive and interpret the world, hence should be allowed to be writers of their own history (Thomas 2013). Interpretivists encourage participants to talk freely in order for them to generate thick description of data from the participants' own point of view. According to Nyaruwata (2013, p.106) characteristics of Interpretivists/ethnographic research are:

- The researcher as a whole person takes part as the main tool of research.
- The research is based on the method of sharing the foundation of one's prejudice in building understandable theoretical, procedural and individual choices and biases.
- Interpretivist research is based completeness and puts across a well-rounded analysis from within.

- Interpretivism is meant to learn about cultures, institutions and societies as wholes.
- Field-based ethnographic techniques have been developed to obtain humanistic data about what some place is like from an insider's point of view.
- As Anthropological research, Interpretivism uses the natural history approach, i.e. the phenomenon of the interactions, activities and reports from individuals, which are then categorised according to likeliness. The researcher then arrives at correct generalisations from observational data.
- The approach was continual cross-cultural frame of reference by interpreting each new way encountered in view of what is known in relation to all earlier studied ways.

### **3.3.2 Justification for interpretive paradigm for this study**

The interpretive paradigm was appropriate for this research as I investigated experiences of lecturers on the implementation of EMI and how these experiences affected them in implementing the policy at Oakford Teachers' College in Zimbabwe in their day to day classroom activities and find out the reasons why it happened. This was so because the interpretive paradigm is concerned with getting the truth according to the participants' point of view. Through the use of interviews and lesson observations I gave the participants a chance to be authors of their own past rather than stuff of research. In other words qualitative research methodology makes the participants to derive their own meanings of realities and manage to understand their own production of knowledge practically. I gave the participants chance to freely articulate their views, they would have no likelihood to do with somebody outside of their college. As a result of the stay at Oakford Teachers' College I was able to generate thick data. In this research therefore, I employed the case study design which works well with the interpretive paradigm. The next sub- heading discusses the design of the study (case study).

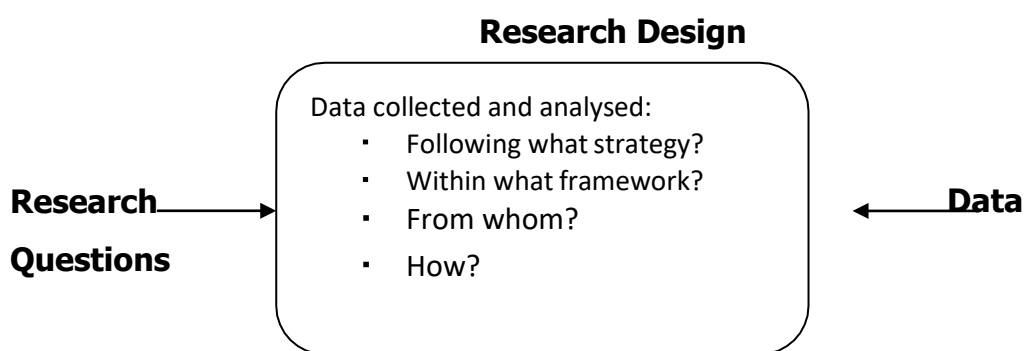
### **3.4 A case study research design**

A research design according to Thomas (2011) is the plan for the research. In a sense according to Holmes (2011) a research design refers to a plan for selecting participants, site and data generation procedures to answer research questions.

Borg, Gall and Gall (1989) concur that a research design is the action the researcher employs to explore a relationship between attributes to make subjects into categories, administer the way, apply treatment, condition and examine data. In the same vein, Blaikie (2009) agrees that a research design refers to all issues concerned about planning and carrying out a research task, from establishing the problem, the presenting and publishing of the outcomes. Its function, according to Magwa and Magwa (2015) is to provide for the generation of appropriate data. In the aforementioned definitions one can end up saying that a research design connects the research question to data which includes four main ideas.

These ideas are approaches, conceptual framework, which, are the subject to be studied and which sources to be used for data collection and analysis (Punch 2013). The research design thus deals with four main questions which correspond to the four ideas. The questions are linked to data collection and analysis. According to Punch (2013), these questions are with what strategy, following what framework, from who and how?

The term strategy in this case refers to the logic or rationale which the study intends to use in order to answer its research questions. Below is a diagram which tries to explain the connection between research questions, research design and research data:



*Fig. 3.2: Research design connects research questions to data. Adopted from Punch (2013, p.114). Introduction to Research Methods in Education.*

Research design therefore can be viewed as a set of plans and procedures dived out to get information and achieve results for a purpose. For this study the case study design has been selected and it is the best strategy in qualitative approach.

According to Best and Kahn (2006) a case study is a way of organising social data for the purpose of viewing social reality. In other words, a case study takes interest on single actors and probes to comprehend their ability to see events. Hence I observed events in real contexts.

This suggests that a case study seeks to extract meaning from actual life context where I as the researcher have little control over events. Case study emphasises on one case or an insignificant number of cases to be studied in detail, by means of different methods and data while there might be different purposes and research questions. That is, it selects a small geographical area or a limited number of individuals to become participants in the study (Magwa et al., 2015). The case can be a sole individual, a group, for example a family, or an establishment such as a teachers' college. The broad objective is to build up a full comprehension of the issues as far as possible. The main purpose of a case study is in comprehending the case in full in its normal situation and in its context (Punch and Oancea, 2014). It is complete in nature, in that it aims to maintain and comprehend the wholeness and unity of the case. Thomas (2014, p.150) posits that,

There is no intimation in the case study that you will be generalising from this case to others. In other words, you are not learning this case in order to appreciate others. You are studying it in order to have knowledge on it in itself.

Tshuma and Mafa (2013, p.117) outlines the features of the research design (case study) as:

- As qualitative study in which the investigator searches a particular unit or case in its real life environment, restricted by time and action;
- Gathers detailed information by use of various data collection methods during a specific time frame;
- The plan is based on a real life approach where the investigator develops a complex full picture, analyse documents, comprehensive views of participants and conducts the research in its real environment (Creswell, 2007).

- deals with closely related events and is worried about how and why things take place;
- makes efforts to bring about sensational feelings of 'being there' in its natural environment to the reader;
- a part of human activity buried in the actual life experiences which can be learnt or understood in that setting. This therefore means that the unit can be one individual, a group for instance a school or a community can have a set of values, opinion and beliefs discoverable through thorough interactive research of that individual unit;
- it is largely qualitative in character, is one unit for example a classroom, a programme, a study area, or an institution; and
- is restricted to a specific time frame, uses various data generation methods, requires the researcher to be physically present and tries to give recent phenomena.

Having described what a case study is, there is a need to look closely at what a case is. A case can be an observable fact of some sort happening in an enclosed context. A case can be a person, a small group or organisation or an institution (Magwa et al., 2015). Punch (2013) argued that there are diverse types of case studies. Stake (1994) singles out three main types of case studies which are intrinsic case study, where the study is carried out because the researcher wants a better understanding of a particular case. The instrumental case study where a particular case is examined to give insight into an issue and the collective case study, where the instrumental case study is extended to cover several cases, to learn more about the phenomenon and population in general condition.

In this study I adopted the intrinsic case study because, I as the researcher wanted to better understand what really transpired in a particular teachers' college (case) with regards to the EMI. One particular teachers' college was studied. The aim of studying one educational institution was to ensure the use of a small sample of participants. A small sample permitted an in-depth description of lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI in a real context, the teachers' college in their day to day activities. Only six lecturers were selected from three subjects' areas

namely, Physical Education, Mathematics, and Theory of Education. Thus by studying only one teachers' college, the study was able to understand the case in detail and in its natural setting. I therefore gathered data from lecturers in their natural setting in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe, in order to respond to the three research questions:

1. What are lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?
2. How are lecturers affected by their experiences of using English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?
3. Why do lecturers experience the implementation of the EMI in the way it happens in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

The case study design was important in this research given that I had no grip over the lecturers' ways of conducting lectures in an EMI context in a particular teachers' college in Zimbabwe. In line with Robson (2002), I thus looked at the lecturers in their real life context and collected various types of data. The hope was that, through the study of a distinctive teachers' college (case) valuable insights would be gained about the lecturers' experiences in implementing the EMI at Oakford teachers' college.

One advantage of the case study according to Cohen et al. (2010, p.256) is that, "They can be undertaken by a single researcher without needing a research team." This then meant that I was able to develop the data generation instruments on my own and generated and interpreted data without the help of other researchers. The other benefit of a case study is its capacity to search deeply, analyse intensively and get an in-depth and detailed comprehension of the observable fact under review (Creswell 2007). In this regard I was able to probe deeply in the implementation of the EMI and hence got an in-depth and detailed understanding of what transpired at Oakford Teachers' College in regard to lecturers' experiences on the implementation of the EMI.

Since a case study has an inherent weakness of sample limitation, I therefore, did not seek to generalise the findings, since a case is studied in its own right, not for generalisation. The main intend of this study was to comprehend lecturers' experiences in the implementation of EMI at Oakford Teachers' College in its context and results will not be generalised. In the next sub-heading, the study explores sample and sampling technique.

### 3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique

This section looks at the sample and sampling technique. It begins by examining what a sample is.

#### 3.5.1 Sample

A sample according to Magwa et al., (2015) is a proportion of the population. Chiromo (2006) concurs that it is a small group of people or objects selected for participation in a study. Using the whole population for a study may be costly in terms of time and money hence a sample reduces investment in time and money (Shuttleworth, 2009). Shuttleworth (2009) and Saunders et al., (2000) concur that sampling ensures accuracy. This is so because it gives the researcher the opportunity to generate detailed data from fewer cases than from a population. For this research, I selected only six lecturers from a population eighty eight lecturers and three subject areas out of a total of thirteen subjects. Thus, due to limited time I was able to generate detailed data from a few individuals within three months.

#### 3.5.2 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling was used in this study to select lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College in Zimbabwe. Purposeful sampling is, a small group that is chosen because of the information that the group of people has that suits the purpose of the research. People used are chosen because of some certain characteristics, because of specific information they hold about the study (Maree, 2007).

Best and Kahn (2006) note that cases for study are chosen because they are information loaded and illuminative, that is, they give useful manifestations of the observable fact of concern, in order to gain insight about the observable fact, not generalisation from sample to population. Thus participants were handpicked, those

who were deemed to provide required information. Since it is not the preoccupation of purposive sampling to generalise data, the study acquired in-depth information from participants who were willing to provide it (Cohen et al., 2011).

One teachers' college in a capital city of Zimbabwe was selected because I anticipated that the teachers' college was well informed with regards to the EMI policy since it is close to the head office of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education which disseminates information to tertiary education institutions. Furthermore, the teachers' college under study is in the capital city. I was of the opinion that the teachers' college is well equipped in terms of resources concerning the EMI. Purposive sampling handpicks the individuals to be incorporated in the study on the basis of their ownership of the characteristics sought (Cohen et al., 2010). In line with purposive sampling, I handpicked six lecturers from three subject areas that is, two lecturers per subject. The subjects were selected among, Humanities, Practicals and Theory and Practice disciplines respectively (selection across disciplines), in order to find out lecturers' experiences in the implementation of the EMI in a teacher's college in Zimbabwe. Senior lecturers were selected for the study. The concept of senior lecturer was based on the lecturer's length of stay at the college. The assumption of such a selection was that due to their experience, they might be more knowledgeable and informative about the ways of teaching in an EMI context.

I approached the principal of Oakford Teachers' College and requested the profile of all lecturers that indicated the subjects they teach and their period of stay at the teachers' college. I then hand-picked six lecturers, who had taught at the teachers' college for ten years and above, directions to where each of the lecturers could be found were given to me by the principal. I then approached each of the six lecturers and requested to meet all of them in the college boardroom at tea break. I first introduced myself to them, explained the rationale of my visit and asked them to participate in my study, showed them the consent letter and each signed the consent form. No problems were encountered in the negotiations. The participants and I agreed on the dates and time for lesson observations and one on one



interview sessions as well as the focus group discussion session. The next sub-section looks at data collection methods.

### 3.6 Data Generation Methods

Qualitative researchers according to Yin (2013) go to a particular location of interest because they are worried about context; they believe that activities can be best understood in the actual settings in which they occur. Therefore, in line with the above statement, I stayed at Oakford Teachers' College for three months, used observation, focus group interviews and semi-structured interviews also referred to as focus discussion techniques of generating data. These data generation tools are closely linked to qualitative researchers. I observed the six lecturers twice each teaching his or her subject first then interviewed them one by one and later held focus group interviews with all the six lecturers. The techniques are discussed in detail below starting with the observation technique.

#### 3.6.1 Observation

This is a research instrument which is pre-planned and is carried out with determination to answer specific research questions. The researcher sees the "classroom interactions and proceedings as they actually occur" (Burns, 1999, p.80). Flick (2006, p.219) concurs that "Observation is an effort to observe events as they logically occur." Observation according to Holmes (2011) involves looking and listening. Thus observation is looking at and listening to events as they occur naturally. Observation has two categories, namely, participant observation and non-participant observation. In participant observation, the observers take part by interacting with the participants directly. The researcher participates in the classroom activities. In the non-participant observation the researcher merely watches the activities as they take place without taking part.

In this study, I used the non-participant observation where I only watched and recorded classroom activities without taking part in the activities. According to Burns (1999), the aim of the researcher is to have little conduct with the subjects of the research. In the classroom the researcher pays more concentration to fine points in order to document them objectively with no personal bias. Since this research was mainly concerned with lecturers' experiences on the implementation of the EMI at

Oakford Teachers' College in Zimbabwe, I observed the lecturers at the college teaching in their different subject areas.

I thus observed lecturers' experiences in teaching on a daily basis to facilitate the implementation of EMI. In line with Fraenkel and Wallen (2000), I observed the work of the group without in any way becoming a participant in their activities. I used an observation schedule to guide me in the generation of data and all the information generated was recorded on the observation schedule for each individual. The lessons were also voice recorded. In two and half months, two lesson observations per lecturer were conducted with all the six lecturers to make a total of twelve lesson observations. The other time was then left for individual interviews and the focus group discussions so that in three months all data was generated.

The advantage of a non-participant observer is perhaps least likely to influence the actions of the group under studied (Fraenkel et al., 2000). This enabled the activities to occur in their natural setting. I voice recorded all the lessons I observed. This was done in order to capture all the key issues for the purpose of analysis. Observations were important because I was able to find out whether participants' actions on the ground matched their verbal claims, thus observations provided an alternative source of data which was useful for authenticating the information obtained throughout interviews. Observations in this way were useful for triangulating results from other source of data. Lesson observations were very valuable in that they enabled me to better understand the perspective of the issue at hand, which was essential to gaining a holistic perspective on the implementation of EMI. The other advantage of the observation method was that first-hand information was generated rather than relying on second hand descriptions and conceptualisations. Through observations, I was able to obtain insights into factors concerning the lecturers' experiences in implementing EMI which participants might have been unwilling to talk about or reveal information during interviews. All in all, first-hand experience with the framework of the study gave me personal understanding and experience to enhance my understanding and interpretation of the implementation of the EMI at Oakford Teachers' College in Zimbabwe.

Although the observation technique has its advantages, it has its limitations in that, students may react in a different way because of the researchers' being there in the classroom. To prevail over this problem Johnson and Turner (2003, p.312) posit that, reactivity may "decrease considerably after the researcher has been observing for a while." This thus meant that I could not encode or take notes at the first session of the observation. In line with Fraenkel et al. (2000) I just sat and observed until students became used to my presence and carried on with their usual activities then started recording thereafter. To further curb the weakness of the observation technique, I also used the interview technique to generate data. The interview technique enabled me to further generate data. The next discussion is on the interview technique.

### **3.6.2 Interview (Face to face semi-structured interview)**

The interview is the most appropriate data collection tool used in qualitative study. It is the most powerful way of understanding people (Punch, 2013). Jones (1985, p.46) posits that,

To understand other persons' construction of reality, we would do fine to ask them and to request them in such a way that they can tell us in their terms (rather than those imposed firmly and a priori by ourselves) and in depth which addresses the rich context that is the matter of their meanings.

An interview is thus necessary in cases we cannot notice actions, feelings or how respondents view their own environment. Thomas (2013) observes three types of interviews, which are, unstructured interviews, semi-structured and structured which can be applied to an individual or to a group. According to Thomas (2013) in a structured interview questions are predetermined, the context and procedure are organised in advance. It is a closed type of interview where the interviewer is left with little freedom to make any adjustments on the questions.

In contrast to the structured interview, is the unstructured or open ended interview. Thomas (2013) notes that unstructured interviews as the name suggest are unstructured and open-ended in depth interview. The questions in this type are not

planned before hand and are not standardised. Instead, there are general questions to get the interview started and to get it going. Follow up questions for more elaboration or explanation of points will emerge as the interview progresses.

Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were used in this research and according to Fraenkel et al. (2000) consist of a series of questions structured to elicit specific answers on the part of the respondents. These questions according to David and Surtan (2004) give the researcher a sense of order from which to take questions. The same basic questions are asked to all participants in the same order, however, they can be changed when need arises. These questions help the interviewer to determine the areas to be investigated and permit the interviewer and or the interviewee to deviate in detail.

Zohrabi (2013) posits that semi-structured interviews are more flexible when compared to structured interviews. The semi- structured interviews are not too firm or too open. It is reasonable, which allows for the unearthing or elaboration of information which is vital to participants but may not have formerly been thought of as significant by the researcher. According to Harrell and Bradley (2009), semi-structured interviews gather detailed information in an approach that is some-what conversational. Bryman (2014) posits that questions that are not incorporated in the interview guide may be asked as the interviewer targets on things said by interviewees.

Before I justify my choice of the semi-structured interview, I need to look at the advantages of the data generation tool as indicated by Tshuma and Mafa (2013, p.127-128)

- semi structured interviews are bendable, adaptable and give direct human interaction that allow the researcher to probe and make clear answers within the respondents, follow-up leads, explain the original responses and obtain more data with greater detail and clarity.
- The researcher collects data systematically and is guaranteed that no data are omitted.

- The face to face communication promotes word for word recording of responses that provides instant feedback and gives room for searching and clarification of issues therefore the researcher can straight away cross-check data for authenticity.
- The researcher can immediately confirm that the participant is providing false data by viewing facial expression and voice tone.
- It can generate data among the youthful, old and untaught that is difficult to obtain through other methods.
- Using Dictaphone helps the interviewer to focus on listening, searching and answer back to the interviews without disturbing the smooth flow of the interview by writing notes.
- If the participants are kept comfortable and secure, they could disclose additional information through some spontaneous actions that could not be exposed and other state of affairs that can be useful in future when analysing data.

The semi-structured interviews have their own disadvantage which is that they do not have the secrecy that can be obtained through the questionnaire, which may leave the participants feeling endangered particularly if the subject or some questions are sensitive. To curb this weakness, I assured the participants of anonymity and it worked.

#### 3.6.2.1 Justification for the semi-structured interview for this study

As Cohen et al. (2010), observe, using semi-structured interviews have advantages in that the participants answer similar questions thus mounting comparability of responses. Data was complete for each individual on the topics being dealt with in the interview. This interview type enabled me to extract participants' meanings and how they create sense of main events in their world.

As said earlier, this study took the face-to-face approach using semi-structured interviews with six lecturers from Mathematics, Theory of Education and Physical Education subject areas. The same basic questions were asked to all the six participants in the same order. These questions helped me to determine the areas to be explored and allowed me as the interviewer and the interviewees to diverge in

detail. Semi-structured interviews were not too rigid and too open which allowed me to discover information which was significant to participants, but had not been formerly thought of as pertinent. Semi-structured interviews also enabled me to collect detailed information about the implementation of EMI at Oakford teachers' college in a style that was somewhat conversational.

I interviewed all the six lecturers one by one in a private place to establish their experiences on the implementation of EMI policy, how they are influenced by their experiences of using EMI and the reasons why it happens. As Patton cited in Fraenkel et al. (2000) states, they interview people in order to extract from them information they cannot observe openly. This Information which includes feelings, opinion and intentions cannot be observed hence the need to ask people questions about those things. Thus interviews were done face to face with individual participant in a private place to avoid any form of interruptions during the interview process. For successful interviews, I created a relaxed atmosphere for the interview, listened carefully and avoided interrupting the participant, being respectful and sensitive to the emotional state of the interviewee, probed and summarised to confirm my understanding of data.

The same questions were asked to all the participants in the same order. I also had the opportunity to observe non- verbal behaviour, for example facial expressions of the participants as well as their gestures in order to confirm the truthfulness of their contributions. I had control over the environment and the order of questions such that the interview remained focused. During the interview session with each lecturer, I had the opportunity to correct any misunderstandings that emerged from the way the questions were designed. As a result of the advantages of the interview highlighted above large amount of data was generated. The length of the interview sessions ranged between thirty and sixty minutes.

The interview method however, has its disadvantages, for example participants were at first reluctant to freely give their views for fear of victimisation. To curb this shortcoming, I reassured the participants of confidentiality to enable them to give their perspectives on their experiences on the EMI, how their experiences affect them in the implementation of EMI as well as the reasons for why it happens. Thus

the participants later freely responded to the questions and more data was generated. The semi-structured interview was audio recorded with permission from the participants. The next section deals with focus group interview as the third tool for data generation.

### **3.6.3 Focus group interview/ focus group discussions**

The third data generation tool that was used was the focus group interview, also known as the focus group discussion, where the researcher interviews a group of people rather than an individual. Focus group interview is described by Morgan (1998) as the communication with the group who talk about a topic supplied by the researcher about a collective rather than a personal view. Morgan (1998) avers that, the seal of focus group is the use of the group interaction which are open to generate information and insights that are difficult to get to without the interface found in a group.

Therefore, through communication within the group participants' views can emerge and enable the researcher to get information that cannot be accessible in a face to face interview. This is so because according to Krueger and Casey (2009) focus group discussion provides, a natural environment, different from that of face to face interview because they are in real life situation where participants are inspiring and inspired by others.

Denscombe (2007) views focus group interview as interacting persons having some universal interest or features brought collectively by a moderator (researcher) using the group and its interaction as means to get information on precise or determined issues. Also to note, is the fact that focus group discussion consists of a few people of between six and eight people who are familiar with one another and have been selected by a researcher because they contribute to certain characteristics which are important to the study questions. This then implies that a focus group discussion must be made up of people who are from the same background and who share common ground on the topic under study. Thus, all the six lecturers were included in the focus group discussion. According to Maree (2007) the focus group discussion is based on the supposition that the group contact will be productive in widening the array of responses, activating details that may have been forgotten and encouraging

participants to release some information which they may have failed to release through one on one interview. The researcher here plays the role of the facilitator or the moderator (Thomas, 2013).

In this study, interviews were conducted with the aim of eliciting lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI, how they are influenced by their experiences of using EMI and the reasons why it happens. I held the focus group interview with six lecturers from the three subject areas. The focus group interview was conducted in the college boardroom, which is private and spacious. This enabled the participants to express themselves freely without bias since the atmosphere was more relaxed and the environment was more natural as the members of the group felt at home. In order to remain focused in open-ended interviews, I chaired the discussion. I presided over the discussion as a way of maintaining the interviews unrestricted but to the point. The focus group interview was audio recorded.

The focus group interview enabled me to understand lecturers' understandings of the implementation of EMI, their experiences in implementing the EMI and why they had such experiences from the participants' point of view. Through the focus group interview I was able to get an insight into the ideas and feelings of the lecturers with regards to their understandings about the implementation of the EMI, their experiences in implementing the EMI and why they had such experiences. The focus group interview helped me to acquire rich data which was enhanced by the interactions among the participants as they asked each other to further elaborate an unclear issue raised in the discussion. Group members were able to provide immediate feedback and clarification on other members' contributions which further added to the rich data generated.

The focus group interview had its own challenge that it was somewhat difficult to get the participants together on time for the session. I however encouraged the already present participants to be patient enough to wait for all the members to attend the session, and this worked. The next sub-section presents data generation methods.



### 3.7 Data generation methods

As the researcher, I ensured that a certificate on ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal was acquired. I then gained access into Oakford Teachers' College in Harare the Capital City of Zimbabwe, after acquiring an official letter from the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Science and Technology Development to carry out research. At college, I established rapport with the principal who allowed me to stay and generate data as free as was possible. As the researcher, I then established rapport with the lecturers, organised the dates and time for observation of lessons, interviews and conducting focus group interview without disturbing the timetable. I observed each participant teaching during his/ her normal timetable. Afterwards I interviewed each participant on the agreed date and time and conducted focus group interview as per the agreement. However, adjustments on the time and dates for data generation were made as need arose. The next sub-section discusses data analysis methods.

### 3.8 Data Analysis methods

According to Cohen et al. (2010), qualitative data analysis involves organising, accounting for and explaining the data in terms of the participants' definition of the situation. Patterns, themes, categories were generated through the use of thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is putting data in set themes in order to analyse it according to given categories (Cohen et al., 2011). Srivastava and Hopwoods (2009) concur that, when analysing qualitative data one needs to visit and re-visit the data so as to connect it with emerging themes. This will in turn lead to refined focus and understandings.

The analysis can be done through asking oneself questions for example, "What is the meaning of the data to me? What is it I have to know? (Linked to the research objectives) and How are the two questions linked (Punch and Oancea, 2014, p. 127). In line with the aforesaid, Gibson and Brown (2009) note that, the aim of qualitative data investigation is to explore themes and underlying meaning of data largely from the participants' perspectives. According to Gibson and Brown (2009, p.127) thematic analysis is the way of analysing facts and figures according to commonalities, similarities and differences across a data set.

Mhlanga and Shumba (2013) suggest that qualitative data be analysed in phases starting with transcription, then content analysis and interpretation, in order to create theories to explain the relationships of the concepts as they relate to the research problem and specific themes within the data. In this regard, Gbrich (2007) encourages researchers to respect the data generated and always to keep in mind the voices of the participants. Furthermore, Flick (2009) warns that it is important to be able to distinguish between participants' voices and that of the researcher.

According to Mhlanga et al. (2013), transcription refers to the level at which the researcher engages with data set so as to understand it. Mhlanga et al. (2013) note that, researchers need to transcribe data so that it resembles the original form of data as possible. Hence more time should be set aside for transcribing. A good transcript must truly reflect what was said in the interview and what was observed in lesson observations (Gibson, et al., 2009). The transcript serves as the source of segments of texts that are cited to illustrate typical responses in a text.

Content analysis, the second stage in data analysis, means going through the contents of an interview in order to identify main themes that emerge from the responses given. According to Flick et al. (2004), content analysis includes identifying the main themes, assigning codes to the main themes, classifying responses under major themes and in the end integrating themes and responses into a statement. In this study, I used themes and categories and I captured the vital data in relation to the study questions, thus represented some level of similarity in the meaning within data provided by respondents. In line with Cohen et al. (2011), data analysis started as soon I had generated data to reduce the problem of data overload. The next section tackles issues of validity, reliability and trustworthiness.

### 3.9 Validity, Reliability and Trustworthiness

Validity refers to the scale to which an instrument measures what it is believed to measure. For example, in qualitative data validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data achieved, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the disinterestedness or objectivity of

the researcher (Winter 2000). These factors were considered when carrying out this research.

To ensure validity in this study, I adopted appropriate methodology for answering the research questions. According to Fraenkel et al. (2000), using an assortment of instruments to gather data (triangulation) enhances validity. Triangulation of research instruments was done. In line with Cohen et al. (2011), I used three data creation methods, namely observation, semi-structured interview and focus group interview which enabled me to understand the observable fact under investigation by approaching it from unlike angles. I ensured authenticity of research results through triangulation. "Checks and interpretations are taken back to the participants in order to be established and validated" (Zohrabi, 2013, p.258). In light of the above statements I took back results to the participants for validation. This also increased the validity of the study.

Reliability is concerned with accuracy for example, with what accuracy does the instrument measure. Cohen et al. (2011) argue that consistency is the degree to which an appraisal tool produces stable and consistent results. It is concerned with exactitude and accuracy. For a research to be dependable, it must reveal that if it were to be done in a similar group of participants, in a related context, similar results would be obtained (Burns 1999). To ensure reliability, I detailed the research design, implementation as well as how data was generated in the research field. A pilot study with three lecturers was carried out so as to iron out any errors that were likely to be found in the interview schedules as well as the observation schedule.

Trustworthy research is that research which applies the suitable research tools to meet the given objectives of the investigation (Lincoln and Guba, 1995). Baxter and Jack (2008), suggest several basic crucial elements to a case study design that can be integrated to improve overall study reliability. The reason for utilising this technique was to warrant that enough detail was provided so that readers can measure the trustworthiness of the work. To achieve this, I ensured that research questions were clearly written, objectives were clearly stated and that the analysis of data was meaningful. The case study design was suitable for all the research questions. Purposeful sampling strategies were suitable for the study. Additionally

data were generated and managed systematically. The next section discusses the ethical considerations.

### 3.10 Ethical considerations

Qualitative research probes to some extent into people's lives. Sensitive and intimate matters in people's lives are dealt with in qualitative research (Punch, 2013). This means that ethical issues arise and should be considered seriously throughout the research process and most importantly, in the collection of information. The main ethical issues considered in social research are consent, privacy and confidentiality (Punch, 2013). These are discussed at length in the forth-coming paragraph.

The study took ethical considerations into account. This involves getting permission of the participants and gatekeepers, maintaining dignity and welfare of participants by maintaining anonymity or confidentiality (Cohen et al., 2010). Before getting into the teachers' college to generate data, I sought permission from the relevant authorities. I wrote a letter to the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Science and Technology Development seeking permission to conduct a research at Oakford Teachers' College and permission was granted in written form.

I then took the letter to the teachers' college to be studied and spoke to the principal and lecturers who were to be involved and explained to them the scope of the research, the way it is going to be done and the challenges involved were clearly explained to them and permission was granted. I also explained to the lecturers that involvement in the research was voluntary and they were open to pull out at any time without any prejudice. I then asked the respondents to sign the consent form. This is in line with MacMillan and Schumacher (1989, p.198) who notes "Permission is usually obtained by asking respondents to sign a form that indicates comprehension of the research and consent to contribute." I assured the participants that the transcripts as well as published work will be open to scrutiny by the participants for them to ascertain that the promise of confidentiality and anonymity was upheld.

All in all, to guard against the violation of the participants' privacy, I was very honest with them, I explained fully about the purpose of the research, how the research

would be done and the tools to be used so that they have enough knowledge to decide on whether or not to participate. All the lecturers who participated did so voluntarily. Due to the fact that all participants had willingly accepted to participate, there were no dropouts. This helped me to carry out the research as had been scheduled.

### 3.11 Conclusion

The research methodology adopted in the study was discussed in this chapter. The qualitative research approach, the interpretive research concept (paradigm), the case study research plan (design), sample and sampling procedure, generation techniques as well as data analysis procedures, cases of validity, reliability, and trustworthiness of the study were discussed. This chapter also discussed ethical considerations and gave the summary of the chapter. The next chapter focuses on the conceptual and theoretical framework.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

#### 4.1 Introduction to the chapter

My chapter four was named Theoretical and Conceptual framework because it used both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks. The study used Translanguaging Theory as a theoretical framework. The concepts that form my conceptual framework are as follows: internationalisation, English Medium of instruction (EMI), English as a second or foreign language, bilingualism and bilingual education. I discussed the translanguaging theory and showed how it informed my data management process with the view of explaining the findings of my study. The chosen concepts that act as a conceptual framework were briefly discussed to ensure that the reader had the same understanding on the concepts with the author.

#### 4.2 Theoretical Framework

##### 4.2.1 Translanguaging Theory

This study is guided by the translanguaging theory as its theoretical framework. The translanguaging theory impacts issues of language share and pedagogy in education. It is vital to state at this stage that the medium of instruction at Oakford Teachers' College is English yet the majority of lecturers and students speak Shona as their first language (L1). The question however arises as to whether the students and lecturers in this teachers' college are capable of using only EMI. This question made me to think of a theory that would guide this study. Thus, I adopted the translanguaging theory.

Translanguaging is the procedure where multilingual speakers utilise all their languages as an incorporated communication system (Canagarajah, 2011). Garcia and Li Wei (2014) define translanguaging as an active process in which multilingual language users arbitrate complex social and cognitive activities during strategic employment of multiple semiotic resources to acquire knowledge. Translanguaging thus involves issues of language creation, effective communication, the role of language and the thought process behind knowledge. The term 'translanguaging'

was originally used in Welsh multilingual schools by William in the 1980s (Lewis, Jones and Barker, 2012). The term *trawsiethu* which means translanguaging in English was first used in Welsh language by Williams in his unpublished 1994 thesis titled "An evaluation of teaching and learning methods in the context of bilingual secondary education" (Lewis et al., 2012). The term *trawsiethu* referred to a pedagogical practice where students in bilingual Welsh/English classrooms were asked to exchange languages for the purpose of easy to use and productive use. Baker (2001) later translated the term *trawsiethu* from Welsh language into translanguaging in English language.

According to William (2002) translanguaging means receiving information in one language and using it in the other tongue. In other words it requires using a single language to support another in order to augment appreciation and to supplement the learner's skill in the two languages.

Thus, translanguaging originally referred to an educational method of teaching in which learners were required to exchange languages for accessible or creative use, for instance learners could be tasked to read in English then write in Welsh and the other way round (Baker, 2011).

As from that time the translanguaging has been used by many academics (Canagarajah, 2011, Garcia, 2009, and Lewis et al., 2012). However Garcia and Li Wei (2014) provided a theoretical foundation for the term. They used the translanguaging to refer to an easy way of using two languages in order to understand the environment mostly in a classroom situation because of its ability in setting free the voices of language minoritised learners (Garcia, 2009). Otheguy, Garcia and Reid (2015, p. 283) also define translanguaging as "the operation of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire without regard for vigilant loyalty to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (usually national and state languages)." Therefore translanguaging is both a pedagogical theory and a practice.

As an educational theory, translanguaging is concerned with cognitive process relating to a two language interchange. This means that "the numerous

psychological skills in listening and comprehension, the absorption and assimilation of information, selecting from the mind storage to relate in speaking and inscription” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 644). In the same vein, Garcia (2009, p. 147) regards translanguaging as “the most important communicative tool in an increasing multilingual world”, which is a responsible practice offering conversational and educational opportunities to all. In addition, Becker (1995) explains that translanguaging shapes people’s experiences, stores, retrieves and communicates them in an open-ended process. Within a translanguaging view point, languages are not stand alone systems that people have, but are processes that people use (Garcia and Kleifgen, 2010).

In education, translanguaging can be seen as a development by which teachers and students get involved in complex discussions using all the different languages that students have, in order to clarify difficult concepts to students who lack proficiency in the medium of instruction (English) (Garcia, 2014). Lewis et al., (2012) clarify that translanguaging is the use of one language to support the other in order to augment understanding and increase the pupils’ activity in both languages. Baker (2011) opines that the practice helps students formulate meaning and get understandings of knowledge. Baker (2011) explains that for one to write a topic in one language, and be able to read and discuss the topic in another language means that the content has been mastered

Hibbert and Walt (2014) in line with William (2002), Garcia (2014), Lewis et al. (2011) and Baker (2011) posit that translanguaging presents plans that are used by tertiary education practitioners in their attempt to support the teaching and learning in a bi/multilingual classroom. Hibbert and Walt (2014, p. 5) note that, “the term translanguaging is widely used to cover a variety of multilingual practices such as interchanging, conversion and immediate interpretation in a multi-dialectical classroom.” The practice of translanguaging includes but goes beyond code- switching (that is the use of features of two languages within an utterance or conversation (Genesee, 2009). However, when choosing to engage in parallel monolingualism, one partner exhibits expressive proficiency in one language for



example isiXhosa, while demonstrating receptive proficiency in another language, for example English.

Translanguaging thus is viewed as a means through which information in a single dialect is used in another language in order to explain difficult concepts to learners. Madiba (2014) posits that the translanguaging theory is a situation where one language is used to support another in order to augment comprehension and to supplement the learners' comprehension of the two languages. Within this approach, the instructor uses on hand languages to help learners have a deeper understanding of the subject matter. In the same vein Celic and Seltzen (2011) concur that by using collaborative group work and bi/multilingual partners, translanguaging extends and deepens the understanding and the thinking of students. The expansion of available bi/ multilingual resources for teaching opens up worlds, experiences and possibilities. Translanguaging thus has the potential to expand thinking and understanding (Celic and Seltzen, 2011).

Translanguaging as a pedagogical tool affirms the identities of bilingual students because of its notion that a bilingual person does not possess two languages in one at the same time for each language linked to a standalone culture. A bilingual person instead is someone with complicated language and cultural way of doing things that are variable and varying depending on the local, and the particular practices (Celic and Seltzen, 2011). Translanguaging supports the ability of bilingual students to have multiple identities that are not exactly like those constructed in monolingual contexts or in other contexts. Thus according to Yip and Garcia (2015), bilingual children have two languages that interact to promote their understanding of knowledge and improve their cognitive performance.

Garcia and Kleifgen (2010) in line with Yip and Garcia (2015), give a variety of ways in which teachers demonstrate that in translanguaging, bilingual children use two named languages interchangeably to enable them to understand difficult content. The ways include presenting the main points of a lesson in one language while allowing students to interact in other languages, providing a written summary to students in one language before the teacher starts instructing in another, giving notes in one language or with translations, lecturing in one language while students

take notes in another language, or referring to material in one language and composing in the other (Garcia and Kleifgen, 2010). Translanguaging as such utilises the complex languaging practices of bilinguals in authentic situations not imposed separation of languages that is typical in schools (Garcia and Kleifgen, 2010).

According to Celic and Seltzen (2011), translanguaging is effective with bilingual students in that it permits students and teachers to acknowledge and use the full range of linguistic practices of bilinguals and to use these practices for improved teaching and learning without stigmatisation. Thus translanguaging is a pedagogical strategy that should be used to build on bilingual students' strength to help use language literacy in more academic way to help ease challenging material (Celic and Seltzen, 2011).

According to Celic and Seltzen (2011) translanguaging, apart from helping ease challenging material also helps students develop language for academic purpose. This is so because all teaching uses language to communicate concepts and to develop academic uses of language. In the case of bilingual students, the language used in monolingual or bilingual programmes breaks abruptly with their range of language practices. Thus for bilingual students to develop the language practices used in an academic context, they must practice those uses regardless of whether they can use the form required in school. Translanguaging thus affords opportunity to use home language practices, different as they may be from those of school to practice the language of school, and thus eventually use the appropriate form of language.

From the above discussion on what translanguaging is, it can be noted that one distinguishing feature of this pedagogy is that it focuses on the child rather than on the teacher, it focuses on how a learner makes use of available dialectical skills to widen understanding of the content (Madiba, 2014). As a pedagogical practice translanguaging is an important practice for both teaching and learning. All learners are engaged in a dynamic learning process where they are provided with an appropriate level of assisted performance through code-switching and translation. Education through translanguaging builds on the complex and multiple language practices of both students and teachers. Hence teachers who understand

translanguaging as an important tool to provide meaningful education for their students will manipulate the theory into their classroom practices on a daily basis to ensure that their students understand the concepts taught in any given subject (Pontier, 2014).

Another important feature of translanguaging is that it transforms, that is, it tries to remove the hierarchy of language use that refer to some more important than others (Garcia, 2009). Thus, translanguaging is used to liberate languages and exposes the misconceptions about English, those who speak, learn and teach in English in a way that will liberate the minoritised language (Garcia, 2009).

Translanguaging is now widely used and has been adopted for studies on multilingual education by various scholars, for example Baker (2001), Canagarajah (2011), Garcia (2009), Madiba (2014), Makalela (2014) and Mashiya (2014). The above listed studies show that the use of translanguaging in higher education has many advantages in multilingual education context. First, Madiba (2014, p. 70) highlights that, "translanguaging resolves worry that is often witnessed between students' varied life-world truth and an institutionally maintained model of single holistic uniform language which tends to ignore the existing languages that students bring into educational learning environment." Secondly, Canagarajah (2007, p. 56) has observed that, "translanguaging allows multilingual speakers to intentionally integrate home and scholarly discussion as a way of fighting against, re- appropriation and/or conversion of scholarly discourse." Thirdly, translanguaging as observed by Cazden (2005) enables students to develop their own voices and to critically engage with academic concepts rather than applying rote learning.

Cazden (2005 p. 8) points out that; there is a difference in "reciting by heart" and "retelling in one's own words". According to Cazden (2005) retelling in one's own words increases understanding and creates independent thinking which results in deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter. This is made possible by the translanguaging theory which permits the use of students' home language (mother tongue). Kotze (2014) thus argues that effective teaching strategies which include using mother tongue in the classroom regardless of English policies should be

adequately publicised to form the base of new policy that recognises the mother tongue in education.

Baker (2001, p. 231) indicates four potential educational advantages of translanguaging:

- It may promote deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter.
- It may help the development of the weaker language (for bilingual and multilingual speakers).
- It may link home-school cooperatively.
- It may assist the mixing of fluent speakers with beginners. Thus expediting the language learning process.

Translanguaging has been tried and tested in a number of higher education institutions in South Africa. A number of scholars like Hibbert and Walt (2014), Madiba (2014) and Mashiyi (2014), have made a considerable contribution in trying to show the effectiveness of the translanguaging theory in multilingual academic environments. In line with Williams (2002), Hibbert and Walt (2014, p. 4) observe that:

The multilingual practices of students outside formal education encounters (such as lectures, seminars and tests) find their way into the classroom, where students are able to draw literacies that they have already developed in a high level at secondary school level.

In this regard Higher education institutions can hardly ignore the existing literacies and competencies that students bring to their institutions. Hence practitioners can make use of mother language practises that the learners have developed at home, and the bi/multilingual practises students have evolved at high school and out of formal learning in the classroom for they trust that informal language practise in the world, have a bearing in the classroom language practice in higher education (Hibbert and Walt, 2014).

Hibbert and Walt (2014, p. 5) further note that, "it is important for all higher education practitioners to understand that such practices will occur whether or not

they are mandated by lecturers and policy makers, since students will use the strategies and literacies that they have developed up to that point to further their education.” Yip and Garcia (2015) concur that even when English is dictated as the privileged language in schools, translanguaging empowers languages targeted for extinction by allowing students to use their mother tongue in learning. Ruiz (1994) in agreement with Yip and Garcia (2015) notes acknowledging and employing such practices creates conducive atmosphere in which languages are taken as resources rather than problems which should be eliminated. This implies that even if the learners’ languages are not academically recognised they can still be utilised to assist students in understanding difficult concepts in their academic studies. Yip and Garcia (2015) advise that instructors must acknowledge the different languages that students bring to school as resources for learning and not as problems.

Hibbert and Walt (2014) posit that when practitioners acknowledge the presents of other languages (African indigenous languages), other than the stated medium of instruction in this case, English, an environment is created where these other languages are considered resources not problems. In their argument they assert that even if students’ languages are not recognised for academic purposes, they can still be utilised in the teaching and learning situation and serve as platform to support the academic discussion. In other words if students do not understand the language in which they are taught, they cannot possibly understand the content, hence translanguaging provides a way of making rigorous content instruction comprehensible.

Madiba (2014) uses his experiences of teaching at the University of Cape Town where multilingual glossaries provide access to translation equivalents in all the eleven official languages of South Africa to facilitate multilingual concept literacy. The glossaries facilitate translanguaging approach which entails using one language to reinforce the other in order to increase understanding and to augment the students’ understanding in both languages. Madiba (2014, p. 84) argues that, “it has been established that the use of students’ primary languages deepens their understanding of concepts and enhances their voices.”

Mashiya (2014) in agreement with Madiba (2014) opines that translanguaging practices such as code-switching and translation can be used as a tool to clarify difficult content, encourage participation, deepen understanding, mediate learning, and promote inclusivity and bi/multilingual identity. Mashiya (2014) further argues that by using code-switching and translanguaging, lecturers increase the repertoire of strategies in multilingual classrooms and counter language endangerment.

Blending of languages is thus believed to serve as a powerful scaffolding tool for acquisition of knowledge and learning at the same time upholding identities of African language speaking staff and students in an English dominated context of higher education (Hibbert and Walt, 2014). Mashiya (2014), talking about his experiences at South African universities notes that many students in South Africa experience difficulties when they learn in English. He observes that in most instances the teacher and the student share the same home language, but this language is avoided in favour of English. Mashiya (2014), talking about African University recommends the use of indigenous African languages such as isiXhosa and Sesotho together with English in higher education interchangeably to help students understand difficult content.

According to Bagwasi (2015), translanguaging theory follows the post-modern school of thought which views languages not as static and having clear boundaries that separate them. Instead, translanguaging according to Makalela (2014) engages bilingual speakers in a communicative process in which input received in one language is processed and output is in another language. Thus according to Mashiya (2014), as curriculum implementers, lecturers should use their judgement and discretionary powers to decide on how best to use languages available to help students achieve learning outcomes.

Recent case studies by Madiba (2014), Makalela (2014), and Mashiya (2014), indicate that translanguaging is effective in that it permits teachers and students to acknowledge and use the full range of linguistic practices in their disposal for improved teaching and learning. Translanguaging enhances understanding, student motivation, pass rates and cross cultural communication which challenge the assumption that bi/multilingualism is a problem (Madiba, 2014 and Mashiya, 2014).

Thus according to these authors, translanguaging ensures that students receive difficult content even if they are not proficient in the target language (English) which is mandated by policy as the language of teaching and learning in South Africa.

It should be noted at this point that the South African language policy however mandates the use of English and other South African indigenous languages from the eleven official languages. The South African policy differs with the Zimbabwean Language policy in that the Zimbabwean language policy acknowledges English only as the medium of instruction in higher education. Even in the Zimbabwean context translanguaging is appropriate. This is in line with Yip and Garcia (2015) who note that even when English is privileged by policy as the language of instruction, through translanguaging students can utilise their mother tongue in group discussions in asking or answering questions posed in English.

The translanguaging theory has been selected for this study for its flexibility to use languages available to bi/multilingual to adapt to the communicative situation of the particular moments particularly the classroom situation. The theory is relevant to the study in that most of the lecturers and students at Oakford Teachers' College are first language speakers of Shona who might be struggling to use English in the courses taught. Kamwendo et al. (2014, p. 88) note that:

Students who may be using language other than their first language in learning lack supportive tool to proper comprehension, deepening their grasp of ideas and their articulation of issues in class discussions and written work.

This might be the reason for the poor grades in examinations at all levels (Nziramanga, 1999). Thus translanguaging as a pedagogical theory was found to offer strategies that will enhance the grasping of concepts which might improve grades in examinations. Thus the translanguaging theory which is used as a theoretical framework is a useful lens in the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education in Zimbabwe.

Although translanguaging is effective in enhancing understanding of concepts by students, the theory has its own weaknesses in that there might be inconsistencies in the use of code-switching in teaching by lecturers, assessing in English only, but allowing students to use their L1 for discussions but not sanctioning it in writing and insisting that students report in English although they had made a presentation in the languages spoken in the communities (Mashiyi, 2014). To curb the weaknesses indicated above, the study suggests the use of a conceptual framework, whereby some concepts useful to the study were employed, since the translanguaging theory had reached its limitations. I was therefore compelled to cross the boundaries (go beyond the translanguaging theory) to explore concepts which I found to be useful during data analysis.

### 4.3 Conceptual Framework

This study's conceptual framework comprises four concepts namely, internationalisation, English medium of instruction, English as L2 or as an alien Language (Foreign Language), and bilingualism. These concepts are discussed below.

#### 4.3.1 Internationalisation

Internationalisation according to Knight (2008) includes policies and applications undertaken by scholastic systems and centres of learning to manage the global and learning environment. Knight further says internationalisation is related to transnational education, borderless education and cross-border education. Internationalisation for most institutions is primarily about quality enhancement, that is, preparing students for employment in a globalised world, attracting best students, attracting best academic staff but in some countries internationalisation means recruiting international students or delivering programmes abroad at a fee (Rooijen 2013). Internationalisation of higher education can be defined as one of the ways a country responds to the impact of globalisation while at the same time respects the uniqueness of the nation (Qiang Zha, 2003). A country's unique history, indigenous culture, resources and priorities shape its response to and relationships with other countries (Ibid, 2003, p.249).



Internationalisation in most academic settings refers to the use of English as the medium of teaching and learning in order to allow communication between students and lecturers as well as between students, who might be coming from different linguistic backgrounds. Zimbabwe like any other country in the world has been caught up in this web of internationalisation by having students from different linguistic backgrounds in its higher education institutions (Gora, 2013). This study will adopt the above definition.

#### **4.3.2 English medium of instruction (EMI)**

According to Madhavan and McDonald (2014) EMI refers to the tutoring of content subjects using English as the language of teaching, where there is no precise language education aims and where English is not the public language. Dearden and Zhao (2014) concur that EMI refers to using English language to instruct academic subjects in states where the mother language of the major part of the population are not native speakers of English. Knagg (2013) opines that EMI refers to using English language in the learning systems at all stages such as primary, secondary and tertiary, in teaching and learning of subjects such as Mathematics, Science and History in an environment where the larger number of students and teachers are not native English speakers.

In Zimbabwe, this phenomenon is observed in primary and secondary schools as well as higher education institutions such as teachers' colleges and universities where English is used to teach all subjects except African indigenous languages. This goes in hand with the Government of Zimbabwe 1987 Education Act which says English should be the language of teaching and learning from grade four upwards. However, in Zimbabwe in some primary schools in towns, especially the former white only schools and private schools, English is being used from grade one (Mnkandla, 2000).

##### **4.3.2.1 English Medium of Instruction in Schools**

The use of EMI in most primary and secondary schools around the world where students' primary language is not English has been found to be problematic. This is so because English is a second or foreign language to most of the students, hence they cannot communicate effectively in the language.) According to Shumba, Voss

and Zilg (1997, the use of English as medium of instruction in Zimbabwe primary schools retarded pupils participation in class discussions because pupils lacked proficiency in the use of the English language. Hartmann, Mtetwa, Scheerer and Shumba (1998) also note that pupils could not express ideas clearly in English, but when they were allowed to use their mother tongue, they explained their ideas clearly.

Mashanga (1997) also posits that in secondary schools in Zimbabwe most pupils struggled to understand the language which also hindered their understanding of concepts. Shumba (1998) opines that when pupils were asked questions, they often gave one word answers and in most instances they could not make sound English sentences. However, when teachers encouraged pupils to give responses in their mother tongue, they gave very long answers and showed enthusiasm to respond and contribute.

In the same vein, Evans (2008) notes that the use of EMI in secondary schools in Hong Kong was also problematic in that, students could not understand concepts. In these schools, English was the medium of textbooks, assignments and examinations, however, Cantonese and Cantonese English mixed code were dominant mediums of classroom communication (Evans 2008). According to Evans (2008) code-switching, allowed students to participate in class discussions as well as improve the pass rate in examinations. Clemensen (2010), in his experience at Bwasana Basic School in Zambia notes that, using EMI retarded pupils' participation in class discussion and also in understanding of concepts. He notes using the pupils' mother dialect chiTonga led pupils to participate very well in class. The study thus recommended the integration of English and chiTonga in teaching so that pupils could participate in class discussions and understand concepts.

The problem of using English medium of instruction is also noted in higher education institutions in different countries where English is a second or foreign language. The next section discusses English medium instruction in higher education.

#### 4.3.2.2 English Medium of Instruction in higher education

Kagwesage (2013) in a study on higher education in Rwanda notes that to use English a second or foreign language in teaching and learning causes problems to students who are not proficient in English. Thus students' lack of proficiency in the English, lecturers made use of code-switching and translanguaging to help students grasp difficult concepts.

In another study in South Africa at the University of Zululand, Zondi (2014) posits that, EMI prevented students from comprehending concepts of complex nature. In order to curb the challenge Zondi (2014) translated the English version manual from English into isiZulu. Zondi (2014) also notes that when students had access to both the English and isiZulu modules, they had the freedom to consult both versions. Zondi (2014) discovered that the use of dual medium of teaching and learning supported students in grasping concepts.

Vu and Burns (2010) also note that at Vietnamese Tertiary Institutions, lecturers and students had problems in using the English language in teaching and learning. Lecturers could not express themselves effectively which affected students' learning such as less content coverage and knowledge loss (Vu and Burns 2010). In the same way, students due to lack of proficiency in English, could not understand concepts presented in English. Wilkinson (2005) in a study at Dutch universities notes that, Dutch content lecturers could not communicate effectively in lectures due to language problems. Lecturers could not express themselves orally, which reduced the quality of education. Thus Wilkinson (2005) suggested the use of code-switching between L1 and L2 to facilitate learning.

#### 4.3.2.3 Advantages of English Medium Instruction

There are various advantages of using EMI around the world. These include, helping governments to gain access to increase their knowledge base, enhance national competitiveness for institutions to attract international students and lecturers (Knagg, 2013), at the same time increasing the institutions' revenue base (Wilkinson, 2013). EMI facilitates the employability of students and lecturers locally, regionally and internationally (Bjorkman, 2008). English Medium of Instruction also raises the prestige of universities (Coleman, 2006). These advantages led many

higher education institutions to adopt the EMI even in nations which do not use English as their native language.

#### 4.3.2.4 Disadvantages of English Medium of Instruction

Although there are notable advantages of EMI, various studies have noted disadvantages of EMI. The most recurrent issue is the insufficient command of English by lecturers (Jensen and Thogersen, 2011 and Wilkinson, 2013). This insufficient command of English by lecturers resulted in much pressure on lecturers who could not interact effectively, elaborate and improvise in their teaching (Vinke, Snippe and Jochems, 1998). In the same manner, students' inadequate English proficiency was a barrier to successful EMI (Beckett and Li, 2012 and Webb, 2002). Due to their insufficient command of English, students participated less in classroom interaction (Webb 2002), had difficulties in understanding lectures (Tsuneyoshi, 2005), as well as difficulties to communicate disciplinary content (Airey, 2010).

In the context of this study, EMI in higher education refers to teaching and learning at Oakford Teachers' Colleges while using ESL or EFL to most of the students and lecturers who speak Shona as their first language (L1). The next section discusses ESL and EFL.

### 4.4 English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) language

According to Franson (2011), English as a second language (ESL) refers to the learning of English in addition to the learners' first language. English is learned by someone who is living in predominantly English speaking environments. Nordquist (2017) concurs that ESL refers to the study of English language by non-native speakers in an English speaking environment. That environment may be a country in which English is the mother tongue. Traditionally ESL meant learners who came to school where they used English to learn but did not speak English at home.

Nordquist (2017) concurs that English as a foreign language (EFL) refers to the study of the English language by non-native speakers in countries where English is generally not a local medium of communication. Teaching methods for ESL and EFL differ in a considerable way. According to Nordquist (2017) on one hand ESL is

grounded on the assertion that English is both the language of the local area and the school such that learners gain access to the English model. On the other hand EFL is generally learnt in an environment where the verbal communication of the local area and school is not English. As a result of this, EFL teachers have difficulties in finding ways in which they can provide their students with English models.

Although ESL and EFL are often used as synonyms, they have some differences. Nordquist (2017), notes that ESL nations are countries where English is the language of instruction in education as well as in government but may not be the native language of the students. While in EFL schools English is not the language of instruction it is taught as a subject.

In Zimbabwe urban, private and former white only schools primary and secondary schools can be described as ESL in that these schools mingle with native speakers of English as they learn. Hence according to Nordquist (2017)'s definition of ESL, some students who are non-native speakers of English, study English in an English speaking environment. According to Mnkandla (2000) in most of the schools mentioned above, no students are allowed to speak any other language other than English within the school premises.

Therefore, the students who might have African indigenous language background may end up speaking English in a native-like manner Makoni et al. (2008). However, rural primary and secondary schools in Zimbabwe can be described as EFL. Students at these schools are non-native speakers of English who study English in environments where English is generally not the local medium of communication. English is learned in environments where the language of the community and the school is not English (Mnkandla, 2000). Students from the ESL or EFL secondary schools enrol at higher education institutions in Zimbabwe. Therefore, students at Oakford Teachers' College can be described as ESL or EFL students. Thus the majority of lecturers and students at Oakford Teachers' College do not use English at home including outside the classroom and therefore use ESL in their teaching and learning.

## 4.5 Bilingualism

Bilingualism is closely related to the translanguaging theory in education in the sense that there is use of two languages in teaching and learning, hence there is need to discuss what bilingualism is and how it works. According to Channa, Memon and Memon (2016), bilingualism refers to the situation where one knows two or more languages. Gottardo and Grant (2014, p. 1) concur that bilingualism is “knowing two languages.” Franson (2011) also states that bilingualism is the ability to use two languages. In the same vein, Ngara (1982) says that bilingualism is a situation when an individual has acquired two languages. The two languages can be regarded as the property of the individual. This is because a person can make use of each of his/her languages in appropriate situations. Thus the above authorities agree that bilingualism refers to an individual’s knowledge of two languages. However, the degrees to which an individual can use two languages may differ.

According to Gottardo and Grant (2014), some bilinguals are highly proficient in both languages they speak, while others have a dominant or preferred language. For this reason, the definition of bilingualism becomes complex because, “it is influenced by multiple factors such as age of acquisition of the second language L2, relative skill in each language and the circumstance under which each language is learned” (Gottardo and Grant, 2014, p.1).

Channa et al. (2016) also note that linguists have given various definitions of bilingualism depending on the factors that influence the learning of the second language. There are four types of bilingualism, namely early, late, additive and subtractive bilingualism. The next section discusses early bilingualism.

### **4.5.1 Early, Late, Additive and Subtractive Bilingualism**

#### 4.5.1.1 Early Bilingualism

Early bilingualism refers to the age related factor. Early bilingualism means that a child has been in contact with two languages from birth (Channa et al., 2016 and Ngara 1982). This type of bilingualism results in a native like command of two

languages. Very few people fit in this category. The next subheading discusses late bilingualism.

#### 4.5.1.2 Late Bilingualism

Late bilingualism means that a child acquires the second language late in life mostly in school learning. In most cases, the bilingual's command of the second language is inferior to his command of the first language because his/her accent is perceived faulty, his vocabulary inadequate and his fluency curtailed (Ngara, 1982). The next section discusses additive bilingualism.

#### 4.5.1.3 Additive Bilingualism

According to Cummins (2000) additive bilinguals are classified as such because the second language is learned in addition to the first language and the first language is maintained at high level (Channa et al., 2016).

Additive bilingualism results from a situation whereby society accords positive values to both the individual's first language and the second language. This is so because the child adds the second language at no cost to the development of their first language. Borich and Tombari (1997) indicate that the development of additive bilingualism does not have any negative effects on the child's academic, linguistic and intellectual development.

Additive programme is that which promotes the use of two languages over a length period of time, as an additional language to the learners' already existing repository. Students in this programme will show psychological benefits. These may include larger metacognitive ability and larger intellectual flexibility (Cummins, 1981). From a research quoted by Cummings (1994) it was discovered that students who were learning in an additive bilingual situation obtained better results than students whose L1 was undervalued by their school and their society at large. The next subheading discusses subtractive bilingualism.

#### 4.5.1.4 Subtractive Bilingualism

Subtractive bilingualism differs from additive bilingualism in that it represents the learning of the L2 at the cost of the skill already obtained in the first language (L1). In other words, in subtractive bilingualism the bilingual's skills of the first language

usually decrease or are lost in favour of the second language which is usually the economically prestigious language. According to Robinson (1996) there is linguistic and cultural conflict fuelled by the replacement of L1 by L2 instead of complimenting each other. Thus according to Cummins (2000) in subtractive bilingualism, L2 is added at the expense of L1 and culture. McLaughlin (1990) posits that subtractive bilingualism disadvantages bilingual children while Cummins (2003) observes that children with a high degree of bilingualism have a better level of cognitive development.

A programme is considered subtractive if it promotes monolingual learning in the dominant language, students lose their first language (May, 2008). Subtractive bilingual programmes have negative effects on students' educational experience. Cummins (1981) asserts that subtractive bilingual programmes lead to negative cognitive effects and his experience shows that learners who receive neither L1 support nor English as a second language have a difficult time in succeeding in school. Such students according to Cummins (1981) frequently feel marginalised and often drop out before they finish high school.

I can give an example of the Zimbabwean situation. According to the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 Education, children in Grades 1-3 were to be instructed in their first language then Shona or Ndebele and learn English (L2) as one of the subjects of the curriculum. It has been found through research by Mnkandla (2000) that the majority of rural and some high density suburb schools in urban areas follow the requirements of the Education Act of 1987. In these schools children from Grades 1-3 are instructed in their mother tongue Shona or Ndebele in all subjects except for English which is taught in English (Mnkandla 2000). These schools can be considered to be based on additive bilingualism. However former white only and private primary schools in Zimbabwe are greatly based on subtractive bilingualism because children in Grades 1-3 are instructed in English from grade one. The majority of the children in these schools tend to lose their mother tongue which they had acquired at home (Channa et al., 2016).

The mother tongue instruction at lower grades collaborates a firm footing for better results in L2. The threshold hypothesis by Cummins (2007) states that mother-



tongue plays a vital role in proficiency of the second language. In higher education, in Zimbabwe, the policy does not allow the use of mother tongue. Instruction is in English only. Thus it is important to look at bilingual education in order to find out in which model/category of bilingual education does Zimbabwe fit. The next section discusses bilingual education.

#### **4.5.1.5 Bilingual education**

Bilingual education is instruction in two languages and the use of those languages as mediums of instruction for the entire school curriculum (Anderson, Boye and Southwest Education Development laboratory 1970). This definition is widely used in literature for example Baker and Prys-Jones (1998), Cummins (2003), Hamers and Blanc (2000). According to May (2008), the definition excludes programmes that include bilingual students but do not involve bilingual instruction, mostly submersion majority language programmes, where students are taught only in the majority language, irrespective of their language background. The definition also excludes programmes where second language (L2) is taught as a subject only (Cummins and Honberger 2008). A bilingual program must provide both content and delivery in two languages, although bilingual programmes may vary in how the languages get distributed across the curriculum.

Baker and Prys-Jones (1998) indicate that bilingual education may be said to occur when more than one language is used to teach content for example Mathematics, Social sciences or Humanities. Having given the definition of bilingual schooling, it is vital to remember that the programmes vary according to their different circumstances. I will move on to discuss submersion.

#### **4.5.1.6 Submersion**

Submersion is a method used to teach a second language where non-native students are placed in mainstream, English only classrooms at lower grades. According to Roberts (1995) in this model, the home language of students L1 is not used at all in the classroom. The main goal in the submersion model is that students be given the opportunity and the motivation they need to pick up the language within a couple of years. Since the first language is not supported, it eventually gets lost hence the model is also considered subtractive (Roberts, 1995). Thus Cummins

(1981) postulates that subtractive bilingualism leads to negative cognitive effects and that students who do not receive L1 support have a difficult time in succeeding in school.

#### **4.5.1.7 Immersion**

Immersion is a method used to teach a language usually a second language (L2), whereby the target language is taught as a subject and is also used for instruction. Baker (2006) identifies three approaches into language captivation education. These are divided in respect to age which is early, middle and late captivation. In early immersion, students begin L2 learning from the age 5 to 6 years. In middle captivation learners begin L2 from the age 9 to 10 years in late captivation learners begin L2 from the age 11 to 14 years. According to Borich and Tombari (1997), immersion programmes place non-English speaking students in English only classrooms with a teacher who speaks the same native language with students. The principle is that the second language is used as the medium of instruction and the students' mother tongue is used only in explaining concepts which students fail to understand. Research by Baker (2006), reveals that early captivation in L2 is preferable than late captivation. This is so because in early immersion some subjects are taught in L2 while others are taught in L1 while in late immersion subject matter is taught in L2 starting at upper primary to high school.

#### **4.5.1.8 Models of bilingual education**

For about forty years, research on bilingual education has produced many descriptions, analyses and models of bilingual education. May (2008) synthesises them into four main categories. These are transitional, maintenance, enrichment and heritage models. For the purpose of my study I will look at transitional and maintenance models which seem to be more inclined to the African context than the other two enrichment and heritage models.

##### **4.5.1.8.1. Transitional Bilingual Education**

Transitional two language use in education provides subject area support in the first language at the same time teaching the students English as a second language (Roberts, 1995). This type of a programme starts in elementary school by using the

student's first language as media of instruction but the aim is to leave the student's L1 capabilities behind and develop only their L2 linguistic and academic proficiencies. Transitional bilingual education programmes aim to stop teaching in students' first language after 1-2 years. This model privileges the dominant language because it assumes that:

- Students cannot learn the dominant (target) language quickly enough when still being taught in the minority students' first language.
- The students will suffer academically as well as in literacy of dominant language if their first language is allowed to continue as media of instruction and curriculum content.
- Students integrate better on social level when they do not have remedial education away from other students (Pacific Policy Research Centre, 2010, p.3).

In this model, the learner is initially taught content subjects in his/her first language and is taught English as a second language and may also be taught Physical Education, Art in English partly because these subjects require less language proficiency (Roberts, 1995). According to Roberts (1995), the intermediary model helps students to move from their first language to the target language (English). Federal guiding principle advocates three years as the target period for learners to get L1 support despite researches presenting that five to seven years is a realistic period for students to attain levels comparable to their English speaking counterparts (for example, Collier 1989). The goals of transitional bilingual education are generally subtractive bilingualism. This model is only bilingual at first, but the aim is clearly not bilingual. The aim of transitional bilingual programme is eventually monolingual teaching and learning usually in the dominant language.

#### 4.5.1.8.2 Maintenance bilingual education

Maintenance bilingual education programme differs significantly from the transitional programme in both goals and outcomes. In the maintenance programme, the learners' first language L1 and their sense of culture and identity are affirmed by the programme. The learners are transitioned into English content classes and are given support in their first language, as in the transitional programme. However, learners

continue to receive language arts in their native language, enabling them to become literate in that language, and they continue to receive content subjects in their first language as well, so that they become literate in both languages (Roberts, 1995).

Education in the L2 may start at any early phase, perhaps half of their time (May, 2008), but stressing on the early years is clearly L1 expertise and academic accomplishment using the L1 (Pacific Policy Research Centre, 2010). The goal of maintenance bilingual programme is to promote bilingualism and bi-literacy, that is, the purpose is to create a strong academic foundation for learners in their L1 which increases the knowledge of L2 depending on the developmental interdependence principle (Cummins, 2000). This model promotes pluralism. In this model, languages other than English are seen as resources. Since the model promotes the development of two languages, it fits very well in additive bilingualism which is associated with positive cognitive benefits (Cummins, 1981).

From the above discussion on bilingualism and bilingual education it can be noted that the context of the Zimbabwean higher education programmes includes bi/multilingual students but do not involve bilingual instruction. This is in line with Anderson, Boyle and Southwest Education Development laboratory (1970) who defines bilingual education as instruction in two languages and the use of those languages as mediums of instruction for the entire school curriculum. Zimbabwean higher education uses English medium only yet higher education institutions enrol students with different linguistic backgrounds. Hence the definition given above for two language education does not include programmes that embrace two language students but exclude bilingual instruction in all subjects (May, 2008).

The transitional bilingual programme fits well in the first three years of primary education in the Zimbabwean context where the students are instructed in their L1 and English is taught as standalone subjects. This is in line with the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1997 which emphasises the mother tongue teaching from Grade 1 to 3 and English only from Grade 4 up. This means that students are transitioned into the second language medium of instruction from Grade 4 upwards and the mother tongue is no longer used as the medium of instruction. I, therefore, found that the translanguaging theory suits this study very well. Research has

shown that students and lecturers in higher education struggle when using English, their second language, for teaching and learning (Nziramanga 1999, Gora, 2013 and Kagwesage 2013). The translanguaging theory recognises the use of all the languages students bring to school to enhance their understanding of concepts even when the languages are not mandated as mediums of instruction by the language policy. The next subheading summarises this chapter.

## 4.6 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the translanguaging theory that guides the study indicating that the theory tries to bring social justice among students by allowing them to use the language practices at their disposal in order to enhance their learning and comprehension of concepts. The chapter also explained the key concepts used in this thesis which are English medium of instruction, Internationalisation ESL and EFL bilingualism and bilingual education. The concepts were found to help explain some important issues concerning the study. The next chapter discusses data presentation and it addresses the first study question: What are the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

## CHAPTER 5

### LECTURERS' EXPERIENCES ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF ENGLISH MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN A TEACHERS' COLLEGE

#### 5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I outlined the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that guide this study. This chapter presents and analyses the results of the study basing on data generated through interviews and focus group discussions. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) data analysis involves organising, accounting for and explaining the data in terms of the participant's definition of the situation. As a result, commonalities, relationships and differences across data were noted. This assisted me in analysing the data according to the emerging themes. All was in an attempt to respond to question one of the research regarding lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction (EMI) in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe. I found it best to present the data and immediately analyse it to avoid unnecessary repetition that is often characteristic of work in which data presentation and analysis are separated into two chapters. Data from the semi-structured interviews guided the presentation while data from the focus group discussions augmented it. This was done in line with qualitative research approach given by Cohen et al. (2011).

In this chapter, data is presented in accordance with the categories that emerged in relation to lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe. The categories were:

- The Department of Teacher Education and the Language policy
- The Oakford Teachers' College language policy
- The use of English and Shona code-switching in the lecture room
- Poor student participation in lectures
- Lecturers' views regarding English as medium of instruction
- Lecturers' competence of English use in the lecture room
- Teaching resources

## 5.2 The Department of Teacher Education and the language policy

The first theme is related to the question of the semi-structured interview which sought to find out whether lecturers were aware of the official position on the medium of instruction policy in higher learning in Zimbabwe. I was of the view that the lecturers' knowledge of the medium of instruction policy would influence the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI policy at Oakford Teachers' College.

It emerged from the data that some lecturers had very little knowledge about the language policy. They lacked the knowledge about the document in which the policy was stated. Through semi-structured interviews with all six participants, I learnt that all the participants were aware that English was the medium of instruction in higher education in Zimbabwe. It was interesting, however, to note that although all the six lecturers were aware that English was the medium of instruction in higher education, five of them claimed that they had never seen the document from the government concerning the medium of instruction policy in higher education.

Lecturer James said:

Yes I am. The information is not in writing that the medium of instruction in teachers' colleges is English. I have not seen a document but when one sees Zimbabwe's cultural policy, one knows that the medium of instruction is English.

Lecturer Nicky also said:

I don't know whether there is any written document but I know English should be used. From my experience, I have not seen any document.

In the same but differently expressed way, lecturer Chipso said:

I have heard about it, English. I don't have a particular document but it's just through hearsay and also from the syllabus and textbooks.

The fourth and fifth lecturers Tom and Trymore also concurred that they had not seen the policy documents.

To quote Lecturer Tom's words:

Yes it is English. I got the information from my experience. I haven't seen any document. The former principal encouraged us to use English.

Such responses from the five lecturers namely James, Nicky, Chipo, Tom and Trymore show that they had not seen any official document that contained the medium of teaching policy in Tertiary education in Zimbabwe. From the responses, it emerged, however, that there are many sources from where information about the medium of instruction policy can be found namely, text books and syllabus and also through colleagues and heads of institutions like principals.

The fact that lecturers who are the implementers of the language policy, claim that they had not seen any document concerning the medium of instruction policy in higher education, is in line with Tsui and Tollefson (2000). These researchers observe that policy is made at government level but implementers often have opportunity to use the policy only through syllabus and documents. This may mean that lecturers as implementers of EMI policy may have different knowledge, as they implement the policy according to their own understanding of the syllabus or textbooks which may differ from the policy makers' expectations. This may be so because of unavailability of a policy document that clearly outlines the policy and the implementation procedures.

Although the other five lecturers said that they had not seen any document concerning the medium of instruction policy in higher education, one out of the six lecturers, lecturer Jane made reference to the University of Zimbabwe, Department of Teacher Education Handbook (DTE) of 2014 and the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987. On answering the question, "Are you aware of the official position on the medium of instruction in higher learning in Zimbabwe? Where did you get the information from?" Lecturer Jane said:



I am quite aware, it is English. I got the information from the DTE handbook and also from the primary and secondary school where you need to use English from junior grades (from grade 4) through secondary school in all subjects except in language subjects like Shona and Ndebele.

Lecturer Jane made reference to the DTE handbook (2014, p. 15) which indicates that,

Diploma in education (primary) a three year programme is targeted at generalised teacher training for suitable post 'O' level candidates to teach primary school level (Grade 1-7) to pass this competitive, internationally recognised programme, candidates should satisfy examiners' expectations in the broad sections of teacher education competence.

As was indicated in earlier chapters, this quotation does not clearly state that English is the medium of instruction in higher education but implies that English is the medium of instruction. The use of the phrase '*internationally recognised programme*' in the DTE handbook (2014) implies that it is EMI. This is so because English is currently the internationally recognised medium of instruction. In other words, this finding from Jane means that lecturer Jane was very resourceful by identifying the DTE handbook as containing the language policy in teachers' colleges in Zimbabwe. As indicated in chapter one, DTE is responsible for conferring diplomas in teachers' colleges affiliated to the University of Zimbabwe. Thus, the DTE handbook contains the guidelines on how teachers' colleges should operate as well as the language policy.

I am thus justified to conclude that the other five lecturers who did not identify that the DTE handbook contains the language policy are not to blame. The lecturers cannot be blamed because as said earlier, the language policy is not clearly stated. It only needs lecturers like Jane who can read between the lines to recognize the statement which relates to the language policy.

Lecturer Jane also made reference to the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 subsection 3 which stipulates that, *from grade four upwards, the medium of instruction shall be English, while native languages are taught as subject.*

The 1987 Zimbabwe Education Act clearly stipulates that English is the sole medium of instruction from Grade four upwards, while indigenous African languages are taught as subjects. The phrase '*from grade four upwards*' does not clearly state at which level '*upwards*' refers to. One is bound to think that, since The 1987 Zimbabwe Education Act is mainly used in the primary and secondary schools in Zimbabwe, some lecturers might not have recognised that, '*from grade four upwards*' might refer to higher education as well. Hence it needed lecturers like Jane, who reads between lines to recognize that the Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 applies to higher education as well.

Despite the different responses given by participants on the policy document on the medium of instruction in higher education, I noted that there are four documents which reflect the EMI policy in higher education in Zimbabwe. Some of the documents, however, implicitly show that they are medium of instruction policy documents. The documents are:

- i. The Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987, which has been referred to earlier in this chapter.
- ii. The Ministry of Higher Education website, which simply states that English is the medium of instruction in higher education (Ministry of Higher Education 1998).
- iii. The Secretary's Circular Number 3 of 2003 dated 28 January 2002 which highlights that for 'O' level certificate to be considered complete, it should consist of at least five passes with a grade C or better including English and Mathematics.
- iv. University of Zimbabwe Department of Teacher Education (DTE) which confers diplomas to teachers, in its handbook (2014, p.15) which has been referred to again earlier in this chapter also implies that English is the medium of instruction in higher education in Zimbabwe.

The Secretary's Circular Number 3 spells out that one cannot access higher education (teachers' colleges included) without English. The circular thus does not explicitly show that English is the medium of instruction in higher education but implies that. As a result of this circular, all advertisements in higher education emphasise the need for one to have English language at 'O' level, hence implies that English is the medium of instruction in higher education.

Since the three aforementioned documents, that is, DTE handbook (2014), the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 and the Secretary's Circular of 2003 did not explicitly show that English is the medium of instruction in higher education, the lecturers in this study might have seen the documents, instead, the lecturers might not have realised that they are policy documents that contain the medium of instruction policy for tertiary education. This agrees with the observation by Gora (2013) and Makoni (2010) who note that Zimbabwe has no clear guiding principle on the medium of teaching and learning in higher education.

Lack of knowledge by lecturers about the four documents outlined above and their reference to having received information from the former principal of the college about the policy, may also mean that the documents might be in the offices of administrators without being availed to the lecturers who are the implementers of the policy. This leads me to the next theme on the medium of instruction policy at the teacher college which is in line with the second category that emerged from the data, the Oakford Teachers College language policy.

### 5.3 The Oakford Teachers' College language policy

A follow up question was asked on the semi-structured interview guide on whether there was a college policy document concerning the medium of instruction in higher education, at Oakford Teachers' college. I had anticipated that if the lecturers had not seen the policy document from the government at least they would have seen a college medium of instruction policy which guided them on how to conduct their lectures at their particular teachers' college. It emerged that all the participants had not seen any college policy document. I wondered how the lecturers operated without any official document concerning the medium of instruction policy.

### **5.3.1 None availability of the language policy**

Three out of the six lecturers Nicky, Trymore and Chipo clearly stated that they had not seen any college policy document on the language of instruction. Lecturer Chipo went on to say that:

When we were inducted on how to teach at the teachers' college, we were told by our seniors that we should use English.

Lecturer Trymore could not elaborate on how they operated without a language policy document, he simply said:

We just teach.

Lecturer Nicky simply said, "*Not that I know*" indicating that he had not seen any college language policy document. Such responses were clear evidence of their unawareness of the document at the college concerning the language policy.

### **5.3.2 Possibilities of the policy being available**

The other three lecturers, James, Jane and Tom said that they had not seen the college policy document but they felt it was there because of the way they responded to the question. Lecturer James said:

It would appear there is a language policy because there is much talk on the need to teach in English. Even in meetings we use English such that when marking assignments I have to correct English errors.

Such a response showed that the lecturer could have not seen the college medium of instruction policy document at the college, but through his observation of what was happening at the college, he was of the opinion that the policy could be there. In the same vein, lecturer Tom also indicated that there was evidence that the policy could be there but he had not seen it. He said:

It's not an elaborated policy but there is emphasis on the use of English at the college. Even in interviews for prospective students, they write an English proficiency test which shows that the medium of instruction is English.

Lecturer Jane also said:

I have no knowledge if it is there. I never came across it. We derive our policy from the national policy that is the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987, which states that from grade four upwards English is the official instructional language.

Lecturer Jane also indicated that she had not seen a college policy document but derived the policy from the national policy, that is, the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 which states that from grade four upwards English should be the medium of instruction. The continuous discussions on the need to have a communication skills programme at the college and the use of an English proficiency test to new students in the college shows that the administrators were aware that English was the medium of instruction in higher education in Zimbabwe and might have seen the documents.

The English proficiency test for new students was meant to ensure that students had some competences in the use of English that would enable them to handle learning in an EMI context in higher education. Through the discussion on the need to introduce a communication skills programme, the college administrators wanted to ensure that students were equipped with English communication skills. This would enable students to handle content learning in higher education, which is perceived to be more challenging than that at high school. I thus concluded that the college policy could be available in administrators' offices but may not have been made accessible to the lecturers who were supposed to make use of it when teaching.

The findings that emerged from the first and second categories showed mixed results on the lecturers' knowledge concerning the medium of instruction policy documents in higher education owing to the non-availability of the policy documents at the disposal of lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College. I observed that even when the lecturers claimed that they had not seen the policy documents, they were all lecturing in English. This, therefore, means that the participants knew somehow that the teachers' college was an EMI institution. That is the reason why they presented

their lectures in English although at times they code-switched between English and Shona.

I, therefore, concurred with the English expression that says that '*experience is the best teacher*', as noted in the responses by two lecturers, Nicky and Tom. These two lecturers clearly stated that they had learnt of the EMI policy through their experience in teaching at Oakford Teachers' College that is, from colleagues and the principal who encouraged lecturers to teach in English. In the same vein, lecturer James had also observed through his experience that the medium of instruction policy could be derived from textbooks that were all written in English. This made him infer that English was the medium of instruction in higher education in Zimbabwe. Hence, one can learn by observing what happens around him or her. This discussion, therefore, means that, the five lecturers who had not seen the language policy documents from the government as well as from the teachers' college had learnt of the medium of instruction policy through their experience in teaching in higher education. It also means that failure by lecturers to see the documents, might not mean that they were not available at the college.

I can, therefore, say that the policy documents might be in the administrators' offices without being disseminated to lecturers who are the implementers of the policy. This view is in line with Honberger (1996) who notes that policy is rarely accessible to practitioners working in the classroom. This however does not mean that the policies do not exist (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997). As a result of the inaccessibility of the policies to classroom practitioners, the practitioners end up implementing the policies according to their own way which in turn makes the practitioners have different experiences about the implementation of English medium of instruction. This leads me to the third category which required information on using English and Shona interchangeably in the lecture room.

#### 5.4 The use of English and Shona code-switching in the lecture room

It emerged from the results from the interviews and group discussions that code-switching can be used in the classroom, as a result of students or lecturers'

inadequacies in the English language. This theme is linked to a question that sought to establish how lecturers implemented the EMI in a teachers college.

#### **5.4.1 Students' shortcomings in learning through English**

It emerged from the semi-structured interviews that lecturers knew that they were expected to teach in English only. However, all the six lecturers acknowledged that, they at times used Shona, the mother tongue of most of the students whom they perceived to have problems in understanding concepts presented in English. This notion of using the students' mother tongue in teaching was echoed by Flowerdew et al. (2000), who write about lecturers' experiences at City University in Hong Kong and note that whenever lecturers found it difficult in teaching students who they regarded as having limited proficiency in English, they used mother tongue (Cantonese). This was also noted by Loucks-Havseley and Matsumoto (1999) that, in terms of implementing EMI, teachers can create their own style and methods in order to deliver successful lessons to students.

It emerged from semi-structured interviews that four lecturers namely James, Jane, Tom and Trymore agreed that lectures should be presented in English but when students showed that they had difficulties in understanding concepts, lecturers should use the mother tongue of students (Shona) to explain difficult concepts. It was through their experiences that the lecturers had discovered that if one teaches solely in English, some students would have problems in grasping the concepts. Such a view is reflected by McNamara (1973), who observes that, students who conduct their studies in a language which is not their mother tongue encounter serious difficulties because of their insufficient mastery of the language of instruction.

Failure to grasp concepts was realised on one side when students wrote assignments and short test, they did not perform well, when lectures were presented solely in English. On the other side, in an assignment or test which was written after students had been taught in both English and Shona, their mother tongue, they performed better.

Linked to the issue of code-switching in the lecture room, was a question that required lecturers' view about the implementation of EMI. I was of the view that

such a question would highlight facts about students' shortcomings in learning in English hence the need to code-switch between English and Shona. Lecturer Jane said:

My opinion is that preparation of notes should be in English, it is not written anywhere. Lectures are presented in English but some lecturers use Shona to emphasise because students' faces may show that they do not understand when you use English.

In the same vein, lecturer Tom also said:

Because there is no clear document, hence there is no guideline on how English should be used. We use English but when we realise that students do not understand, we use vernacular (Shona).

Lecturer James also said:

The implementation is not strict because in lectures we sometimes use Shona. Even students sometimes use Shona when asking and answering questions. Some of the students have deficiencies even in the assignments you can see some copying other students' assignments because they cannot write their own.

Lecturer Trymore had this to say:

I feel we need to teach in English because in the subject I teach, examinations are in English, hence students should be taught in English so that they become used, of course you may use Shona when you see students' facial expressions showing that they do not understand.

The responses from the four lecturers Jane, Tom, James and Trymore are clear evidence that lecturers code-switched between English and Shona to help student cope with the difficulties they had in using the English language in learning.

The four responses also show that the two documents, that is, the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 and the DTE handbook of 2014 that contain the medium of instruction policy do not stipulate how the EMI should be implemented.



This is so because those lecturers who had not seen the policy documents would have been made aware by their line managers about the English medium policy. Even lecturer, Jane, who had seen the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 and the DTE handbook of 2014 did not seem to have seen the implementation procedures in the documents. Thus, Jane and Tom indicated that there was no guideline on the implementation procedures, hence lecturers taught in a way they thought would enable students to understand. This was observed by Dearden and Zhao (2014) who indicate that in many countries the language policies have no organisational or pedagogical guidelines which might lead to effective implementation. The case of Zimbabwean EMI policy is different from the situation that is found at City University (City U) in Hong Kong where lecturers know that the official policy at the university was EMI (Flowerdew et al., 2000). The lecturers at City U were also aware that the policy was flexible to some extent that it allowed some Chinese to be used in lectures. Most lecturers liked the policy because of its flexibility and they utilised it to curb both the students and their own deficiencies in English. One lecturer at City U when asked the question, "*Do you know the policy?*" he replied that, he knew it was English and he did not have any problems in using it. However he felt that it would be good to use some Cantonese sentences to make the students comfortable in learning (Flowerdew et al., 2000).

The use of Shona and English code-switching in an EMI by lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College as indicated by lecturer Tom, Jane, James and Trymore was a result of students' inadequacies in English and was echoed by Knagg (2013). Knagg (2013) observes that as a result of students' inadequate command of English, some lecturers allowed code-switching in which more than one language is used in interactions. According to Knagg (2013) code-switching in lectures was lecturers' effort to balance the requirements to implement EMI, with their natural drive to give students the best education outcomes that are skills, knowledge and attitudes. Kagwesage (2013) also confirms that language used for teaching and learning should be a familiar language to students to enhance their acquisition of knowledge and understanding and development of their skills, in order for them to demonstrate their acquired knowledge effectively in assignments and examinations.

The issue of copying other students' assignments highlighted by lecturer James above, would not be experienced if students were taught in a familiar language. Copying other students' assignments may be as a result of rote learning that characterise learning in universities in Africa because most students use English as a second or foreign language which they have not mastered. Ngara (1982) notes that, children and even university students memorise concepts and terms they hardly understand.

Thus when students memorise concepts, it will be very difficult for them to come out with good assignments therefore resort to copying from other students whom they perceive to be better than them in terms of the use of English language.

From semi-structured interviews conducted on students' shortcomings in learning in English, I concluded that all lecturers understood that English was the medium of instruction in the teachers' college. However, policy and practice did not match since lecturers used both English and Shona code-switching in their lesson presentations. The main goal by lecturers was to ensure that students got best results in their learning. The issue of policy and practice was noted by Knagg (2013) who notes that people have a tendency to assume that if policy makers state that a certain context is EMI in policy statements and publicity materials then that is actually the case.

In using code-switching, lecturers will be violating the policy per se but will be trying to assist students so that they understand concepts better. Kagwesage (2013, p. 1) posits that in implementing EMI:

Although other spoken languages are not officially recognised as media of instruction in higher education, they can play a mediating role in content teaching and learning through responsible code-switching.

From the discussion above, I concluded that code-switching between English and Shona was very important in teaching if meaningful learning was to be achieved especially when students had problems in understanding concepts presented in English which is a second or foreign language to them.

For example Vinke (1995) notes that Dutch students who use English as a second language as medium of instruction seemed to negatively affect their understanding. In the same vein Byun et al. (2010) concur that EMI hindered students' acquisition of knowledge to some extent. Thus Flowerdew et al. (2000) and Chang (2010) agree that lecturers teaching in an English second language institution often code-switched between English and the mother tongue of students in order to help reduce students' level of anxiety in learning in a language which they do not understand. According to Flowerdew et al. (2000) and Chang (2010), it was important to code-switch and enable students to be comfortable in their learning and also help them understand concepts than sticking to the use of English only which would produce poor results. Therefore, the use of code-switching in teaching would create a friendly learning environment than sticking to policy which would create tension and an unfriendly atmosphere in the educational environment.

Therefore, it is important for lecturers who are responsible for the implementation of the EMI policy to decide on how they could successfully implement the policy. Chang (2010) in his study in Northern Taiwan at a private university observes that, "*Taiwanese professors at the university often switched from English to Mandarin, the native language of students through lessons for three reasons, when students looked confused, when students asked for explanation in Mandarin and when the concept introduced was difficult*" (Chang 2010, p. 67).

This, therefore, means that it is common among lecturers who use English as a second language to teach, to code-switch between English and the students' mother tongue. Lecturers at times switched from English to students' mother tongue when they recognised a problem, of comprehension of content among students. Thus the issue of policy was overridden by practice because lecturers felt the need to assist their students in coming out with good results at the end of a course. This was only found to be possible when students understood the concepts taught. Many studies have indicated that using the native language in explaining concepts in an EMI context produced good results (Flowerdew et al. 2000, Loucks-Havely and Matsumoto, 1999). As a result, most lecturers supported the policy in principle but whenever they had difficulties in instructing students whom they regarded as having

limited proficiency in English, they used the mother tongue (Flowerdew et al., 2000, Knagg, 2013 and Airey, 2000).

I also confirmed that code-switching in content teaching at Oakford Teachers' College in Zimbabwe was a norm as I moved along corridors. Hence code-switching between English and the mother tongue of students is not peculiar to Hong-Kong China and Europe and South Africa, but as a pedagogical tool, has been found to be useful worldwide, Zimbabwe included. The next subheading discusses lecturers' shortcomings in teaching through English.

#### **5.4.2 Lecturers' shortcomings in teaching through English**

This sub-theme is in line with a question that sought to find out lecturers' experiences on the implementation of the EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe particularly on the issue of code-switching. What emerged from the responses was that lecturers had some inadequacies in the English language. These inadequacies gave lecturers different experiences and had different stories to tell about their experiences. However at this juncture, I present data on lecturers' shortcomings in teaching in English.

It emerged from lecturers James, Jane and Trymore that lecturers had shortcomings in their lesson presentation due to their own inability to conduct lectures in English. The three lecturers indicated that lecturers' problems in presenting lectures in English came in various forms. Lecturer James said:

Most of these lectures are conducted in Shona because some lecturers have shortcomings in using English throughout a one and half hour lecture.

In the same vein, lecturer Jane said:

At times, there are certain aspects of a lecture that are difficult to express in English, hence there are moments when you fail to express yourself in English thus you use the mother tongue Shona. Most lecturers are not first language speakers of English therefore are comfortable in using Shona.

In agreement, lecturer Trymore also said:

There are times when I feel I should use Shona. I cannot teach through and through in English because of my inclination to Shona.

The sentiments from the three lecturers show that even lecturers have some limitations in using English language in their lecture presentations. As a result they resort to Shona the mother tongue of both lecturers and most students at the teachers college. This was also echoed by Vu and Burn (2014) when speaking about the Vietnamese Tertiary Lecturers who indicated that when lecturers perceived difficulties in instructional interaction, they resorted to code-switching where they reverted to Vietnamese. The use of the mother tongue by the lecturers was in an effort to express themselves clearly so that students would understand the concepts. According to Vu and Burns (2014), using the mother tongue in EMI programmes helped students to understand concepts quickly.

If students understood concepts they would be motivated to learn, hence success of EMI. Barnard and McLellan (2013) note that code-switching could offer efficient pedagogical and educational usage, when teachers and students share the first language. The focus group discussion also showed that through their experiences, the lecturers had learnt that the mother tongue was the best language to use in the teaching and learning situation for it enabled lecturers to express themselves fully. This resulted in students understanding concepts better. One lecturer, Jane, revealed that knowledge is within any language; hence it was possible to teach any subject in indigenous languages even without textbooks translated into indigenous languages of Zimbabwe.

Another lecturer Trymore, testified that,

Lecturers are preaching using English only as medium of teaching yet if you move along the corridors you hear teaching going on in Shona. If you ask why lecturers are code-switching, they say it's better to code-switch so that students understand concepts than teaching in English only when you cannot express yourself fully for students to understand.

The mismatch between policy and practice was viewed in two different dimensions by different scholars. On the one hand, Nziramasanga (1999, p. 169) when talking about the implementation of policy in higher education in Zimbabwe he notes that:

The implementation of the existing language of teaching and learning policy is confused and half-hearted, the one in which English is the official medium of teaching in schools and in higher education.

Nziramasanga's observation came as a result of some lecturers who were code-switching in their teaching. This, to Nziramasanga (1999) was confusion and half-hearted implementation of the policy.

In the same vein Brock-Utne (2007), discussing her experiences in teaching at the University of Dar as-Salam in Tanzania, was shocked to hear lecturers and students communicating in Kiswahili, their native language, yet the language of teaching and learning was English. Two aforementioned scholars, Nziramasanga and Brock-Utne believed that when the policy stipulates a language as a medium of instruction, lecturers were supposed to maintain the policy and teach in the stipulated language only.

However, several scholars note that teaching in a language which neither the teacher nor the student is proficient in, may lead to poor learning (Jensen and Thorgsen, 2011). This is so because when lecturers are linguistically inefficient in presenting content in a second language, students' understanding of the content could be affected negatively (Jensen and Thorgsen 2011). The next subheading focuses on poor students' participation in lectures.

## 5.5 Poor students' participation in lectures

Apart from lecturers' inadequacies in English, lecturers also noted that students failed to participate in class and in asking and answering questions due to language barrier. Lecturers Jane, James and Trymore highlighted that students failed to participate because they lacked English proficiency, they did not understand some of the terminology used hence did not understand concepts therefore did not participate in class discussions. Lecturer Jane said:

On students' side if you insist on the use of English only, they do not participate but if you open up they will use Shona and the discussion will be lively, which will result in them understanding concepts.

Lecturer James also said:

At times students fail to participate because they lack English proficiency hence do not understand some of the terminology used. In most instances lecturers and students think in their mother tongue but lecturers can quickly translate the thoughts into English, thus in a class discussion those who might have brilliant ideas may fail to come in. Hence the use of EMI shuts out some students in class discussions.

Lecturer Trymore concurred that students may not participate when they do not understand the concepts taught.

At times students may not understand concepts in English therefore at times I use Shona (said lecturer Trymore).

This, therefore, means that, in as much as lecturers would want to use English only, in teaching, there are instances when they should use the mother tongue to enable students to participate in class discussions. This was echoed by Clemensen (2010, p.35) speaking about students in Grade 8 and 9 in Zambia's Bwasana Basic school who says:

We are also concerned with the pupils participating, they have to participate in their own way and learn well when they participate.

In view of the above, teachers and lecturers may encourage students to participate using their mother tongue. Although books are printed in English and examinations are in English, lecturers felt that it was important to use the language that enabled students to participate in discussions. Participation in discussions would enable students to grasp the concepts taught.

A study by Mohamed (2013) at a Sri Lankan University where English is L2 also revealed that when lecturers insisted on using English only in class discussions,

students who could not use the English language effectively remained quiet. These students would, however, approach their tutors or demonstrators who conveniently used their mother tongue hence overcame their comprehension problems. Just like what was indicated by lecturers Jane, James and Trymore the study by Mohamed (2013) showed that students participated well in lectures where the lecturers were friendly with them and allowed them to use alternative language, for example, the mother tongue in class discussions as well as in asking and answering questions. Closer home, Paxton (2009) talking about the University of Cape Town commended that, unless students were given a chance to explore concepts through various languages, they would not really develop their own personal construction and even understanding of the concepts.

Another participant, lecturer Tom, also indicated that students had problems in using English language despite their lengthy background in using English in school. He said:

Because of colonisation, most students have an English background but still there are challenges especially in class discussions and written work.

There are punctuation problems, grammar, spelling, tense problems etc.

Lecturer Tom showed that due to the past history of colonialism in Zimbabwe, English was and is still accorded a higher status than indigenous African languages. Due to the higher status accorded to English in Zimbabwe, even when the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 indicates that pupils from Grade one to three are believed to be better instructed through their native language, some parents wish their children to be instructed in English right from Grade one (Mnkandla, 2000). Makoni and Mashiri (2006, p.407) concur that,

The continued importance attached to English even in post-independent Zimbabwe reflects a disconcerting continuity with pre-colonial language policies in which, in part as a result of the demands of African parents, English continued to play a significant role.



Therefore, some students in urban areas and former white only schools use English as medium of teaching from Grade one. Thus lecturer, Tom, notes that even when students were exposed to English language in schools from Grade one up to tertiary level, they still have problems in using the English language effectively in their academic studies.

This is also noted by Gora (2013, p.127-128) who notes that:

It is quite shocking to note that some students at colleges and universities who have been exposed to English for long periods were unable to communicate proficiently in English.

Despite those primary schools that offered EMI from Grade one, The Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 also indicates that English should be used as medium of instruction from Grade four upwards. This means that those pupils who received instruction in English from Grade one would have been exposed to English for about thirteen years before they get to tertiary institutions while those who received instruction in English from Grade four upwards would have been exposed to English for about ten years. Hence students, who are at higher education institutions of learning in Zimbabwe, would have been exposed to English medium for between ten and thirteen years before they go to tertiary institutions. This is the reason why lecturer Tom mentioned the long English background. Thus, when lecturers noted that despite their students' English background, they had problems in grasping concepts, participating well in class discussions, hence had no other option except to code-switch between English and Shona when teaching, to enable students to have lively discussions in class as well as help them grasp concepts. This would in turn enable them to present content rich assignments though with some grammatical errors as noted earlier.

As indicated by Jane, James, Trymore and Tom from the above extracts from semi-structured interviews, it emerged that because of their poor command of the English language, students did not participate in class discussions. They could not participate in class due to their limited oral proficiency in the English language.

Lecturer Tom also traced the cause of students' limited proficiency in the English language to the students' background. Lecturer Tom said:

They are not very confident, they do not communicate in English in their day to day communication, hence when it becomes medium of instruction, they have problems, they can mix with Shona or they give incomplete sentences.

Lecturer Tom noted that students could not communicate effectively in English because they did not communicate in English in their day-to-day life at home even at school. Instead, they used Shona most of the time. Even in class discussions, students opted to use Shona in order to express themselves clearly. If they attempted to communicate in English, they gave incomplete sentences.

The issue of students' background in the use of English was also noted by Paahla (2014) at the University of South Africa (UNISA). Paahla (2014) notes that, the students' problem with English emanated from their background. Most of the students in Zimbabwe teachers' colleges share similar background with students at UNISA that, they were never in contact with native speakers of English at home, primary and secondary school. This thus contributed a lot in students' poor proficiency in English as noted by lecturer Tom.

Still on students' insufficient command of English, lecturer Jane also traced back the problem to students' high school days. Lecturer Jane said:

Our students now write local examinations at 'O' level and 'A' level which are offered by the local examination board, the Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council (ZIMSEC). In these examinations, students 'Shonarise' (using an English form that is combined with Shona) the English.

Lecturer Jane claimed that in these examinations, the students wrote dilute English, "they *Shonarise*" English to use her coined word. This means an English version which is a mixture of Shona and English. Some Zimbabweans would call it '*Sho- English*' to show that it is an English version which comprises English and Shona.

From the semi-structured interviews, it emerged that it is important for students to understand the information taught in their indigenous languages for this ensures mastery of concepts which would in turn help them develop educationally. This is in line with social justice in higher education which demands instruction in the mother tongue at all levels, because the mother tongue inculcates critical thinking (Gora, 2013). The next subheading looks at lecturers' views regarding English as medium of instruction.

### 5.6 Lecturers' views regarding English as medium of instruction

This theme sought to explore lecturers' views regarding EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe. All six lecturers agreed that it was important to teach in English for several reasons. Lecturer James and Trymore agreed that there was need to stick to English when teaching in higher education because it was the policy requirement. One of the reasons was that the target language (English) was supposed to be used so that students practiced the use of English. This was so because, assignments and examinations are written in English hence it was necessary to use English in delivering lectures so that students became familiar with the English language. Lecturer Trymore said:

I feel we should teach in English because examinations are in English therefore students should be instructed in English so that they become used to the English language.

Speaking on the same aspect, Lecturer James indicated that if students practiced the use of English, it would help them to do well in assignments and examinations. The lecturers felt that if students used English in learning, they would be able to express themselves clearly in English orally and even in written work. Therefore, these lecturers thought in line with the English saying which says "*practice makes perfect,*" which means that continuous practice of anything enables one to become an expert in that thing.

Lecturer James said:

Examinations are written in English therefore, English should be the medium of instruction. English should be used so that students practice

the use of English, this will help them to express themselves in assignments and examinations which are in English.

The other reason for teaching in English was indicated by lecturer Nicky who said:

English is important because students will be able to teach in any English medium institution even outside Zimbabwe.

Lecturer Nicky noted that they should teach in English to equip their students with skills that would enable them to teach in English medium of instruction institutions locally, continentally and internationally. This is in line with the issue of internationalisation of higher education. Jane said:

I think English is an international language which allows students to function in any society. More so, students come from different parts of the country that have different linguistic backgrounds therefore English is the best since it is a neutral language.

This finding is in line with Vinke, Snippe and Jochems (1998), who state that internationalisation of education, is important because it facilitates exchange of knowledge which would also shape international collaboration. In addition, internationalisation of education facilitates the exchange of knowledge and culture which has a constructive effect on the value of education. Coleman (2011) also echoed the same sentiments when he notes that in Sub-Saharan African countries, English increases employability, facilitates migration, studying abroad, unlocks development opportunity and helps them access crucial information and also acts as an impartial language.

Thus, as noted above, it is important to teach in English to ensure that students are marketable when they finish school. They would be able to find employment anywhere in the world.

Lecturer Jane also felt that since students came from different linguistic backgrounds, it was important to use English to cater for their linguistic differences. Though students and lecturers had problems in using English effectively, lecturer Jane felt that there was no other option but to use it since it is a neutral language,

which Coleman (2011) calls an impartial language. The issue of an impartial language was noted by Chingwaru (2012) who quotes Mudenge, the late Minister of Higher Education in Zimbabwe, in his speech at Bulawayo Polytechnic graduation ceremony in 2012 who said that, "In countries like Zimbabwe, where people speak different languages, English plays an important role in communication between people of different linguistic backgrounds and also helps to unify them. Thus English acts as an impartial language and helps unify people".

Another lecturer Nicky said:

As of now, no concept has been translated into indigenous languages. All material in the library is in English and if we start to translate now, we will miss some of the concepts. It is a process, imagine the amount of literature in the library to translate into indigenous languages is a challenge and almost impossible.

Lecturer Nicky viewed translation of all books in the college library as impossible due to the economic constraints in Zimbabwe. However another lecturer, lecturer Tom, in a focus group discussion said, "*We need to decolonise our minds and attitudes so that we can be like the Chinese and the Japanese*".

Lecturer Tom noted that there was need to decolonise the minds and attitudes of lecturers in order for them to take steps in attaching great importance to indigenous languages.

From the focus group discussions, lecturers agreed on officialising English as a language of instruction because there are many languages in Zimbabwe. Thus using one may appear as if one language is given supremacy over others. As a result English was viewed as a neutral language. Another lecturer, Tom indicated that due to the influence of colonial history of Zimbabwe, Zimbabweans are not yet in a position to use their native languages as mediums of teaching and learning. This is so because new concepts have not yet been translated into indigenous languages.

Lecturer Trymore echoed a different sentiment from other lecturers that native African tongues can be used as mediums of teaching. He said, "*Apart from using*

*English only, there was need to use Shona when one notices that students' facial expressions indicated that they did not understand concepts being taught."*

Nziramasa (1999) also notes this in his survey of the implementation of the English medium of instruction in higher education in Zimbabwe. After noticing the difficulties that lecturers and students had in the teaching and learning in English, Nziramasa (1999) recommended the use of the indigenous African languages alongside English to facilitate students' grasp of concepts. The next section deals with lecturers' competences of English use in the lecture room.

### 5.7 Lecturers' competences of English use in the lecture room

One of the themes that emerged from the findings was the lecturers' competences of English use in the lecture room. What emerged from the semi-structured interviews was that, most lecturers were very confident in presenting their lectures in English. Two main views emerged, that some were confident due to their lengthy experience in teaching in higher education. The other view was a result of the subject area in which some lecturers taught which did not demand the use of a lot of English language in teaching.

Some lecturers like James, Nicky and Jane indicated that their confidence in teaching in English was increased due to their massive experience in teaching in teachers' colleges particularly at Oakford teachers' college. Lecturers Nicky, James and Jane had almost a similar view but the view was expressed differently. Lecturer James said:

Through massive experience, I am now confident in teaching in English. Even when I mark assignments, I am able to correct students' grammatical errors. Some of the students are good in English such that I can use some of their expressions hence teaching in English is a learning experience.

Lecturer James said that through massive experience in teaching in the teachers' college, he was then very confident in using English to the extent that when he marked assignments, he was able to correct students' grammatical errors. Lecturer James went on to say that some of the students were good in English, he said he

copied some of their expressions and used them when teaching, thus to him teaching in English was a learning experience.

Lecturer Nicky said: Having taught for several years, I am now confident.

Lecturer Jane also said:

When I first became a lecturer, I was not confident in presenting lectures in English but now I am comfortable.

Lecturer Nicky indicated that having taught for several years in the teachers' college, he was confident and comfortable in presenting lectures in English. Lecturer Jane also indicated that when she became a lecturer for the first time in the teachers' college she was not confident in teaching in English, but due to experience she was then very comfortable.

What I concluded from the three lecturers was that when all the three first taught in higher education, they struggled to use English language in teaching. Now that they had taught at Oakford teachers' college for a long period, they could confidently use English in teaching. Hence their lengthy stay in the field improved their English language competence. I also concluded that the three lecturers were very honest in indicating that during their first years as lecturers in teachers colleges, they were not confident in presenting lectures in English. This is in line with the assumption that I made in chapter three in the initial stage of selecting participants from my study.

I indicated that I selected lecturers who had taught at the college for ten years and above. My assumption was that their lengthy stay might have improved their experience in using English language in teaching and would be more knowledgeable about the implementation of the English medium of instruction in a teachers' college.

Another lecturer, Chipso indicated that she was comfortable in using English because in her subject area, Physical Education (PE), there was less talking since she gave coaching points (instructions) most of the time, therefore there were not many communication problems. Lecturer Chipso said:

I am comfortable because in PE there is not much talking but we will be giving coaching points as a result I have no problem with the English language.

The issue of language proficiency in Physical Education was confirmed by Roberts (1995) when discussing transitional bilingual education. He said that in this model, the learner is initially taught content classes in his/her first language and is taught Physical Education and Art in English because these subjects require less language proficiency. Therefore, lecturer Chipo was open enough to indicate that there was less language needed in teaching Physical Education, therefore she did not have problems in using English only in teaching the subject.

On the interview guide, there was a question which asked how lecturers felt when delivering their lessons in English. This was a follow up to the lecturers' view about teaching in the medium of English. With such a question, I thought lecturers would reveal their attitude towards teaching in English, which would in turn reflect their experiences in using English in an EMI context. There was not much said by lecturers on their feelings when delivering their lessons in English. Most of the lecturers indicated that they were comfortable in using the English language in teaching. Lecturer Chipo said:

I feel comfortable. I feel this is my chance to talk to them in a way to motivate them well.

The facial expressions displayed by lecturer Chipo as she uttered the above words showed that she was proud that she was confident in using English language in her lessons. The tone of the sentence "*My chance*" however suggests that it was her chance to demonstrate her linguistic capabilities to students who were struggling in using the language. It was also her chance to show off among students who lacked English proficiency. "*In a way to motivate them*" is a sign that firstly she acted as a model which the students should emulate. Secondly, the students would not reach the same level like her in using English in teaching or communicating in any academic setting. Thus, lecturer Chipo in a way felt proud that she had mastered English language, the language of the ex-colonial master. Awoniyi (1981, p.25) notes



that in colonial times most Africans erroneously took formal education as related to the ability to read, write and speak English as a way of matching their mentors in everything.

This colonial mentality is still envisaged today in some lecturers who still want to maintain that English be used as the medium of teaching yet many studies, for example Kagwesage (2013), Gora (2013) and Ngara (1982) have revealed that it yields poor results at all levels of education including higher education.

Lecturer Nicky felt that he was very comfortable in using English in delivering lessons in English. He, however, sympathised with students who lacked the English proficiency skills but it seemed he did not want to code-switch, he said;

I have taught for many years but my sympathy is with students who at times feel I should teach in Shona. Instead, I slow down the rate of my delivery, reorganise the sentences so that the slow ones would catch up.

I noted that lecturer Nicky was also a bit proud of his mastery of the English language, to the extent that he made sure that he would not code-switch in his lesson delivery. This was done probably as a way of encouraging the students so that they would improve their English language use. More so it might have been a way of making them understand concepts. Lecturer Nicky thus as a way of helping students understand concepts presented in English, slowed down his delivery rate, reorganised the sentence structure to suit the level of students and adjusted the language.

Lecturer Nicky's sentiments were observed by Yeh (2012) in his study of lecturers' experiences in Taiwanese universities. Yeh (2012) notes that lecturers in their teaching included language practices such as adjusting language for example slowing the rate of lesson delivery, simplifying sentence structures and restricting choice of vocabulary, simplifying context for example reducing density of new information. These practices were meant to assist students in understanding concepts.

From the above discussion, I noted that though lecturer Nicky maintained that he should teach in English only, he was also concerned with students' mastery of concepts. This showed a considerate behaviour which in turn assisted students in their learning experience as well.

Interestingly, unlike James, Jane, Nicky and Chipu who said were confident in English as medium of instruction, lecturer Trymore was honest to state that he was not confident in English but felt that he met the minimum requirements for one to be able to teach in an EMI context. Lecturer Trymore said, "*I am not very competent in English but I feel I meet minimum requirements*". Very few lecturers would say this openly that they are not confident in using English. In most cases lecturers considered themselves to have good English skills while they blamed the students for poor English skills.

Therefore, as indicated earlier, lecturer Trymore was very honest in stating that he was not confident in English. Trymore's view that he was not confident in English was different from the case at City University in Hong Kong where Flowerdew et al. (2000) note that there was evidence that lecturers used the mother tongue because they also struggled to use English which was their L2. But none of the lecturers in Flowerdew's (2000) study reported that they used the mother tongue to make students understand the content better as well as saving time. All lecturers reported that they used the mother tongue to help students grasp the concepts of that subject. The next subheading looks at teaching resources.

## 5.8 Teaching resources

From data generated through the semi-structured interviews, it emerged that at Oakford Teachers' College, the library was very rich with a lot of computers, textbooks, Electronic books (E-books) as well as the internet. However, lecturers complained that the college lacked some important resources which would help improve students' communication skills, such as a communication skills centre and a language laboratory.

### **5.8.1 Availability of resources**

One of the semi-structured interview question, sought to establish whether Oakford Teachers' College had adequate resources to facilitate the implementation of EMI programmes. The availability of resources would help students to improve their language proficiency. This would possibly help them improve their participation in class discussions. Which would in turn, help to remove lecturers' outcry that students' poor English proficiency reduced the rate of their lecture delivery.

From the semi- structured Interviews, it emerged that the college library was very rich. Four out of six participants agreed that the library had many resources. Some of the responses given were that:

The library is very rich and has E-books. But the timetable is packed that students do not have time to visit the library to enrich them on the language. (Lecturer Jane)

In agreement with Jane, lecturer Trymore confirmed:

The library has books and the internet.

Lecturer Tom said:

On average there is literature, there is internet in English for learners to develop. Most resources in the library are in English.

Lecturer Chipso said:

The library has books, there is internet and E-books.

The sentiments passed by the four lecturers are clear evidence that the library at the teachers' college has a considerable amount of literature which could assist students to improve their English proficiency. The literature includes text-books, novels and E-books.

The four lecturers indicated that the library has internet, E-books and textbooks. This made me enthusiastic as to why all of them referred to the library only as if internet cannot be accessed anywhere else in the college. From the focus group discussions, it emerged that internet could be accessed anywhere around the teachers' college

that is, in the lecture rooms, hostels and playgrounds. The challenge reflected was that most students had to get into the library in order to access them.

This was so because most of the students did not have devices like laptops and cell phones that could link them to the internet. Such students did not have any alternative except to visit the library. As indicated earlier in chapter one, that the college enrolled students from different parts of Zimbabwe most of them came from poor backgrounds. This means that most of the guardians were peasant farmers who struggled to put food on their tables. Such students could not afford buying laptops and advanced cell phones that could help them access the internet anywhere around college.

Therefore, such students had to get into the library so as to access the computers which would link them to the internet. This is the reason why all the lecturers referred to the library as rich with internet and E-books.

Another challenge of accessing the internet and E-books was highlighted by lecturer Jane, who said, "*The time table is packed.*" Jane indicated that the timetable was packed to the extent that students did not have enough time to visit the library to enrich them on the language. This is a challenge in that those students, who did not have laptops, could not get into the library to access the internet for several reasons given below. From the focus group discussions, it emerged that school ends at 16:30. Since the majority of the students at Oakford Teachers' College are non- resident, they could not visit the library after 16:30. These students would be rushing home due to transport problems experienced in most residential suburbs of the City of Harare. Thus though the resources are available, most students cannot access them. As a result, students could not communicate well in English and could not fully participate in class discussions, write good assignments, ask or answer questions in oral discussions due to the language problem.

### **5.8.2 Lack of other resources**

Apart from the library which was found to be rich in internet and E-books, at Oakford Teachers' College, from the semi-structured interviews, it emerged that there were other resources which were useful in developing students' English skills but were not

available at the college. These resources include a communication skills centre and a language laboratory. If these resources were available at the teachers' college, some lecturers felt that they would go a long way to help improve students' communication skills. Two out of six lecturers interviewed indicated that lack of a communication skills centre and a language laboratory hindered the communication skills of students. Lecturer Nicky said:

There is lack of perception on how to improve students' communication skills, students should be taught how to speak English in a language laboratory. The college might require a language laboratory.

What lecturer Nicky seems to suggest is that there should be a communication skills centre at the college to enable students to be taught communication skills. This would improve students' listening and speaking skills, hence increase their comprehension of concepts. Nicky seems to suggest that a language laboratory was also necessary at the college, for it would assist students on pronunciation and articulation of certain vocabulary. This would improve students' speaking skills. Nicky's statement challenges the administrators at the college to rise and assist students, by availing the two facilities which he feels would help improve students' listening and speaking skills. I noted that knowledge of a language tend to increase students' comprehension of concepts for they will have fully mastered the language skills. If students mastered the language, they might also be in a position to participate in class discussions through asking and answering questions. Students might also be in a position to write good expressions which would result in good assignments. This would develop students academically hence avoid rote learning which is characteristic of students who have not mastered the language (English).

In a similar but differently expressed way, lecturer James said:

I think communication could be improved by other sources which would teach communication skills, how to pronounce or articulate some of the sentences. During our time, we were taught to speak properly .We were taught by White teachers. Our white teachers would encourage us to

write short sentences for example 'Mugo felt nervous.' When I teach, I always make reference to that.

This statement shows that James, just like Nicky suggests that a communication skills centre and a language laboratory were necessary at the college. These would help students improve their pronunciation as well as articulation of certain English words. Pronunciation and articulation increase confidence in one using a language. This is so because the errors of pronouncing English words, at times, result in messages being misrepresented hence would be misunderstood by listeners.

Lecturer James indicated that, during the time he was trained to be a teacher at another teachers' college in Zimbabwe, they were taught to speak properly. This seems to suggest that they were taught proper pronunciation and articulation of words. James also stated that they were taught by white teachers. The term '*white teachers*' seems to suggest that they were taught by '*native speakers*' of English who could speak the language and pronounce the words properly. As a result students would emulate their teachers and in the end became competent in using the English language in the academic field.

The issue of 'native speaker' is highlighted by Paahla (2014) speaking about students at the University of South Africa that, the students' problem with English emanates from the fact that they were not exposed to native speakers of English at school. Instead they were taught by second language speakers of English, who also struggled to use the English language. Thus according to Paahla (2014), being taught by a native speaker seemed to have greater advantages in that one would learn the language from the native speaker who used the first not a second language. This also seems to suggest that a communication skills centre manned by teachers who are capable of using the English language would be an advantage to students. Teachers who can pronounce and articulate the English sentences properly that is, in a native like way, would help students improve their English language skills.

Evidence from James' answers that, "*Our white teacher would encourage us to write short sentences for example, Mugo felt nervous*", is a short but loaded sentence which can only be uttered by one who has fully mastered the English language.

When lecturer James says, "*When I teach, I always make reference to it*", seems to suggest that he had mastered the English language because he had been taught by a native speaker of English language. Lecturer James was now in a position to coach others to use the English language properly. Therefore, as James suggests, communication skills centre manned by competent users of English language could also help students develop communication skills. This might as indicated earlier facilitate the grasp of concepts, improve students' confidence in using English language in class discussions and enable them to write short sentences in assignments.

From the above discussion, two views emerged, that, a communication skills centre manned by competent users of English, would improve students' English language proficiency and that a language laboratory would also help students to pronounce words properly, which would help them utter English sentences correctly.

## 5.9 Conclusion

In this chapter, findings based on the first study question, 'What are the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?' were presented. It was noted that most of the lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College were very confident in teaching through English. This is influenced by their teaching through the English medium for several years. Most of the lecturers' challenges in the implementation of EMI were that students' language barrier affected their lecture delivery in that, students could hardly understand concepts. This resulted in students presenting poorly written assignments, to the extent that some students who could not cope ended up plagiarising other students' assignments. Plagiarism by students increased lecturers' work load for they had to ask the students who would have plagiarised to re-write the assignments which the same lecturers had to re- mark.

The findings also revealed that due to students' communication problems, there was need for the teachers' college to have a communication skills centre and a language laboratory. The two facilities as suggested, would improve students' communication skills which would in turn improve their participation in class discussions and also improve their expressions in assignments. Data on how lecturers are affected by their experiences in teaching through English will be presented in the next chapter.



## CHAPTER 6

### THE WAYS IN WHICH LECTURERS ARE AFFECTED BY THEIR EXPERIENCES IN TEACHING THROUGH THE MEDIUM OF ENGLISH

#### 6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I presented data on lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction (EMI) in a teachers' college. The second research question will be addressed in this chapter. Mainly, I will focus on the data generated through observations, while data obtained through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions will augment them as a way of triangulating the data. The following categories are used in the discussion:

- Content taught.
- Lecturer and student activities.
- The use of English and Shona code-switching in the lecture room.
- Students' participation when taught through English.
- Resources.

#### 6.2 The ways in which lecturers are affected by their experiences when teaching through the medium of English

##### 6.2.1 Content taught

Data generated through observations has established that all the lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College are giving the works that match the standards at a higher education institution of learning. I observed two lectures for each of the six lecturers teaching Mathematics, Physical Education and Theory of Education respectively to third year level students. The lessons were observed between January and March 2017. Each lecture was one and half hours long.

I noted that the mastery of content by students depended largely upon the language that was used as medium of instruction. All the six participating lecturers presented their lectures in English although they at times switched over to Shona. This is in line with what the four lecturers namely, Jane, James, Trymore and Tom (pseudonyms)

said during the interviews. These lecturers pointed out that they mainly used English as medium of instruction when lecturing but they often used Shona, the mother tongue of most of the students at Oakford Teachers' College for two reasons. The first reason was that lecturers used Shona when they could not express themselves clearly in English. The second reason was that they switched to Shona when they noticed that students had problems in grasping the concepts taught in English.

However, the other two lecturers, Chipo and Nicky (pseudonyms), maintained what they had said during the interviews; that they teach entirely in English. The forthcoming discussions will focus on dialogues to illustrate how teachers teach. It is vital at this juncture to state that every time I illustrate by using the lecturer- students dialogue, I adopted the letter L for the lecturer designated LA, LB etc. for different lecturers while S1 S2 etc. is for students and S for the whole class.

#### 6.2.1.1 Content taught in Mathematics

Some of the themes that were taught in Mathematics were: Preliminary Mathematics; The Home Environment; Society; Syllabus Content Break-down; Rational; Pre-number concept and how children learn numbers. These themes were taught by lecturer Trymore (LA) and Tom (LB) respectively.

In one of the Mathematics lessons at third year level, I observed lecturer Trymore (LA) presenting a lecture on the topic 'Preliminary Mathematics.' My main focus was to observe the ways in which lecturers are affected by their experiences in teaching through English. Lecturer Trymore introduced his lesson by telling students that the topic for the day was 'Preliminary Mathematics', and he asked the students to write the topic in their note books.

LA: (Writes the subheading) 'The home environment' on the chalkboard. He begins by stating that: the home environment is the packed mathematics laboratory littered with assortment of materials and objects that enhance the acquisition of Mathematical concepts e.g. lets' list the materials and objects.

S1: Crops!

S2: Toys!

LA: (Interrupts): Television, utensils that are used in the kitchen etc.

LA: If a child who has not yet gone to school, if he goes to the kraal can notice that our cattle are missing but cannot give specific numbers but can tell that they are missing. Asks himself or herself where have they gone? We do not want to develop mathematical concepts, consciously and otherwise, like it or not children just learn as they play.

S: (Murmur) mm... 'A! Seiko zvichidaro?' (Why is it like that?)

LA: If you get to a bus stop with a smart child he or she will play in the dirt. Children are not worried about the appearance hence teachers should allow children to play.

S: All Laugh.

LA: The curious little people have an unquenchable appetite for new knowledge, and deep desire to explore and experiment, learn about and investigate anything they can discover the abundant phenomenon on their environment (their world of play). Explains in Shona; Vana vanoda kuinvestigeta (Children want to investigate.), they want to learn, boy and girl want to play together but later when they go to the toilet they discover that they are different. They are already learning. Children have one thing on them before they go to school, they learn the numbers in the surrounding environment

S: (All laugh).

LA: Of course, the type of home environment influences the quality and quantity of learning that the child encounters and gets, acquires and assimilates before coming to school. If your child does not have blocks go and get them for free at a place called Mbare. Match boxes, empty bottles, give them, so that they play.

'How children learn Mathematics'

The type of learning that will take place in a classroom is determined by several factors, these include the learning environment, personal development and social political climax.

From the except above, it emerged that the content taught was in line with the standard at a higher education institution of learning particularly a teachers' college. As indicated earlier in chapter one, students who graduate at this Teachers' College will teach at primary schools from the first to the seventh grade, therefore the content is in line with what primary school teachers should learn.

I also observed that English language was mainly used in Mathematics by lecturer Trymore, but the lecturer did not clearly explain the content such that students did not understand the content taught. This affected lecturer Trymore negatively because students did not ask questions when given the chance to do so. It appeared that students were interested more in writing notes than in asking questions. This could have been due to the fact that the students did not have the skills to ask questions in the English language, possibly, due to their lack of proficiency in English.

Failure to ask questions in a lecture delivered in English was observed by Chang (2010) at a Taiwanese university as an avoidance technique by students who have insufficient command of the English language. Chang says students instead simply wrote notes as the lecturer taught, as a way to avoid the teacher. I thus noted that the language used for teaching affected lecturers negatively because students who were supposed to master the content taught seemed not to clearly understand the content in English. Therefore this meant that lecturer Trymore's effort of imparting content that is essential to students when they go out to teach after finishing the course was going to be problematic.

In the same lesson, lecturer Trymore explained how children learn Mathematics; 'environment and personal development'. Lecturer Trymore explained that the type of learning that takes place in a classroom environment is also determined by several factors. Among them was the learning environment, personal development

as well as the society. The lecturer wrote the sub-heading '*Society*' on the chalk board and started explaining:

LA: (Society) Ezeu (1985) proclaims that a human being is a social being capable of being influenced by others. That is why we hear a saying that 'No man is an island' explains; it means people interact with other people in the society to the extent of using obscene language which you do not like as a parent. Hence you need to negotiate with the child so that he or she learns the good words because they are still developing e.g. if we are in Mathematics, let's call this sign a plus or minus- a lot of jokes are cracked by the lecturer.

S: (Laugh exclaiming) 'zvakaoma' 'it is difficult'

LA: Society means; (writes on the chalk board)

- Extended family
- Peers
- Relatives
- Adults

All the above influence the child's learning environment.

S: (Write notes silently).

The extract above shows that in most of the time, it was lecturer Trymore who was talking while students were busy writing notes. Lecturer Trymore did not ask any questions as he was teaching. I then asked him after the lesson, why he did not ask questions as he was teaching and he said, "*It will be a sheer waste of time because the students will not give answers, so I just dictate notes to save time.*"

What lecturer Trymore seemed to be saying was that he was afraid that time would be wasted when he asked questions in his lecture which the students would not answer. Instead, he opted to just dictate notes so that at least the students capture the important points. It was lecturer Trymore's hope that students would read the notes later so that they understand. Therefore, lecturer Trymore was affected by the limited time he had in order to teach his content. This in turn affected him negatively in that there was no interaction between students and him in the lecture.

Therefore it was difficult to determine whether the students had mastered the content taught. The main goal for teaching is for students to comprehend the content taught, if this does not happen, then the lesson becomes a failure. However apart from time factor, I observed that lecturer Trymore could not deliver his content in an interactive manner because he himself lacked the English language proficiency that would allow a two way communication between him as a lecturer and his students, thus his lecture was not a success.

In another Mathematics lesson at third year level, lecturer Tom (LB) presented a lesson on '*Syllabus; Content Breakdown; Rational*'. The English language was used in teaching. The following dialogue was noted between the lecturer and the students:

LB: (The lecturer introduces the lesson by stating that the day's topic is syllabus content breakdown). It's important to know the kind of content, assessment you need to do so that you know what to teach. It's functional and practical.

S: (Students write notes).

LB: As I speak, ask questions. (Dictates notes).

Maths is one of the learning areas in junior school which provides a foundation for mathematics skills to be used in everyday life. This learning area intends to foster knowledge, routine manipulation, understanding, application and problem solving skills as well as develop a positive attitude towards the use of technology.

- This introductory remark outlines the reasons for teaching mathematics in primary school. If you are not mathematical there is disorder but mathematics brings order.

The next sub- heading

*'Rational'*

- Mathematics is a key fundamental tool, aiming at developing Zimbabweans for the life of being industrious in the 21<sup>st</sup> century hence as a country, the growth of highly trained manpower is important to support an invention and knowledge driven financial system, that's the rational.

(Asks a question): Can someone make an interpretation of what we are saying?

S1: Benefits.

LB: Yes, we are learning for innovation and for the ever-changing world.

LB: (Continues to dictate notes);

An understanding of mathematical concepts and ability to apply these concepts in practical concepts are valuable attributes which enable new skills. Can someone explain this?

S2: Mathematics is a vital component for one to adopt.

LB: Yes, Maths is not only about numbers, self-confidence is a result of mathematical reasoning; a number of people who commit suicide are a result of Maths deficiency.

S: (Laugh and comment): These people are proud.

It emerged from the extract above that the content taught was clearly presented. The English language that was used seemed to be at the level of the students such that the students were able to answer some questions asked by lecturer Tom. Although in most of the times lecturer Tom dictated notes, he at times asked questions which students answered to show that they were following up the explanations given by the lecturer. Thus, I observed that lecturer Tom could use the English language effectively, and evidently, his lecture was a success.

I have discussed two lessons in this section as examples of the content taught in Mathematics at third year level. Conclusively, from the above discussion, I can say that the level of the lecturers' proficiency in the English language affected positively or negatively the lecturers' experiences in teaching through English.

On one hand, lecturers who could use English language effectively influenced the understanding of the content by students. Such lecturers according to Vinke, Snippe and Jochems (1998), were flexible and were able to create a free and relaxed

atmosphere which would enable students to acquire expected content with ease. On the other hand, lecturers who could not use the English language effectively made it difficult for students to comprehend the content. Therefore, in most of the times they did all the talking. According to Alder (1987) genuine learning is active not passive. It is a process of discovery whereby the student is the main agent not the teacher. Thus, when students are passive in a lecture, it is difficult for students to comprehend the content. If students fail to comprehend the content taught, the value of the lecture is lost; it becomes a failure. The lecturer who presents an ineffective lecture is thus considered ineffective by the students or by the administration (Chireshe, 2011).

#### 6.2.1.2 Content taught in Physical Education (P.E.)

Some of the content taught in PE at third year level was Fitness; '*Physiology of Exercise*'; '*Energy and System's*'. These themes were taught by lecturer Chipo (LC) and Nicky (LD) respectively.

I observed lecturer Chipo (LC) teaching a P.E. lecture on the topic 'Fitness'.

LC: (The lecturer wrote the topic for the day on the chalk board and asked): what is fitness?

S: (Students remain silent).

LC: Anyone to explain what fitness is?

S: (Students remain silent again).

LC: (Explains while students write notes). Fitness is currently viewed as a series of components, each of which is specific in its development and maintenance. In the twentieth century, health was defined as the ability to do vigorous exercises, flexibility and speed experienced through push ups tests, sit ups and sprints and was focused on children and young adults. (Lecturer pauses for a while and asks students).

LC: Have you captured all the information?

S: (Chorus), Yes!



LC: (Continues dictating notes and explaining where necessary). According to the U.S Department of Health and Human Services (1996) the surgeon general issued a land mark report on 'physical activity and health'. That report, as the quotation at the start of the chapter indicates, not only presented the most convincing case ever for the relationship between physical activity (PA) and health but also served as a national call to action, to increase physical activity among children, youth and adults of all ages especially among many Americans who essentially lived sedentary lives.

S: (They write notes silently)

LC: Any questions so far?

S: (Students do not answer).

LC: (Explains); Fitness can be observed.

In the extract above, I observed that the content taught in Physical Education was in line with expectations at a teachers' college. However, I observed that in most cases when the lecturer could not express himself clearly in the English language, students would not understand the content. I say this because students failed to answer the questions they were asked by lecturer Chipu about the content covered. This shows that the lecturer used technical language of the subject and failed to explain in simple English in order for students to understand.

More so, when they were given the chance to ask questions so that the lecturer would clarify on any unclear concepts, students remained silent again. Failure to ask or answer questions by students can be a sign that they would not have understood the content presented in English language (Chang, 2010). Therefore, failure by students to comprehend content presented in English affected lecturer Chipu in her implementation of the English medium of instruction.

In another P.E. lecture at third year level, I observed lecturer Nicky (LD) presenting a lesson on the topic, 'Physiology of Exercise; Energy and Systems'.

LD: (Lecturer begins by recapping the previous lesson). Last week we were talking about Energy and discovered that it is the capacity to do work. (Asks a question); what work can a body do in P.E.?

S: (Silence)

LD: The body...

S2: The body can jog, the body can walk.

LD: Yes, what other processes need energy?

S3: Tissue building

S4: Heart

LD: Yes, the heart requires energy to keep pumping the blood. (Pauses another question); what compound enables the digestive system?

S: (Chorus) Enzyme!

LD: I am not a choir master. What does Adenosine and Tryphosphate do for any energy to be released?

S: (Remain silent).

LD: (Explains); There is an enzyme which needs to be released. The enzyme makes the bodies broken- once broken, we get production of energy. (Lecture continues to explain how energy is produced while students listen attentively). In the beginning we have Tryphosphate and later it becomes Dyphosphate that is how energy is released in the body. (Asks students to discuss in pairs how energy is produced in the body). Write a paragraph about that.

S: (Students discuss).

LD: Lets' use the diagram on the chalkboard to explain the process.

S: (Continue to discuss in pairs. Discussion takes 10 minutes).

LD: (Moves around and assists students in explaining the process). So you have understood how it works?

S: (All), Yes!

The excerpt above shows that the content taught affected lecturer Nicky positively in that he could use simple English language to explain the concepts. By answering lecturer Nicky's questions, students seemed to show that they had grasped the content taught. The questions asked by lecturer Nicky seemed to be confirmation checks for example, "What work can a body do in P.E.?" and "What other processes need energy?" Lecturer Nicky wanted to confirm whether the students had understood the content taught in the previous lecture. The fact that students answered the questions correctly showed that they had understood the previous lecture, thus they had adequate information about the content taught. Therefore, when the new concept "Enzyme" was introduced, students seemed to understand the content.

The content was taught from simple to complex as encouraged by psychologists like Piaget (1968). By discussing content covered in the previous lecture, lecturer Nicky allowed students to appreciate that they were familiar with the content being taught. When he introduced difficult concepts like 'Tryphosphate' and 'Dyphosphate', students were ready to learn the new topic. Indeed I observed that students grasped the content. I say this because when they were asked to discuss in pairs how energy is produced in the body, they did so without difficulties.

In brief, lecturer Nicky's lecture was a success. He moved with students as he taught. I observed that there was contact between the lecturer and learners. This confirms what Chickering and Gamson (1987) observe, when they say that learning is not a spectator sport. Students learn by talking about it. Thus, students in lecturer Nicky's lesson seemed to have grasped what they learnt in the lecture because they were able to talk about it by answering questions asked and responding with confidence, which showed that they had grasped the content taught.

From the two examples of lectures on the content taught in P.E. given above, I observed the way the lecturer used the English language to teach the content of the

subject, the way it affected him or her positively or negatively in teaching through English.

### 6.2.1.3 Content taught in Theory of Education (T.O.E.)

Some of the themes that were presented in T.O.E were; 'Formal, Non-formal education and Informal Education'; 'Personality development, Sigmund Freud'.

I observed lecturer James (LE) teaching about 'Formal, Non-formal Education'

LE: (After explaining that), formal education has a time- table, has specific time for each activity e.g. time for lectures, break, lunch and end of day, meets the needs of students etc. (he went on to give the next subheading). 'Functions of formal education'

LE: (The lecturer explains). Transmit knowledge and skills.

- Prepares individuals so that they can fit in the society.
- Transmits attitudes values via the process of socialisation and social control "Handiti tinozvizivaka" (I am sure we are aware of this).

S: (All) Yes.

LE: (Gives the next subheading) 'Implications for the teacher'

- The teacher must be well prepared for the lesson.
- Must have charts, which are functional not decorative.

S: (All continue writing notes).

LE: (Gives the last sub-heading) 'Informal Education' 'tobva tapedzisa' (then we conclude).

It is carried out without any purpose or aim, without any preparation or method, no method, done anywhere at any time by anybody.

S: (Some students gave a comment at the end of the lecture): 'Ya tadzidza!' (Ah we have learnt a lot!)

I assumed that the content taught affected lecturer James positively because he was very happy that after he had delivered his lesson in simple language, he assessed his students through questioning and found that the students had understood the content presented. Lecturer James taught in English but at times he switched to Shona when he noticed that students seemed not to understand the content. This technique of switching to Shona helped students to understand the content. This was confirmed by some of the students who gave a comment at the end of the lecture that: "*Ya tadzidza!*" (*Ah we have learnt a lot!*). It emerged that when lecturer James code-switched between English and Shona, students understood better than when English was entirely used to teach. This, therefore, shows that code-switching between English and Shona, affected positively the lecturers' implementation of EMI in as far as understanding of content was concerned. This confirms Cazden's (2005) observation that students learn better if taught in their mother tongue and it also improves their performance.

In another T.O.E lecture, I observed lecturer Jane (LF) teaching the theme; Personality development at third year level according to Sigmund Freud.

LF: Today we are looking at stages of personality development according to Freud.

Stage 1 is called aural stage. (Asks a question); who can tell us briefly about Aural stage?

S: (Students remain silent).

LF: (Asks for contribution); anyone?

S1: Is a stage --- (cannot continue).

LF: (Takes over and explains); Freud claims that during the first 5 years of life, children pass through a series of stages.

- At each stage there is a different part of the body that gives pleasure.
- Every stage presented a conflict and difficulty in dealing with the conflict can lead to fixation.

- Fixation can mean that one can be stuck in one stage e.g. 'toona mwana ane 10 years achiramba ari paAural stage which is 0-18 months.' (We realise that a 10 year old child is still behaving like a 0-18months infant.)
- At this stage i.e. Aural stage, pleasure is centred on the mouth e.g. lip, tongue and chucks, the infant enjoys activities such as suckling, biting or swallowing

S: (Students write notes as the lecturer dictates).

LF: (Continues); Inclination is towards the mother because she is the one who gives the child the pleasure experiences.

- Mother determines how the baby will view the world around him her. Asks a question, what does that mean?

S: Students do not respond but after a while,

S2: If the mother gives negative response, the child will say 'the world is hostile' hence cannot trust the world.

LF: (Expands), feelings of trust, comfort takes place at this stage.

- Negative experiences can create feelings of frustration or uncertainty. Hence will end up saying the world is very dangerous or will have positive experiences hence will be satisfied. (Asks a question. How does a baby feel when you put chilli on the breast for the child not to suck?)

S: (Silent for a while).

S3: The child will be frustrated.

(Students' silence in this lecture did not mean they did not know the answers, but probably they were shy to respond in English. They might have been afraid of making mistakes which would result in others making fun of them).

LF: (Continues giving notes with explanations here and there, while students write notes).

The content taught on the aural stage was clearly taught such that it was understood by students. The reason why students seemed to understand the content taught could have been due to the fact that lecturer Jane switched to Shona when she found that students had difficulties in understanding the content taught. This was observed by Vinke et al. (1998) when they say that, lecturers had to simplify content by code-switching. Jane therefore, was able to present the content clearly and coherently. She was able to give appropriate examples, for instance, when she explained the concept of 'fixation' she did this promptly. She said that, "Fixation can mean that one can be stuck in one stage e.g. we realise that a 10 year old child is still behaving like a 0-18 months infant."

When students remained silent each time lecturer Jane asked a question, this did not suggest that they had not understood. The reason for the silence could have been that they were shy to respond in English. Their fear could have been that if they gave wrong answers, they would be laughed at by peers. This was also observed by Mohamed (2013) and Chang (2010) who note that students did not answer questions because they feared that if their answers were wrong, they would be laughed at by peers.

From the discussion above, I can say that lecturers were affected by their experiences positively or negatively in teaching through English in different ways. In one way they were affected by the way they used the English language in teaching. If they presented the lectures in simple English the results would be positive in that students would understand the concepts. In the other way, students would fail to understand the content, thus negatively affected by poor students' performance. The next section looks at lecturer and students activities.

### 6.3 Lecturer and student activities

It emerged from the lesson observations that lecturers and students activities positively or negatively affected the lecturers. As lectures progressed, lecturers provided students with activities in a way to transmit varied concepts into the students. Different techniques were employed by lecturers as a result, some lectures were lecturer-centred while others were students-centred. In this discussion, I

looked at several lectures depending on the type of activity they reflected. I presented students' activities first then lecturer activities.

### **6.3.1 Students activities**

It emerged from the lesson observations I made that there were student activities designed by the lecturer. Some of the students' activities included homework, class presentations and pair work classroom activities. These are discussed below.

#### **6.3.1.1 Homework**

In one of the Theory of Education lectures at third year level, I observed lecturer James (LE) presenting a lecture on 'Personality Development'. It emerged from lecturer James' lecture on Personality Development that students had been assigned some topics to work on in large groups. Three days prior to the lecture, I observed the class had been divided into three groups. Each group was given a topic to work on as homework in preparation for a class presentation. The questions were, "Why should teachers learn about Personality Development? How do primary school teachers benefit from personality in the classroom? And what is Curriculum Planning? I will only pick on the example dialogues of the first two presenters for the purpose of this discussion.

It merged from the lesson observation that lecturer James gave students understandable instructions because students were able to perform their research very well. I say this because in the lesson I observed, the group representatives presented a lot of information on their assigned questions such that other students were writing notes from the presentations. From the discussion above, I noted that assigning students group activities as homework impacted positively on lecturer James' lecture. This was so because students were able to research on their own and were able to present high-quality information about the questions. Furthermore, instead of James teaching throughout the one and half hour lecture, students did the presentations while James was only a facilitator.

#### **6.3.1.2 Students' oral presentations**

In the lesson I observed at third year level, when I observed lecturer James for the first time, he told the presenters that, "*I would like you to present your work first and I will come in.*" After giving the above instruction, James called the first group's



representative to stand up and present his group's findings. The dialogue below illustrates the oral presentations by students:

LE: I would like you to present your work first and then I will come in. (He called the first group). Group A representative, stand up! "Huya hako kuno" (Can you come forward please).

S1: (Comes in front and waits for the lecturer's instruction).

LE: I want you to read your question first, and then present what you have.

S1: (Student reads the question): 'Why should teachers learn about personality development?' (Other students make noise).

LE: Hey be attentive, listen to Tatenda he is your teacher today.

S1: (Tatenda presents his group's work and reads from the paper):

- Personality development is a state of movement from one stage to another.
- According to Erikson's theory of development, personality is uniqueness in people, the way we behave, we are unique.
- It is important to understand how people behave that is how I, you, we behave, so that the teacher will deal with each behaviour accordingly.
- There are eight stages of development and for each stage, there are two dimensions for example, the positive and the negative, trust versus mistrust. The teacher needs to build on the positives for example, in the first stage that is the infant stage, when a baby is crying and the mother chooses to ignore, the baby will develop a sense of?

LE: (Interrupts and asks a question): Which one of the dimensions do we want to build between trust and mistrust?

S: (Chorus) Trust!

S1: (Continues to present): On the adolescence stage the two dimensions are identity versus? (The student pauses for an answer).

S: (Chorus) Conflict!

S1: (Continues), if adolescence is not identified, the children run somewhere. These are now grown ups, they are moving away from childhood, they need to be loved, they need recognition and they need careful handling. The teacher should know that at this stage, we want to resolve conflict therefore, they should be given responsibilities. That is all I have.

The student was presenting the work that had been discussed by a group of fifty students. He was simply reading from his note book and he came up with a lot of points as revealed on the above extract. Lecturer James' task became easy. He just interrupted only once towards the end of the first presentation, when he wanted to check whether students were following up the presentation. He asked, "Which ones of the dimensions do we want to build between trust and mistrust?" This was after the first presenter had asked the kind of behaviour that the mother would instil in a baby if she chose to ignore a crying baby. All students answered at once, "Trust!" The answer was correct which means that the students understood the content that was presented.

Thus, lecturer James acted as a facilitator in this lecture. His duty was to direct students in their activities. His ability to use both English and Shona languages contributed to the success of the lesson because he was able to give clear instructions and also explain the content clearly. After the interjection, lecturer James asked the first presenter to finish his presentation. When the presenter finished, lecturer James chipped in again and called group B to present their work. The dialogue below reflects what transpired in the second segment of the lecture:

LE: *Group B!* (Group B is slow to react). (Shouts) *B! B! B!*

S2: (One student stands up).

LE: Listen to your teacher.

S2: (The second presenter reads the question for group B) 'How do primary school teachers benefit from personality in a classroom?'

S2: (Presents, reads from paper) Erikson' theory shows that an individual faces conflict at each stage.

Stage 1 Birth to 3 years trust versus mistrust:

A child whose needs are constantly met takes a sense of trust which helps the child to accept limits and boundaries.

Stage 2 2-4 years:

Child learns by feeling with all senses, senses of shame develop. Feels devastated anger and jealous. Teachers should provide activities that involve all senses. Do not condemn pupils' expressions. Help children to express feelings according to situation initiative versus guilt. Sense of purpose, develop imagination, teachers should allow students to express their imagination through play for example, role play. Give pupils toys a variety not only ready-made, give them something like a match box so that pupils use their imagination for example, a match box can be a car or an aeroplane hence child develops his or her sense of imagination.

Stage 3 4-6 years Initiative versus guilt:

Child begins to make decisions.

Teacher should encourage initiative for example, allow pupils to develop a sense of imagination.

Introduce songs and stories that increase the sense of imagination. Child directed activities allow children to choose activities they want to perform.

Through imagination children can tell long stories.

Stage 4 6-12 years Erikson called this industry versus inferiority

Enjoys play that come through, child begins to work harder academically.

Enjoy work that comes from hard experiences.

Gain competences in various activities.

Teacher should help pupils to complete tasks well, set all learning targets that are achievable.

(Other students were busy writing notes; the lecturer interrupts and said):

LE: Yes they have gone up to stage 4 because that is where primary school ends.  
Clap hands for them.

S: (Other students clap hands for the second presenter).

I observed that as the first two presenters were presenting, other students were busy writing notes. This shows that the group tasks were well researched. This is also an indication that the concept of personality development was well grasped by students when the lecturer taught in the previous lecture.

After the presentation by Group B, the lecturer commented that the group had gone up to stage four because that is where primary school ends. Lecturer James went on to say:

LE: I think the group has outlined the theory very well; 'Mwana ari kukura' (when a child is growing up) check on the environment whether it encourages development. Mothers should beat children when in their development they break toys, should they?

S: (All shout), No! No!

After the third presenter, students were asked to discuss in pairs the question on what curriculum planning was. I observed that the students were able to give correct points concerning curriculum planning which shows that they were aware of what was expected by the question. When lecturer James felt that some students did not understand the concepts presented, he interrupted and explained in Shona.

It emerged from the lesson observation that lecturer James' lecture was student-centred because most of the activities were done by the students. The three students presented work that was done in groups three days before the lecture. The lecturer only facilitated where and when necessary, that is, he only chipped in to emphasise some important aspects of the answers given by students. The students had read in advance on the topics presented, therefore, it became easier for them to understand the concepts. Thus, there was maximum participation by the students. All presentations were done in English. Presenters presented with confidence such that as they presented, some students were busy writing notes. Thus, I observed that their presentations were beneficial to the other students and the lecture was a success.

After the lesson presentation, I asked lecturer James how he felt about the lecture and he was very happy that students had demonstrated a high level of understanding of concepts presented which they had learnt in one of the previous lectures. He was also happy that the group representatives displayed a high level of maturity and responsibility by presenting very good work. He said:

You remember, I told you in the interview we had, that some students are very good. At least you have witnessed it yourself. They are very good. Of course they worked in groups but I am sure that the presenters had a lot of input. This means that groups selected the students whom they knew to be very good in using the English Language (Lecturer James).

As has been noted earlier, allowing students to present their group findings in class impacted positively on lecturer James' lecture because it facilitated the learning of three different concepts in a short space of time. These concepts included: "How a teacher can benefit from Personality Development in the classroom?", "Why it is important to learn about Personality Development?" as well as "What Curriculum Planning is." Lecturer James was only a facilitator in this lecture, and most of the work was covered by students through their presentations. The lecture was therefore student-centred and was a success. Coupled with good class management, the English language used by lecturer James throughout the lecture was simple, and as a result students understood the content very well.

#### 6.3.1.3 Pair-work classroom activities

Lecturer Jane (LF) presented a lecture in Theory of Education at third year level, on the topic "Personality Development according to Sigmund Freud." For the purpose of this discussion, I will use the extract when the lecturer was teaching about the Aural Aggressive Stage. After explaining the characteristics of this stage, lecturer Jane gave students a task to discuss in pairs the implications of the Aural Aggressive Stage for the classroom. Lecturer Jane asked a question "*What can you do when you see a child at an Aural Stage who is very pessimistic, very aggressive?*"

- LF: You can discuss the implications in pairs. Each pair will then give an answer.
- S: (Discuss in pairs but discussions go on in Shona with a bit of noise for 5 minutes.)
- LF: (Stops the discussions.) Ok I will start with those at the back give us your implications.
- S: (Remain silent. After a while the discussion continues in pairs. More time than was expected lapses, about 10 minutes.)
- LF: Asks, Any pair to give us an answer?
- S2: I think it helps the teacher to have a background of the pupils.
- LF: Background?
- S: (Silent again for 3 minutes.)
- S3: I think teacher should help the child to develop a positive personality.
- S4: Teacher will encourage a child who feels a lot the challenges of obesity.
- S5: Teacher will give some pupils a role to play with a child who is aggressive and the teacher explains the need to avoid aggressiveness.
- S6: Teacher should take stance to help children by showing love so that children's' attitude can change for better.

The answers given by the five pairs were correct to show that the discussion went on very well and that lecturer Jane had delivered her lecture appropriately so that students captured the Aural Aggressive Stage. After the class discussion, lecturer Jane summarised all the answers given by students in precise phrases for example, there is need for counselling, need for not showing favouritism, need to know all your pupils and teachers have to be approachable.

I observed that lecturer Jane's lesson was student-centred, her ability in the English made the lesson successful because she clearly explained the content. At the end of the lesson, she was able to admit that the lesson was successful and felt contented

about her presentation in simple English. Using simple English made it possible for students to understand content taught as they could not understand content taught in deep English. I observed that the lesson was a success. This impacted on lecturer Jane positively because students understood the content taught. The use of simplified sentence structure is also noted by Flowerdew, Miller and David (2000) who observe that a number of lecturers at City University in Hong Kong simplified their sentence structure in order to make their lecture delivery understandable to students who are not proficient in the English language.

In a Physical Education lesson about 'Energy and Systems' at third year level, lecturer Nicky explained how energy is produced in the body and later asked students to discuss in pairs how energy is released in the body. Nicky told students to write a paragraph about that and to use a diagram he had drawn on the chalkboard to help them in their explanations. The students discussed in pairs but were not given the chances to share their findings with the whole class. After ten minutes Nicky said, "*So you have understood how it works?*" And the students replied all at once, "Yes!" From my observation there was no actual dialogue after pair work where students shared their findings with the whole class. Thus, there was no evidence that the students had grasped the content because I did not hear the feedback on pair work. Furthermore, when Nicky taught, he did not simplify the technical content to the level of the students by using local examples. His language remained technical and, therefore, students could not discuss their findings with the whole class, which could be a sign that they had not understood.

This affected Nicky negatively because for lecturers to ensure that the content has been mastered by students, they should be able to discuss it freely in pairs and as a whole class. I did not witness a class discussion where students gave the feedback on pair work to the whole class therefore; I am not sure whether the lesson was a success. I asked Nicky after the lesson if the lesson was a success and he said, "I tried my best to reduce the density of my English language but the students seemed not to understand." Nicky's response shows that he was aware that students did not fully understand the content because of the English language barrier. However, I noted that failure by lecturer Nicky to lower his vocabulary to the level of students

affected him negatively because students failed to discuss productively how energy is produced in the body.

### **6.3.2. Lecturers' activities**

Apart from students' activities discussed in the preceding section, lecturers had their own activities that affected their experiences in teaching through English. These included providing notes and the chalk and talk technique.

#### **6.3.2.1 Providing notes**

Lecturer Chipo (LC) taught a Physical Education on *Fitness* at third year level. After Chipo explained at length what fitness is, she stopped and asked students that:

LC: Have you captured all the information?

S: (Chorus) Yes!

From the above dialogue, lecturer Chipo wanted to confirm if students were writing notes as she was teaching. Flowerdew et al. (2000) observe that some students could not listen and write notes at the same time and as a result lecturers provided notes. Therefore, lecturer Chipo had to provide students with the notes so that students capture the important points of the content covered.

After explaining at length again the components of fitness providing notes, Chipo compelled students to write notes. There was no lecturer-student interaction between lecturer Chipo and students except to ensure that students wrote notes. Vinke et al. (1998), note that, the use of EMI reduces lecturers' competence to interact. Thus, Chipo made sure that she dictated the notes at a pace that students could catch up. However at the end of the lecture students murmured, "Oh yes" to show that they had been relieved from continuous writing of notes for one and half hours. More so to their discouragement students did not understand the content taught.

Lecturer Chipo ensured that students captured all the notes but in as far as understanding of the content was concerned, I think students did not understand. I say so because at different intervals she said:

LC: Anyone to explain what fitness is?



S: Silence.

After talking again for a while about fitness she said:

LC: Any questions so far?

S: No answer.

Therefore, I can say that it was difficult to assess whether students had understood the content taught by merely observing the lesson. I say this because if students had understood the content, they should have attempted to answer the questions asked about the content that was covered.

After the lecture, I asked Chipo how she felt about the lecture and she said, "Students have problems in listening and writing notes so I had to dictate notes so that at least they capture the basic information about fitness." This was also observed by Flowerdew et al. (2000) who note that learners did not want to talk in lessons because apart from their problem with English language, they thought that the lecturer should feed them with information which would enable them to learn by heart. I can thus say the way Chipo dictated notes affected her negatively because students were worried about capturing the notes without understanding the content. This thus promoted rote learning. I discovered that she tended to present the subject content in a less explicit way that students could not understand. She read from her note book without clearly and accurately explaining the content because of her limited English language to teach away from the note book.

#### 6.3.2.2 Chalk and talk (Chalkboard and talk)

I observed lecturer Tom teaching at third year level the topic "Indices, Sets and Logarithms." Most of his teaching was talking to the students using the chalk board to explain the content. This type of teaching is referred to as the 'chalk and talk' style by Flowerdew et al. (2000). The chalk and talk style of teaching is when the lecturer expounds the material with the support of a chalkboard. Thus, lecturer Tom talked with the support of the chalk board.

Below is the dialogue to demonstrate how the 'chalk and talk' was used by Tom. After introducing the lesson, lecturer Tom said:

LB: We said the concept of rationalising sets is to remove the squareroot e.g. rationalise.

LB: "*Takati concept yekurationaliser maset*" (we said the concepts of rationalising sets is to remove the square root e.g. Rationalise)

$$\frac{\quad}{\quad} = \frac{\quad}{\sqrt{\quad}}$$
$$= \frac{\quad}{\quad}$$
$$\frac{\quad}{\quad}$$

LB: We divide by 2 as a common factor

$$\frac{\quad}{\quad}$$

LB: The lecturer continues to work some sums on the chalk board while students were copying the sums in their note books.

From the above dialogue, I observed that lecture Tom was doing most of the talking with the aid of the chalkboard. Students simply followed the lecture by copying the sums from the chalkboard into their notebooks. There was no interaction between the students and the lecturer. I thus noted that the chalk and talk activity was a one-way process of teaching and it does not promote understanding of content by students Eison (2010). This affected lecturer Tom negatively because there was no evidence that students understood the content taught.

I asked Tom how he felt about the lecture and he said,

It was ok because most of our students do not want to talk, so for me to ensure that students capture the important content about the subject, I work out the sums on the chalkboard and compel them to copy them in their note books. It is the best method with large groups.

Lecturer Tom was defending his way of teaching but it was viewed by Eison (2010) as yielding poor results than the interactive way of teaching. Lecturer Tom's English language competence was good but the fact that he did not allow students to talk and work some of the sums by themselves affected his lesson negatively because students did not understand the content taught. I say this because at the

end of the lecture, I heard some students saying that they need to look for a lecturer who would offer them extra tuition on the content concerning “indices, sets and logarithms” because they had not mastered the content. This therefore means that the lecturer needs to allow students to work out the sum on their own than doing all the calculation for them.

In all the examples discussed above about lecturer and students activities, I observed that the use of English in teaching affected some lecturers negatively because their lesson presentations were not presented in a flexible manner. This was so because they could not elaborate their subject matter in different ways to allow students to understand. Instead, because of their limited proficiency in the English language their lesson presentations tended to be structured less explicitly. Some lecturers noticed that they had limited English skills, and therefore code-switched between English and Shona and allowed students to understand the content well. The next subsection discusses the use of English and Shona code-switching in the lecture room.

#### 6.4 The use of English and Shona code-switching in the lecture room

In the previous chapter, I highlighted that four out of six lecturers said that they code-switched between English and Shona when teaching, for three main reasons: The first reasons for code-switching by lecturers was that, they wanted to help students who struggled with the English language to understand concepts taught. Thus, lecturers explained difficult concepts in Shona, which resulted in students understanding concepts better. The second reason for code-switching by lecturers was that, lecturers themselves could not teach entirely in English for one and half hours. There were times when they code-switched so that they could express themselves clearly in lectures. The third reason for lecturers to code-switch between English and Shona was to allow students to participate in discussions. This emerged from various lectures that students participated well in class discussions when they were taught in Shona and when they were allowed to ask or answer questions in Shona.

#### **6.4.1 Lecturers' shortcomings on teaching in English**

As indicated earlier in chapter five, code-switching in lectures was sometimes a result of lecturers' inability to conduct lectures entirely in English due to their inadequate English language skills. To quote lecturer James when answering one of the semi-structured interview question, which sought to establish how the language they used when teaching affected their experiences in teaching through the medium of English, he said:

Most of these lectures are taught in English but at times explanations of difficult concept are made in Shona because some lecturers have shortcomings in using English throughout a one and half hour lecture.

Lecturers, Jane, Tom and Trymore concurred that they have experienced problems in using English language throughout a one and half hour lecture. Indeed when I observed the four lecturers teaching, they code-switched between English and Shona in order to express themselves fully in lectures whenever they felt that they could not express themselves fully in English and also when they wanted to clarify certain points. When Lecturer Tom (LB) was presenting a Mathematics lecture on the 'Pre-number concept', I observed that he code-switched between English and Shona in order to explain difficult concepts. Tom introduced his lecture by writing the sub-heading on the chalkboard: 'How children learn numbers.' He went on to explain:

LB: By the time children come to school, they would have heard numerous experiences involving the number concept. Some of these number experiences lead to the correct number development while others are misleading, for example, we will discover that pupils would have no problems with similarity, differences and sameness, they are able to compare. They would have seen numbers symbols/numbers. (Asks a question): What do we mean by number symbols?

S: (Silent)

LB: 'Vasati vauya kuchikoro vanoona pai manhamba symbols?' (Before they come to school, where do they see these number symbols?)

S1: From parents, and friends.

From the above extract, I noted that students failed to understand the content presented solely in English. I observed that when lecturer Tom asked a question after the explanation of the content was in English, no student responded. This confirms what Airey (2010) notes, that students had serious difficulties in understanding concepts presented in English. I, however, noted that when the explanation of the same concept was made in Shona, a number of students raised up their hands. This then means that lecturers experienced problems in teaching through the medium of English if they failed to adjust their teaching skills to enable students to grasp the content for example, code-switching between English and Shona.

Thus, one student gave a correct answer to the same question, which the class had failed to respond to when asked in English. This is noted by William (2011) who states that when lecturers notice the limitations of their students in understanding concepts presented in English, they often switched between the official medium and the mother tongue in order to make their teaching meaningful.

Lecturer Tom continued with the explanations in Shona. It appeared that students mastered the concepts very well because they were writing notes and nodding their heads to show satisfaction with the explanations.

LB: Yes. (The lecturer explains) 'Saka tinoona kuti, vana vanodzidza masymbols pakawanda', (So, we can see that before children come to school, they learn various symbols from different angles.)

The teachers' duty or role is to build upon the correct number experiences and try to modify/eliminate misconception. 'Unotoona kuti mwana iyeye ava kugona one' (You can see that the child can recognise one.)The teachers' role is to make sure the gap between home and school Mathematics is reduced so as to come up with one form of living. 'Kana mwana ukamudzidzisa kuti aite seizvi unofunga kuti anozvitora sei?' (If you teach the child how to do things, what do you think he will think?)

S1: 'Iye anenge achifunga kuti ari right'. (The child will be thinking that he/she is right.)

LB: Yes, 'kwavanenge vachitamba ndozvaanenge vachiita vanoti upenyu hwose ndichinyora ndichidai asi pa30 minutes ndipo pandinganzi ndinyore ndichidai' (The child feels that all these years, I have been doing it like this, only to be told to change in a 30 minutes lesson). Yes the teacher should bridge the gap between home Mathematics and school Mathematics and come up with one form of living.

The response in Shona by a student shows that she had mastered the concept. Instead of answering in English, she was comfortable in answering in Shona. She was not confident in answering in English. The lecturer did not discourage the student. This confirms what was echoed by Shumba and Manyati (2000), who state that code-switching by both teachers and learners improved understanding among learners. However, the use of code-switching by lecturers showed that lecturers were affected by their inadequacy in presenting lectures entirely in English.

The other reason for lecturers to code-switch was reflected in lecturer Jane's (LF) lecture in Theory of Education, on a topic 'Personality Development by Sigmund Freud' at third year level. The lecturer introduced the lesson by asking questions in English.

LF: Which topic are we covering this week?

S: (Chorus) Personality development!

LF: What can you remember from our previous lecture?

S1: The structure of personality according to Sigmund Freud.

LF: Yes, what else?

S2: He believes that sex is the major drive that builds our character.

LF: Yes. (The lecture continued)

The extract above shows that there was communication between the lecturer and the students. All questions asked in English were answered in English. This shows that students understood the content and had no difficulties in communicating in

English. As she continued with the lecture, lecturer Jane dictated notes to students while explaining some concepts in Shona, she went on:

LF: How does a baby feel when you put chilli on the breast for the child not to suck?

S3: The child would be frustrated.

LF: Yes negative experiences can create feelings of frustration or uncertainty. The child will end up saying the world is very dangerous or will have the positive experience thus, will be satisfied.

S: (All students continue writing notes).

LF: In another incident if the mother breast feeds the baby while stressed, the child will know that the mother is stressed and will be passive even as an adult such people will be very pessimistic and therefore dependent on others and often obsessed with drinking, smoking and eating or kissing. 'Nyaya yekuda kusatisfaya masexual needs' (The desire to satisfying sexual needs through drinking, smoking etc.)

S: (All students write notes).

LF: Asks a question, what is pessimistic adult?

S4: Opposite of optimistic

LF: Yes, one who always has a negative aspect of life e.g. 'hapana chakanaka chaanoona' (Sees nothing from a positive perspective.)

The lecturer went on with the lecture, code-switching now and again. It was, however, difficult to note from observations that the lecturer code-switched due to her inadequacies in English because she switched between English and Shona smoothly. I thus asked her after the lecture, why she was code-switching and she said; "I found out that I was not able to express myself fully in English on certain concepts, this is why I often switched to Shona." This was observed by Lei (2013) at a Chinese University of Business Management course that, due to insufficient command of English to fully engage in discussions and construction of knowledge in lessons, teachers used code-switching to alleviate the language problem. This shows that it is not only students who struggle with English, but also, lecturers, as

mentioned by lecturer Jane above. Therefore Lecturers were affected negatively by their experiences of teaching through the medium of English due to their insufficient command of English language.

In the same vein, a study by Vu and Burns (2014) at a Vietnamese tertiary institution also reflected that when lecturers perceived difficulties in instructional interaction, they resorted to code-switching. Therefore, it is important at this juncture to note that code-switching between English and students' mother tongue, is a common practice among lecturers and teachers who cannot express themselves fully in English but at the same time want their students to understand content better. Thus, code-switching in lectures at Oakford Teachers' College, as I observed, could have been as a result of both lecturers and students' inability in to use English effectively in the process of giving instructions. This therefore, means that lecturers experienced problems in teaching through the medium of English because they were not able to explain content fully in English. More so lecturers could not teach entirely in English for one and half hours because of their weaknesses in the English language.

#### **6.4.2 Students' participation when taught through English and Shona**

Some of the experiences of lecturers in teaching through the English medium as I indicated at the beginning of this section resulted in code-switching by lecturers in lecture rooms, in order to enhance students' participation in discussions. Through observation of lectures, I observed that participation of students was very high when lectures were presented in English and Shona. This emanated from the fact that students could understand the content well, they therefore, could respond positively to the questions asked by the lecturer. In addition, the fact that students were allowed to use Shona in asking or answering questions gave them confidence to participate well in lectures. A case in point is when lecturer Jane was teaching the concept "Personality Development" by Sigmund Freud. When she had explained what takes place on the Anal Stage, she went on to ask a question:

LF: How do we train our children when they bed- wet? (All the students made noise for at least two minutes to show that they had understood the question and later started responding).



- S5: 'Tinombovarova.' (We beat them)  
S6: 'Kana kupopota.' (We can scold them)  
S7: Wake him up during the night  
S8: Tie their organ.  
S: (All students laugh exclaiming): Aaah!  
S9: No water for the child at night.  
LF: Good.

The above except, shows that students participated very well because the explanations on the anal stage had been given in Shona, therefore, could answer without any hesitation. The students also gave their answers in Shona and English one after another without being compelled to participate. After the students' answers, lecturer Jane went on to summarise students' answers in Shona. She also made it clear to the students that the answers they had given were genuine maybe because they had experienced some of the trainings during their infancy. They could also have had such experiences when they were training their children.

Lecturer Jane told the students that training children from a negative point of view like beating, scolding, tying the male organ have negative effects. This is supported by Rutter and Taylor (2008) who state that such cruelty could make the child to be anxious all the night and that may lead to bed-wetting because of the anxiety (Rutter and Taylor 2008). Jane explained that as parents train their children to avoid bed-wetting, they should be a bit accommodative and take into consideration the fact that they are children, thus are expected to make mistakes. She went on to say that they should, therefore be treated as children and not as adults. All the students seemed to appreciate lecturer Jane's explanation.

In answering one of the interview questions, lecturer Jane had earlier said:

Normally I want my lectures to be in a discursive manner but because of the language barrier, the lecture does not take off as I expect, therefore, I have allowed students to use their mother tongue and they are very comfortable. Thus the discussion becomes lively.

The issue of the use of the mother tongue in class discussion was also observed by Zondi (2015) in her study at the University of Zululand in South Africa. She notes that, the use of the mother tongue is very helpful in enhancing participation in class discussions as well as understanding of difficult and mastery of content.

I also observed that at the end of the lecture by Jane, all students clapped their hands to show that they had enjoyed the lesson through participating. They were also happy because they had grasped the content taught. Thus, the tension that had been created when she used English only in her lecture presentation was eased the moment she explained content in Shona. This then means using code-switching between English and Shona in lectures gave lecturers positive experiences in teaching through the medium of English because students understood the content better than when English only was used.

In another lecture presented by lecturer James at third year level, I observed the teaching of Theory of Education lesson, which was on the topic 'Formal, Non-Formal and Informal Education.' It became clear that when lecturer James (LE) taught entirely in English, students did not participate. They appeared to be confused, however, the moment he started explaining concepts in Shona the confusion disappeared and they started participating. In most cases, chorus answers were given for the questions asked by James. After talking about characteristics of Formal Education while code-switching between English and Shona, lecturer James asked a question:

LE: Let's look at Formal education, Grade 1 to 7, how many years?

S: (Chorus) Seven!

LE: Form 1 to 4, how many years?

S: (Chorus) Four!

LE: (Explains), Formal Education is full time. It is subject based and standardised e.g. before Theory of Education 'manga maita chii?' (What subject did you do before Theory of Education?)

S: (Chorus) Shona!

LE: After 'Shona moita chii?' (After Shona what do you do next?)

S: (Chorus) 'Kumba!' (We go home) meaning Shona marks the end of the day.

LE: 'Ehe zvese zvakarongeka.' (Yes all things are highly organised in Formal Education.)

When lecturer James had explained the concept 'Formal Education', code-switching between English and Shona, students seemed to have enjoyed the lecture. At times, they laughed to show that they were following the lecture. More so, when James asked questions on Formal Education, most students raised their hands to show that they were ready to participate. Chorus answers shown above were clear evidence that students were keen to participate because they had grasped the content taught. The chorus answers given by students also demonstrated that they were then competing to give answers. They could no longer give each other chances to answer the questions because almost everyone knew the answers to the questions that were asked by the lecturer, thus they shouted all at once and the answers were correct.

In the focus group discussions, lecturer James earlier indicated that other universities allowed the use of students' mother tongue when teaching and students participated very well. He went on to state that even at Oakford Teachers' College, those lecturers who used Shona in explaining concepts made it easier for students who struggled with English and they participated very well in class discussions. I confirmed this when I observed lecturer Tom and Trymore teaching. I observed that when they used Shona to explain Mathematical concepts, students participated in lectures. Students could even ask questions when they missed some concepts. This free interaction was facilitated by the use of a familiar language to both the lecturer and the students. Lecturer Trymore in answering one of the interview questions said;

Exams are in English therefore students should be taught in English so that they become used of course you may use Shona when you notice students' facial expressions showing that they are not understanding.

Therefore, participation in class discussions is a sign that students have grasped the content Clemensen (2010) and Mohamed (2013). It is also a satisfaction that the

lecturer presents his or her lecture in a clear manner that students understood the content. Having noticed that students participated very well in class discussions in lectures where they were allowed to use their mother tongue, it is important to move on to see what happened in lectures in which only English was the medium of teaching.

### **6.5 Students' participation when taught through English**

Some of the experiences of lecturers as indicated in the previous chapter showed that the use of English in teaching, shuts out some students who might be having very good ideas. In answering one of the interview questions, lecturer Tom indicated that once there is a communication breakdown in a lecture, there is restricted learning. Barnard and McLellan (2013) in Vu and Burns (2013) note that code-switching could offer efficient pedagogical and educational usage when teachers and learners share the first language. An example on how the language used to teach can create a communication breakdown is reflected when lecturer Tom taught a Mathematics lecture on 'Syllabus Content Breakdown.' When he was talking about time allocation, he asked students:

LB: Do you know that a syllabus has time allocation? Teaching and learning methods which help learners build interest and confidences in solving problems are recommended.

S1: (Instead of responding to the lecturer's question, one student asked a question which was not related to the discussion at hand, he asked): Sir, how can we evaluate relationships?

LB: In Maths we are not talking about boy-girl relationships but between variables e.g. graphs show how we can represent Mathematical data.

S2: (Another student asks): How do we integrate relationships?

LB: Any response from the class?

S: (No answer)

The short responses given by students are clear evidence that the students were afraid of their language problems therefore, they resorted to short questions and

answers (Mohamed 2013). This affected the lecturers negatively in their implementation of (EMI) in that they could not find ways of helping students who do not present their problems fully through asking questions. The questions asked by the two students as shown above show that there was communication breakdown between the lecturer and students. The lecturer was talking about a syllabus containing time allocation that is stating what time is needed for teaching each topic. Instead of agreeing to what the lecturer had said or simply denying that they did not know anything about time allocation, they went on to ask questions on relationships out of context.

The question on how people can evaluate relationships was responded to sarcastically by lecturer Tom, who told the students that, 'In Maths we are not talking about boy-girl relationships but relationships between variables.' The student who had asked the question was laughed at by other students, and she felt embarrassed. I observed that sometimes students do not participate in discussions for fear of being embarrassed in front of peers. Instead of mocking the student, lecturer Tom should have motivated her by explaining clearly what relationships in Mathematics are. If lecturer Tom gave a clear explanation on relationships in Mathematics, probably the other student might not have further asked a question to that effect. Thus, when the lecturer threw the question back to the class, no one responded probably because students were afraid of participating, fearing that they would be laughed at by peers if they gave a wrong answer.

Haralambos and Holborn (2013) note that people's self-concept is developed through interactions with others. In any classroom, teachers and peers help shape a person's self-concept. Thus the mockery of one student by the lecturer destroyed the students' zeal to participate. This could have also affected other students who could not respond to the lecturer's question, for fear of being embarrassed in front of peers. This was noted by Mohamed (2013) who confirms that students did not answer questions in class because they feared that if their answers were wrong they would be laughed at by peers and also that if they gave wrong answers they feared that their lecturers would have a negative attitude towards them. This affected

lecturers because they could not determine whether students understood the content taught.

In the same lecture by Tom, students could not answer a question on how to teach  $6 \times 2$ .

LB: How can you teach  $6 \times 2$ ?

S: (No answer)

LB: Who can try? (He just picks a student).

S3: Instead of responding in English the student response in Shona:

'Handina kumboticha' (I have never taught before).

LB: (Comments): Answer in English! (The lecturer picks another student).

S4: (Tries to explain). If you are teaching  $6 \times 2$ , you should ... (Cannot go further).

Failure by student three (S3) and four (S4) to give answers on how they could teach  $6 \times 2$  could have been as a result of lack of knowledge on what the answer was. They might also have been afraid of being laughed at by peers if they gave wrong answers. As a result they could not explain how they could teach  $6 \times 2$ . Student 3 responded in Shona that he had never taught before which could indicate that he was not confident enough to use the English language in responding to the lecturer's question. Student 4 tried to explain how he could teach  $6 \times 2$  but due to language problems, he could not complete his statement. The use of English in teaching was observed to be a barrier to students because they could not participate fully in lectures. Failure to fully participate in lectures might also affect retention level of the content delivered (Paxton 2009). This in turn affected lecturers in that they would not achieve one of their objectives of teaching which was to ensure that students comprehended the content taught.

Some of the lecturers' experiences were students' lack of proficiency in the English language and Mohamed (2013) noted these in his study at a University in Srilanka where English was used as a second language. Mohamed (2013) observed that students failed to participate in class discussions because they lacked the language

to do so. Students had comprehension problems and limited oral language. Thus, due to their insufficient command of the English language, students could not ask or answer questions for several reasons among them as stated by Flowerdew et al. (2000, p.159) were:

- They could not have the language to answer the question;
- They did not know what constituted a good answer or a good question;
- They were shy to talk in class because of the language problem;
- They feared that if their answers were wrongly expressed, they would be laughed at by their peers.

Astin (1985), in agreement with Flowerdew et al. (2000), observes that students learn by becoming involved physically and psychologically in learning. In the same vein, Cross (1987) confirms that when students are actively involved in the learning tasks, they learn more than when they are passive recipients of instruction.

Therefore failure to participate in class discussion resulted in poor assignment presentation as well as poor grades in examinations as noted by Nziramasanga (1999). All these experiences negatively affected lecturers who teach in an examination oriented environment because their efficiency is measured by the students' performance in assignments and examinations.

In a lesson by lecturer Nicky (LD) in Physical Education on 'Physiology of Exercise: Energy and systems', I observed that there was poor participation by students. Lecturer Nicky taught entirely in English. He slowed down his delivery rate, re-organised the sentence structure to suit the level of students and adjusted the language in explaining concepts. Still students could not participate well.

Thus, when lecturer Nicky had explained in English what Adenosine Tri- Phosphate (ATP) meant at length students gave correct answers. His lecture went on as follows:

LD: In our last lecture we identified three systems of energy pathway. The process passes through Adenosine Tri-Phosphate systems which are broken into what is called?

S1: ATP system.

S2: Or creating phosphate.

LD: Yes, the other system is what?

S: (Chorus) Lactic system!

LD: And the other?

S: (Chorus) Aerobic system!

LD: Aerobic system means what?

S: (Chorus) With Oxygen!

LD: Ok let' write notes. (Lecturer dictates notes while students write.)

This is the first of the Aerobic pathway which suggests that oxygen is not directly used in the release of energy.

This pathway involves the rapid generation of ATP through a second energy rich compound that exists in the muscles called Creating Phosphates. This is why it is phosphor creating. (Can you read that statement and see if you can understand).

S: (All read the statement silently).

LD: Discuss in groups of four ATP and creating energy.

S: (Mumble) Umm.

After what seemed to be an interactive lecture, lecturer Nicky asked students to explain what ATP was in a paragraph in groups of four. Students mumbled 'Ummm'. This mumbling was a sign that they could not perform the task. I was surprised with such a reaction from the students because I had thought that they had understood the concept by responding to lecturer Nicky's questions through chorus answers. I later noted that the chorus answers given by the students were not a true reflection that they had understood the concept. Instead, the chorus answers could have been a result of rote learning. This then confirms Ngara's (1982) observation, who notes that in most African countries most pupils and even university students memorise concepts and terms they hardly understand.

This was so because when lecturer Nicky encouraged students to try a bit to explain ATP, the students laughed to show that the task was difficult for them. When



lecturer Nicky noticed that there were no productive discussions going on in the groups, he started moving around the groups assisting students. He even motivated the learners to use the diagram he had drawn on the chalkboard in explaining the concept ATP but all was in vain. The group discussions were later held in Shona instead of English, this probably helped the students to come up with a few lines.

Interestingly, although lecturer Nicky encouraged students to discuss in English, the group discussions went on in Shona. However, the points were written down in English. Lecturer Nicky was concerned about the grammatical errors that were produced by the students. Another important point to note in lecturer Nicky's lecture was that, students took longer than they had been given to complete the task. They had been given five minutes but they partially completed the task in fifteen minutes.

The few lines that were produced by students could have been achieved probably because students were working in fours. Thus, they were sharing ideas. More so, the fact that they discussed in Shona instead of English could have helped them in explaining the ATP process. The fact that they took longer time than expected to complete the exercise, shows that they had difficulty in processing information that had been presented in the English language. This was noted by Wilkinson (2005), who observes that, students take more time to complete tasks when they are taught entirely in English, than would be the case when taught in L1.

Failure to complete tasks on time was one of the lecturers' experiences and this affected them negatively in that they would not complete the course content on time which would result in their failure to complete the syllabus. As a result of this, students would not perform well in examinations.

In an interview I held with lecturer Nicky after observing his lecture, he highlighted that the students could not participate well because of their limited proficiency in English. He said:

Even when you try your best to explain concepts through diagrams, our students still cannot understand the concepts. As I said earlier in the interview, I will never explain concepts in Shona. I want the students to practise using the English language. Look they will soon

be qualified teachers therefore they should be able to teach content subjects in English.

Lecturer Nicky truly demonstrated that he would not use Shona to explain concepts as he was teaching. However, I noticed that there was a tense atmosphere in the lecture because students could not participate freely due to their insufficient command of the English language.

I overheard students complaining that the lecturer should have used Shona to explain some of the concepts as it is done by lecturers in other subject areas. Unfortunately as the researcher, I could not influence the lecturer to change his way of lecturing.

## **6.6 Resources**

Some of the experiences of the lecturers in teaching through the medium of English were that material, human and financial resources at Oakford Teachers College were generally inadequate and this affected them negatively. I am going to discuss the issue of infrastructure, books and technical gadgets like computers and availability of internet, human resources separately. I will start with the infrastructure.

### **6.6.1 Infrastructure**

From my observations, I noted that Oakford Teachers' College did not have enough teaching space. Some subjects like Mathematics, Physical Education and Theory of Education had no specific lecture rooms. Therefore, they could not display subject related materials in the rooms for learners to work together in the absence of the lecturers. This would enable students to visit the lecture rooms during their own spare time to enable them to tutor each other on important aspects of the lectures.

From the focus group discussions, it emerged that the college initially was regarded as a small institution, which around the 1980s and 1990s the lecture rooms were adequate because the enrolment was in line with the space available. To quote lecturer James, he said:

We are a small college but our enrolment figures are rising tremendously but our infrastructure is not. This results in inadequate

lecture rooms. Some lecture rooms have been converted into offices for lecturers.

I observed that truly the enrolment at Oakford Teachers' College was larger than the available space; as a result, the college does not have adequate teaching and learning space. The lack of teaching and learning space has resulted in some special rooms such as the dining hall being used as a lecture room which can accommodate mass lectures such as those held in Theory of Education. Some lectures were held in small gazebos. This made it impossible for some electronic gadgets to be fixed in such rooms. These electronic gadgets would help lecturers to effectively present their lectures.

Most of the lecture rooms have white boards but do not have modern teaching gadgets like interactive boards, fixed projectors to enhance education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The whole college has one interactive board which is fixed in one of the computer laboratories. This leaves more to be considered in the use of modern technology in an English medium institution. All the above-discussed issues affected the lecturers' experiences in teaching through English in an EMI institution. This was so because the above-mentioned materials enhance interactive learning which would avoid lecturer-centred lessons which are not very productive (Eison, 2010).

### **6.6.2 Library Facilities**

Some of the experiences of the lecturers I observed were that library at Oakford Teachers' College had relevant and current books for facilitating the teaching and learning in Mathematics, Physical Education and Theory of Education. This affected the lecturers positively in their teaching through the English medium because all the books were written in English. This made it easier for students to read in preparation for writing their assignments as well as examinations, which were all written in English.

Over and above the specified subjects based books, there are a lot of English textbooks and novels which the students could read in order to enhance their English proficiency. This was stated by lecturer Tom when he was answering one of

the interview questions, on lecturers' views on their English skills and practices he said:

I am competent because during our time we read many books, novels and this improved our English. Students can also read English books and novels in the library in order to improve their English language.

The implication of lecturer Tom's statement is that if students read novels they would probably develop their English skills. I observed that the textbooks in the library are augmented by e-granary, Ebsco, Sage and strong internet connection. The aforementioned, are digital educational resources repository which can be accessed electronically, to offer books, journals and notes in digital format for example pdf. (White and Meissen, 2014).

In addition to the large stocks of books, the library is equipped with many computers which are all connected to the internet for research purposes. It is, however, unfortunate that most students at Oakford Teachers' College are non-residents; therefore, do not have adequate time to visit the library because they would be rushing home due to transport problems experienced after hours in most of the suburbs in Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe. The students cannot visit the library during the day because the timetable is congested. Lectures start at 08:00 in the morning and end at 16:30 hours in the afternoon. This affected the lecturers negatively because students would not have time to read the extra books in order to improve their English language proficiency.

WIFI is also available and accessible in lecture rooms, hostels and playgrounds but unfortunately, most of the students at Oakford do not have their own laptops and smart phones that can be connected to the WIFI. Therefore, the only option is to get into the library which has many computers which are connected to the internet but as has been earlier stated, there is no time left after lectures for non-resident students to get into the library. As noted earlier, this affected lecturers in their experiences in teaching through English negatively because students would not have time to use the available resources to enrich them in the English language. This thus

reflects badly on the lecturers when students underperform in the subject areas they teach.

These findings show that instead of researching on their own on the topics and content covered in lectures, students have to rely on lecturers for information. Thus students cannot develop academically without interacting individually with extra reading materials found on internet. This affects lecturers negatively in that students in teachers' colleges are supposed to research on their own to augment lectures. If students do not have access to extra reading materials found on internet, it means that lecturers have to give them extra information in form of handouts. This creates a lot of work on the part of lecturers.

One of the experiences of lecturers I also observed was that, there was neither a Language laboratory nor a communications skills centre. I believe that the two rooms are special rooms which would enable students to acquire English proficiency skills (Aleman, 2014). This therefore, affects lecturers' experiences in teaching through English in that instead of delivering the content for their subjects only, they also had to teach the English language which should be the responsibility of the language lecturers. Therefore, the lecturers had double responsibility which would increase their workload and also take some of their time for the content coverage in their subject areas.

### **6.6.3 Financial Resources**

Oakford Teachers' College is a government teachers' college; this came out from the focus group discussions and the semi-structured interviews. This means that the Zimbabwean Government is responsible for funding all projects at the college for example, construction of infrastructure. The government is also responsible for funding students through grants and loans.

Due to the current socio-economic problems experienced by the government of Zimbabwe, the government is not able to fund any projects at the teachers' college. Thus the college relies heavily on the fees paid by students. The government cannot pay students' grants and loans which mean that students cannot afford to pay their fees on time. Some students are therefore, sent back home to collect the fees from

parents and guardians, as a result they lose some lectures. When given assignments these very students would not perform well. Lecturers have their workload increased when they have to ask students to write again the assignments which they have to mark again.

Some of the experiences of lecturers were failure by students to pay their fees on time which has impacted negatively on the construction of new infrastructure. Failure by the management to construct more lecture rooms has also impacted negatively on the implementation of English medium of instruction for there would be not enough space for lecturers to teach in. Some lectures would end up being conducted in small gazebos which would not allow lecturers free movement as they teach because students would be occupying all the space. Because of the limited space for lectures, some lectures would be conducted in the dining hall. As stated earlier, some lessons would be disrupted at times when the dining hall has to be used for other functions at the college. Thus, lecturers at times fail to complete the syllabi as a result of these disturbances. This would result in poor results in examinations.

If the government loans and grants were made available to the students, they would be able to pay their fees on time. This would result in the construction of more lecture rooms, and this would ease the tension created by lack of enough teaching space therefore impacting positively on lecturers' experiences in teaching through the medium of English.

## **6.6.4 Human Resources**

### **6.6.4.1 Lecturers**

In this study, I involved two female and four male lecturers as participants. This was done in order to ensure that data was generated from gender-balanced sources such that in a way results reflected the views of different participants. The female participants involved however, were fewer than the male participants because in the subject areas studied, there were more males than females. I was therefore sensitive to the proportional representation of both males and females.

I observed that through focus group discussions, the lecturers who participated in this study had the experience of teaching at a teachers' college which ranges between ten and thirty years. This was also reflected in the interviews where lecturers talked about their massive experience in teaching at Oakford Teachers' College. This lengthy stay in service at the teachers' college made the lecturers, for example James, Jane and Trymore, to be well versed in teaching in higher education and they also knew how to present lectures in an English medium institution. To quote lecturer James, he said:

“Through massive experience, I am now confident in teaching in English.”

Lecturer James here meant that due to his lengthy stay at the teachers' college, he was confident to use English medium of instruction. This implied that, the longer the time one practices using a language in teaching, the more efficient and confident one becomes in that language (Rosen shine 1986).

In terms of qualifications, I discovered from the focus group discussions that most of the participants held a Masters' Degree in Education and a few held Bachelor's Degrees in Education in the subject areas they teach. Brian and Russell (2009), Lucas and Turner (2009) note that the level of qualification the lecturer has, does have an impact on their self-efficacy. These qualifications are suitable for lecturing at a primary Teachers' college because the students are post 'O' level and most of them have more than one 'O' level certificate. This situation is different from other countries like South Africa where teachers are trained at universities only.

As a researcher, I believe that qualifications impact on the lecturers' self-efficacy in terms of teaching in a higher education institution like Oakford Teacher's College because they would have acquired most of the content that would help them present lectures with ease. The fact that all the participants had obtained their degrees at English medium universities in Zimbabwe meant that they were well grounded in the content related to their subject areas. However, although the lecturers were well equipped to teach the content of their subjects, some did not have the English language skills to present their lectures effectively and this affected them negatively in their experiences in teaching through the medium of English.

Table 6.1 Background information of participating lecturers

Lecturer code	Gender	Qualifications	Experience (years)
LA	M	Master of Education	13
LB	M	Bachelor of Education	14
LC	F	Master of Education	33
LD	M	Master of Education	13
LE	M	Master of Education	15
LF	F	Master of Education	31

The establishment of the biographic data about the participants in terms of gender, lecturing experience and qualifications was done as a way of ensuring that participants of different gender, experience and qualifications were represented. I believed that this demographic data affected the way in which lecturers experienced teaching through the English medium as indicated in the preceding paragraph.

## 6.7 Conclusion

This chapter highlighted how lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College were affected by their experiences on teaching through the medium of English. The content taught, lecture and student activities affected lecturers positively or negatively in their teaching through English. It was noted that some lecturers had limited proficiency in the English language. This affected lecturers' presentations to the extent that they ended up code-switching between English and Shona in explaining difficult concepts. They ended up code-switching between English and Shona to enable them to effectively explain, exemplify and clarify concepts. Those lecturers, who taught entirely through English, were affected by the time factor. They needed more time so that terms and concepts could be well explained. This thus resulted in



some tasks not being completed in time because the timetable was congested, it could not allow for extra time for lecturers to complete unfinished tasks. The chapter went on to highlight that inadequate resources such as infrastructure, library facilities, financial resources and human resources like lecturers all affected lecturers negatively in their teaching through English. In the next chapter, I discuss why lecturers are experiencing the implementation of English medium of instruction the way it happens.

## CHAPTER 7

### REASONS FOR LECTURERS TO EXPERIENCE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF ENGLISH MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION THE WAY IT HAPPENS

#### 7.1 Introduction

In my preceding chapter, I explained in detail how lecturers' experiences affect them in teaching through the use of English. For this chapter, the discussion I will present will dwell on the reasons why lecturers experience the implementation of EMI the way it happens. I will present possible reasons based on findings, why lecturers' actions are like that as discussed in chapter five and six. I will draw in my theoretical and conceptual underpinnings to illuminate the reasons why lecturers in the chosen teachers' college are struggling in using English medium of instruction (EMI). The following broad themes that emerged from data are discussed:

- The government's lack of commitment towards the implementation of EMI
- Lack of state financial support
- Oakford Teachers' College's lack of dedication towards the implementation of the EMI policy
- The attitudes of lecturers towards the use of EMI
- Lecturers' ways of teaching
- lack of English language proficiency

#### 7.2 The government's lack of commitment towards the implementation of EMI

Data presented and discussed in chapters five and six show that lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College face a number of challenges as they try to implement EMI. Findings from the data reveal that lecturers are teaching in the absence of policy documents from the government, which indicate lack of adequate government support. This was found to be one of the reasons that affect the lecturers' experiences in implementing the English medium of instruction.

The government, through the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Science and Technology Development (MHTESTD) lacks commitment towards the implementation of English medium of instruction for two main reasons. Firstly, the

government fails to avail a clear policy document on the medium of teaching in tertiary education in Zimbabwe. Secondly, the government fails to monitor the implementation process. As indicated in chapter two, there is no clearly pronounced language policy on the medium of instruction; it is only highlighted on the ministry's website. The website simply states that English is the medium of instruction in higher education (Ministry of Higher Education, 1998). The above statement sounds dictatorial. This is because the government is not availing a clear medium of instruction policy in higher education, which shows its lack of commitment. Nziramasanga (1999) noted with concern, the difficulties which lecturers struggled with in using the English language in their teaching as well as the poor grades produced by students in examinations. He thus recommended that Ndebele and Shona (the so-called major languages then) be used together with English as mediums of instruction in higher education. This would help lecturers with limitations in the English language, to present lectures in a flexible manner that would help students understand the content taught.

Surprisingly, nineteen years down the line, there has not been any change in policy in higher education in Zimbabwe. Instead, the government has maintained the colonial medium of instruction in higher education (Makoni, Dube and Mashiri, 2008). This attitude is a clear reflection that the government still believes that English is superior to all other African indigenous languages that are spoken in Zimbabwe. If the government was committed to the successful implementation of the English medium of instruction, it would have considered using other Zimbabwean indigenous languages as mediums of instruction in line with Nziramasanga's (1999) recommendation that Shona and Ndebele (the so called major languages then) can be used as mediums of instruction alongside English.

Lack of change of policy in higher education in Zimbabwe was viewed by lecturer Trymore as a result of the colonial mentality which still upholds English as 'the language'.

This is different from what happened in South Africa as discussed at length in chapter two. On transition to democracy in 1994, South Africa recognised 11 official languages as languages of teaching and learning in tertiary education. This resulted

in a Ministerial Committee recommending in 2003 that, in addition to English/or Afrikaans, at least one official African language of the province concerned should be introduced as a language of instruction (Paxton, 2009). Furthermore, each institution of higher learning was granted an opportunity to devise institutional policies where English and/or Afrikaans and an indigenous African language were to be incorporated as media of instruction.

Therefore, what is happening in South Africa seems to show that due to globalisation, it seems difficult for any African government including Zimbabwe to do away with English since it is a medium of instruction in tertiary education institutions worldwide. Thus, doing away with English as a medium of instruction would mean moving out of the global village. According to Coleman (2006), there is need to adopt bilingualism policy where the indigenous African languages would be used in teaching to help lecturers to express themselves explicitly in lectures and help students to understand the content. Students will be able to participate in class discussion through asking and answering questions. If students asked questions, the lecturer would be in a position to effectively assist them in improving their academic lecture comprehension. Therefore, without students' questions, lecturers might be less able to determine students' specific problems and difficulties so that they might adjust their lectures in a timely manner (Chang, 2010). Thus, if the Zimbabwean administration was committed to the effective execution of the English medium of instruction, it would have raised the status of African indigenous languages to become mediums of instruction.

Furthermore, the medium of instruction policy is only accessible on Ministry of Higher Education's website without any hard copy that can be accessible to all stakeholders particularly the classroom practitioners (lecturers). This is noted in chapter two by Honberger (1996) who observes that policy is rarely accessible to practitioners working in the classroom and the underlying ideology motivations of policies tend to be implicated. This could be the reason why in this study, lecturers implement the EMI in the manner it happens because they implement the policy according to their own understandings. This is so because the policy, apart from being inaccessible, was simply imposed on them by the government without any clear implementation

procedure. However, the translanguaging theory that informs this study, states that although students' home languages are not recognised as mediums of instruction they can still be utilised to assist students in understanding difficult concepts in their academic studies (Yip and Garcia, 2015).

The unavailability of the medium of instruction policy document in higher education was reflected in chapter five by lecturers James, Nicky, Chipo, Trymore and Tom, who agreed that they had heard that English is the medium of instruction from different sources but they had not seen it. In response to a question that sought to establish whether lecturers had seen a document from the government on the medium of instruction policy, the five lecturers; James, Nicky, Chipo, Trymore and Tom noted that they had not seen any policy document. To quote as an example, lecturer Chipo, as indicated in chapter 5, she said:

I have heard about it, English. I don't have a particular document but it's just through hearsay and I also got the information from colleagues, the syllabus and textbooks.

From the above response, it is clear that lecturers had not seen any English medium of instruction policy document from the government. Failing to avail the policy document which would guide lecturers on how to implement EMI shows the lack of commitment by government towards the implementation of EMI. This is what this study finds as one of the reasons why lecturers experience the implementation of English medium of instruction the way it happens.

Apart from the five above-mentioned lecturers who had not seen the policy document from government, is lecturer Jane who referred to the Department of Teacher Education Handbook of 2015 and the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987. Lecturer Jane said:

I am quite aware, it is English. I got the information from DTE handbook and also from the primary and secondary school where you needed to use English from junior grades.

I can say that lecturer Jane got the information from the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987, which is incorporated in the Ministry of Higher Education website statement, which indicates that English is the medium of instruction in higher education. However, as stated earlier, the statement does not clearly show how the policy should be implemented.

As indicated in chapter two, the University of Zimbabwe, Department of Teacher Education (DTE) as the quality assurance evaluator of government on Teachers' Colleges also seems to lack commitment towards the implementation of English medium of instruction in teachers' colleges. I say this because the DTE handbook (2015, p.15), does not clearly outline the EMI policy. The policy is only implied:

Diploma in education (primary) a three-year programme is targeted at generalised teacher training for suitable post 'O' level candidates to teach at primary school level (Grade 1-7). To pass this competitive internationally recognised programme, candidates should satisfy examiners in the broad areas of teacher education competence.

The above stated document does not clearly indicate that English is the medium of instruction in teachers' colleges. It is only implied because of the use of the phrase 'internationally recognised programme'. A programme can only be internationally recognised if it uses the internationally recognised language (English) as the language of instruction. Furthermore, the DTE document, just like the Ministry of Higher Education website, does not outline the implementation procedure, therefore it is not clear. Gora (2013) and Makoni (2010) also observe that Zimbabwe has no clear policy on the medium of instruction in higher education. Lecturers are therefore left to decide on how they can implement EMI. Hence one of the reasons for lecturers to experience the implementation of EMI the way it happened.

The DTE policy according to Bamgbose (1991) is characterised by vagueness. The vagueness of the DTE policy makes it difficult for lecturers to recognise that it is the EMI policy. Furthermore, the vagueness of the policy makes it difficult for classroom practitioners to implement EMI in the same manner as might be desired by the policy

makers. This thus, as discussed in chapter five, results in various implementation styles experienced by lecturers.

As a result of non-availability of the medium of instruction policy from the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology Development, and Department of Teacher Education, which clearly outlines the implementation procedure to lecturers, could be one of the reasons why lecturers have different experiences of implementing EMI. The fact that lecturers use different sources which imply the policy like; the Ministry of Higher Education, Department of Teacher Education, syllabi, textbooks and colleagues, may result in different experiences of implementing EMI. The use of different sources may imply that lecturers interpret the sources differently hence end up having different knowledge on how to implement the policy, thus experiencing it differently. These different experiences in implementing the policy may be as a result that lecturers would have a different understanding of the policy documents, syllabi and textbooks.

The different styles of implementing EMI as indicated earlier might differ from the policy-makers' expectations, for example, as discussed in chapters five and six, some lecturers code-switched between English and Shona. This will be discussed later in the chapter. In a bid to explain why lecturers code-switched between English and Shona, lecturer Tom said:

Because there is no clear document, there is no guidance on how English should be used. We use English, but when we realise that students do not understand, we use Shona.

The above response clearly shows the dilemma in which lecturers found themselves in as implementers of the English medium of instruction policy. Tom's explanation is in line with Knagg (2013) who observes that lecturers want to adhere to policy by teaching in English. However, some lecturers end up code-switching between English and Shona in trying to balance requirement to implement English medium of instruction with their natural drive to give students the best education outcomes that are skills, knowledge and attitudes, hence the different implementation experiences.

This study found this as one of the reasons why lecturers experience the implementation of English medium of instruction the way it happens.

Therefore, probably with a clearly outlined document to guide them in their endeavour to help students produce good results in examinations, lecturers would implement the policy in a way that would be in line with the stakeholders' expectations. Thus, the different experiences of lecturers in implementing English medium of instruction was viewed by Nziramasanga (1999, p.169) as "confused and half-hearted in the execution of the current language policy where English is considered the official medium of tutoring in higher education." The lecturers, though keen to apply the policy as anticipated by the policy makers, had no clear guidelines on how they should implement the policy, therefore could not be blamed for the different ways in which they implemented English medium of instruction. The lecturers instead, were trying to make learning more comfortable to students, who lacked proficiency in English, than creating a tense atmosphere where students would fail to participate in class as well as comprehend lecturers in English. This was observed by Duff (1997) who noted that, the use of English among students who lacked proficiency in the English Language created a tense atmosphere in the classroom. As a result, students would not participate in class as well as comprehend lectures in English, as reflected in the translanguaging theory that informs this study, discussed in chapter four. As I defined the concept earlier, translanguaging is the process where multilingual speakers utilise all their languages as an integrated communication system (Canagarajah, 2011).

On what is the best way to ensure successful implementation of EMI in chapter five, lecturers Chipu and Nicky agreed that failure by the government to monitor the implementation process resulted in different experiences by lecturers in their implementation of the English medium of instruction process. This is one of the reasons for lecturers to experience the implementation of the English medium of instruction the way it happens. In agreement with Chipu and Nicky, lecturer Tom also felt that if people know that no one supervises their teaching, they ignore the policy and do as they please.



Knagg (2013) notes that, policy and practice usually do not match. He gives an example that he observed at a university in South Asia City that lecturers and students spoke in Cantonese, the dominant local language which is universally spoken and understood by the university community instead of using English as dictated by policy (Knagg 2013). Brock-Utne (2007) purports that at the University of Dar as Salaam from 1987-1992, she was shocked to hear lecturers and students communicating in Kiswahili in lectures, yet the language of instruction was English. This is the case with the government of Zimbabwe that if the medium of instruction policy states that English is the medium of instruction in higher education this is what is happening. Unfortunately, lecturers have different implementation styles hence different experiences with the expectations of the government. In this study, effective teachers adjust their teaching styles in order to meet the needs of students.

Knagg (2013) thus observes that it is not always the case that policy and practice match. This is so because as observed by (Tsui and Tollefson, 2006), effective teachers adjust practices that are handed down to them through textbooks and syllabi to serve the needs of their students. This therefore implies that if the government of Zimbabwe does not supervise the implementation process, lecturers will teach in any way they feel is good for students to be able to understand content.

From the above discussion, I can say that lack of commitment to avail a clear English medium of instruction policy document and to monitor the implementation process could be the reason for lecturers to have different experiences on the implementation of EMI.

### **7.2.1 Lack of state's financial support**

The study found that the other reason for lecturers to experience the implementation of English medium of instruction the way it happens is the government's lack of financial support. As discussed in chapter six, Oakford Teacher's College is a government teacher's college. This, therefore, means that the Zimbabwean government is in charge of funding projects and students through grants and loans. This leaves the college to rely heavily on students' fees, if they want to construct any infrastructure.

Unfortunately, students cannot pay their fees on time therefore no infrastructure is constructed. As discussed in chapter six, there is not enough teaching space at the teachers' college, therefore if the government was committed to support the construction of projects there would be enough lecture rooms that would allow the lecturers to conduct their lectures freely. There would also be special rooms like the communication skills centre and the language laboratory that would allow students to practice the use of English effectively. Lack of support by government resulted in some lectures being conducted in the dining hall because of lack of space. This means that lectures were disrupted when the dining hall was used for other functions at the college. Since the timetable at the college is congested, lecturers would not be able to compensate for the disrupted lectures. Therefore, if the government was committed to the education of its nation, bigger lecture rooms would be constructed. For example, a lecture theatre that can accommodate large numbers of students of about 200-250, as such are commonly found in the Theory of Education and Physical Education lectures.

Again, Physical Education does not have a special room, which means that learning in an ordinary room is a serious challenge because the subject has some special materials like mattresses, which need to be kept in special rooms. The government's lack of financial support to the college leaves a lot to be desired. Lack of enough teaching space, as mentioned in chapter six, creates tension among lecturers and students because some lectures would be conducted in small gazebos which do not accommodate large numbers of students which are characteristic of most lectures of the teacher's college. The study deduces that lack of government financial support is one of the reasons why lecturers at times conduct lecturer-centred lectures, especially, because of teaching space. If the government funded the college projects, rooms would be well equipped with electronic gadgets like projectors that would allow the presentation of lectures using PowerPoint to enhance effective learning in an EMI. Therefore, failure by the government to fund the college resulted in limited space and unfavourable classroom environment, which the study finds as one of the reasons for lecturers to experience the implementation of English medium of instruction the way it happens.

### **7.2.2 The Oakford Teachers' College lack of commitment towards the implementation of the EMI policy**

It is not only the government that lacks commitment towards the implementation of EMI. The research findings discussed in chapter five revealed that Oakford Teachers' College also lacked commitment towards the implementation of English medium of instruction.

From the discussion on whether there was a college policy on the medium of instruction at Oakford Teachers' College, three out of six lecturers, Chipo, Trymore and Nicky clearly stated that they had not seen any college policy document on the language of instruction. To quote lecturer Chipo verbatim she said:

When we were inducted on how to conduct lectures at the teachers' college, we were told by our seniors that we must use English.

When asked how they operate without a language policy document, lecturer Trymore simply said that they just teach. The three aforementioned lecturers, Chipo, Trymore and Nicky's responses clearly show that the Oakford Teachers' College was not committed to the implementation of EMI.

The other two lecturers, James and Tom said that they had not seen the college policy document but they felt it was there because in staff meetings there was a lot of talk on the need to teach in English.

## **7.3 Lecturers' attitudes towards the use of English medium of instruction**

As discussed in chapters five and six, all the six lecturers in this study knew that they were expected to teach solely in English, as stipulated by the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 which assumes the position of the medium of instruction policy in higher education. They had positive attitudes towards teaching in English for they knew the importance that English had in higher education locally, nationally and globally. In chapter two, several reasons were discussed on the importance of English. These included, preparing students for employment locally, regionally and internationally, to attract international students and lecturers, to open up new source of revenue, to raise the profile of institutions to enable lecturers and

students to pursue degrees locally, internationally and globally. Most importantly, in Sub-Saharan African contexts, English acts as an impartial language.

It is important to state that Oakford College adopts EMI not to enhance foreign language learning. As indicated above, the most important reason for adopting English medium of instruction in higher education institutions is the increasing dominance of English (Coleman, 2006), which was also discussed at length in chapter five where all the six lecturers agreed that it was important to teach in English for several reasons. The reasons given by lecturers on the need to teach in English are almost similar to those found in literature which clearly shows that the importance of English need not be advertised. English has already acquired a force of its own across the globe (Knagg, 2013).

One of the reasons for teaching in English echoed by lecturers Trymore and James were that it was important to teach in English because examinations were in English therefore students had to be instructed in English so that they become used to the target language.

No matter the lecturers' attitudes are positive towards the implementation of the EMI, it does not sound well to find that some lecturers laugh or ridicule students who do not have good English skills, as evidenced in chapter 6. As a result, some students find themselves in the position where they do not want to have attempts on the answers wanted by the lecturer, because of fear of being laughed at. This is not what a good lecturer is supposed to do to his or her students. Instead, the lecturer in class is expected to encourage participation of students, not to demotivate them (Knagg, 2013).

The aforementioned lecturers, Trymore and James were of the view that continuous practice in using English would enable students to use it effectively in assignments and examinations. Therefore, they felt that it was pertinent to teach in English. It is vital to use the language of the examinations in teaching to enable students to practice using the English language effectively in examinations. As noted in chapter 5 by lecturers Nicky, Chipso and Jane, English is an international language therefore, it is essential to teach in the English in order to empower the students academically

and professionally because they will be able to study and be employed anywhere in the world. Thus, lecturers Nicky, Chipu and Jane noted the importance English had as an international language and their attitude towards this language seem to be positive. This finding is consistent with Vinke, Snippe and Jockems (1998), who observe that internationalisation of education, is important because it facilitates exchange of knowledge which would in turn shape international collaboration. Jane also expressed that English would 'enable students to function in any society.' This is in line with Coleman (2011) who notes that, English increases employability facilitate migration, studying abroad and unlocks development opportunity.

#### 7.4. Lecturers' ways of teaching

As discussed in chapter six lecturers have different ways of teaching. Among them are giving homework, allowing students' class presentations, lecture-method, providing notes and the chalk-and-talk (chalkboard and talk) methods. Some of the methods that the lecturers used were helpful to students, while others did not actually encourage additive bilingualism and how the translanguaging theory views the acquisition of second language learning, as discussed in chapter four.

##### 7.4.1 Giving students home work

From the data discussed in chapter six, it emerged that providing students with homework was one of the ways of teaching used by lecturers in their lesson presentations. In one of the Theory of Education lectures with a third year class on "Personality Development" lecturer James gave students homework in preparation for a lecture that would come after three days. The homework was on three different topics which were "Why should teachers learn about Personality Development? How do primary school teachers benefit from personality in the classroom? and "What is Curriculum Planning?" The dialogues of the first two presentations were discussed in chapter six. I did not observe the lesson when students were given the group tasks but I observed the lesson where the different groups where giving feedback on the assigned topics through class presentations.

It is motivating to note that the students' presentations went on very well. These will be discussed in the next subsection. Surprisingly, though it emerged in the interviews that lecturer James is the only one who gave students homework, from

the presentations I discovered that the group representatives presented a lot of information on their assigned topics. I found the strategy to be very effective in that all the other students wrote notes from the presentations. Giving students homework was therefore, found to be a very useful method of teaching because students were able to interact on their own. One would therefore ask oneself why other lecturers did not use such a method. The answer could be that some lecturers forgot that students in higher education are very mature that they can do some work on their own.

#### **7.4.2 Students' oral presentations**

As discussed above, I observed the lesson when students were presenting the tasks they were given three days before as homework by lecturer James. It came out from the data given in chapter six that the students' presentations came up with a lot of points. It also emerged that some students who were listeners were very attentive probably because fellow students did the presentations. Even the way they participated in this lecture was very interesting in that they responded to the questions asked by the lecturer with great confidence because it appeared as if they had grasped the content presented. This confirms Cross' (1987) observation that when learners are actively involved in educational activities they gain more than when they are passive recipients of information. The students in this study had been involved in researching and discussing on their assigned topics on their own therefore, had mastered the content. Therefore, I found this a useful method in teaching students who should be taught in the second language, in this case, English. The inclusion of Shona in some of the presentations as demonstrated in chapter six, clearly shows that the students' mother tongue is necessary in the classroom, even if the medium of instruction is English. This, therefore, means that the issue of purely English medium of instruction needs to be looked at by the Zimbabwe Ministry of Education, because it is clear that it is not easy for lecturers to neglect Shona, the students' mother tongue in the lecturers. Evidence in chapter six has been presented and it shows clearly that what is useful to the students is that EMI requires to be used in collaboration with students' mother tongue if students are to master the content.

### **7.4.3** Pair work

As discussed in chapter six, lecturer Jane in her presentation of a lecture in "Theory of Education" to third year students on a topic "Personality Development by Sigmund Freud" used pair work as one of her strategies in teaching. The dialogue on this lecture was presented in chapter six. It emerged that after lecturing for 30 minutes on the Aural Aggressive Stage lecturer Jane asked students to discuss in pairs what they would do if they saw that a child at this stage is very pessimistic and very aggressive.

It emerged from the data that students' discussions in pairs were very fruitful. This was because the students were able to answer lecturer Jane's question with ease. This was due to lecturer Jane's lesson presentation which was very interactive that when students discussed in pairs they discussed with a lot of information gained from her lecture, therefore, this could be another reason for the success of lecturer Jane's lesson.

In a Physical Education lecture with third year students on "Systems and Energy" lecturer Nicky explained how energy is produced in the body in a rather uninteractive way. When he asked students to discuss in pairs how energy is released in the body students seemed to be sharing information. However the fact that I did not observe any feedback from the pair work by student makes it possible that lecturer Nicky had noticed that nothing productive had come out of the pair works. This could be probably because the students had not grasped the concepts presented in a passive manner. What this, therefore, means is that if students are not involved directly in the initial presentation process, even when one uses an effective strategy like pair work, nothing comes out properly. This is so because the same method had been used by lecturer Jane and it had worked. Hence, this is one of the rationales for lecturers to experience the implementation of EMI the way it happened.

### **7.4.4** Providing notes

As discussed in chapter six, providing notes is one of the strategies used by lecturers in teaching. Most lecturers like Trymore, Chipu, Tom and Nicky provided students with notes as they taught for several reasons. All lecturers provided students with

notes 'to save time', as stated by lecturer Trymore who said "I just dictate notes to save time." Lecturer Chipu also dictated notes in her Physical Education lectures. She said that students had problems in listening and writing notes at the same time so by reading notes loudly and slowly students would be able to capture the notes. However providing students with notes at tertiary level was not effective because what was important was for students to understand the content first then be able to write their own notes. I see the issue of providing notes to students encouraging rote learning because students would memorize the content so that they would recite it for examinations. It does not sound well to say that notes are dictated to students to 'save time'. This indicates that some lecturers are not well equipped with teaching skills, if they can think that giving notes to students is the best thing to do, especially, to the extent of mentioning that they 'save time' when they do this. It is also surprising that four out of the six lecturers mentioned this, which clearly indicates that the lecturers are not well trained to teach at the college.

While it is good that students should be given notes, but lecturers need to understand that notes cannot play the lecturer's role; that is, teaching the students. Psychologists like Astin (1985) and Cross (1981) observe that when students are involved psychologically and physiologically in learning they learn more than when they are passive recipients of information.

The translanguaging theory as discussed in chapter four discourages rote learning because it does not facilitate understanding of content. Cazden (2005, p.8) posits that there is a difference in "reciting by heart" and "retelling in one's own words". According to Cazden (2005) retelling in one's own words increases understanding and creates independent thinking which results in a strong understanding of the content. The translanguaging theory thus permits the use of students' home language to enable them to have a strong understanding of the subject matter (Barker, 2000).

This implies that instead of spoon-feeding students by providing notes the best way was to use a language that all students understand best to enable them to comprehend the content hence write their own notes. The lecturers in this study thought that they were doing students a favour by providing them with notes yet



they were encouraging rote learning as has been said earlier. Using English only in teaching resulted in students not being given their space to talk in the lessons. In other words lecturers 'preached' to the students which is a characteristic ineffective teaching. This is in line with Vinke, Sniper and Jochems (1998) who note that the use of EMI reduces lecturer's competence to interact therefore reduces students understanding of content.

#### **7.4.5 The chalk-and-talk (chalkboard and talk) method**

As discussed in chapter six, lecturer Tom was observed teaching Mathematics using the chalkboard and talk style. The chalkboard and talk is referred to by Flowerdew et al. (2000) as teaching using the chalkboard to explain the concept. The chalkboard and talk style is a very old style of teaching which does not facilitate understanding because as observed, it was lecturer Tom who was doing the talking. This implies that, just like providing notes the chalk-and-talk is a lecturer-centred method of teaching. This method again, just like providing notes, encouraged rote learning.

Again, the chalkboard and talk is characteristics of lectures where lecturers use English only to teach without finding alternative strategies to facilitate learning as like the use of translanguaging and code switching. According to Mashiyi (2014) lecturers should use their opinion and discretionary powers to make a decision on how best to assist students in their learning. Instead of the chalkboard and talk strategy, lecturers could use languages available to help students to achieve effective learning outcomes (Mashiyi, 2014).

### **7.5 Lack of English language proficiency**

Another reason why lecturers experience the use of English in the implementation of EMI the way it happens is that most of the lecturers and students had problems in using English in teaching and learning. The study found that both lecturers and students had problems with the English language and therefore code-switching was found to be the solution as it encouraged active participation of students. The study found that, firstly, lecturers code-switched in lectures to help students who struggled with English to understand the content taught. Secondly, lecturers themselves could not teach entirely in English for one and half hours. Thirdly, code-switching also allowed students to participate in class discussions so as enhance their

comprehension. As a result of the three highlighted problems, lecturers find it difficult to implement the EMI.

As indicated in chapter four, translanguaging means using one's language to support the other in order to assist learners who lack proficiency in one language (Williams, 2002). In this study, students had difficulties in understanding content presented in English hence lecturers used Shona, the mother tongue of most students at the college to help them understand the content taught. In other words by code-switching between English and Shona, lecturers were guided by the translanguaging theory, which says that two languages can be used interchangeably in lectures to facilitate understanding of concepts. Translanguaging initially meant educational activities in which learners were asked to exchange languages for accessible or creative use for instance, learners could be tasked to read in English then write in Welsh and the other way round (Baker 2011).

Yip and Garcia (2015) concur that although educational policies state the privilege of English in schools; translanguaging presents a form of subversion in which students can make use of those languages targeted for extinction when they use their mother tongue in learning with the support of their teachers. Therefore, the reason for lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College to code-switch between English and Shona, the mother tongue of most students, was to help students understand content. In the same vein Lewis, Jones and Barker (2012) explain that translanguaging refers to using a single language to support another in order to improve comprehension and supplement pupils' work in the two languages.

From the detailed discussion on the concept bilingualism and bilingual education in chapter four, I noted that the Zimbabwean higher education context includes bi/multilingual students but does not involve bilingual instruction. Zimbabwean tertiary education uses EMI only yet tertiary education institutions enrol students with different linguistic backgrounds. The Zimbabwean context therefore is a bi/multilingual situation and not a bi/multilingual education.

The fact that higher education in Zimbabwe is a bi/multilingual situation enables lecturers to code-switch and trans-language in lectures. The translanguaging theory

recognises the use of all the languages students bring to school to enhance their understanding of content even when they are not mandated as media of instruction by language policy. Therefore when some lecturers at Oakford Teachers' College code-switch between English and Shona they seem to be violating the policy per se, but when one observes the situation on the ground, that students are failing to understand the content taught, one begins to appreciate these pedagogical tools (translanguaging and code-switching). This finding confirms Yeh's (2012) study who observes that code-switching may be seen as violating the official all English policy but, content teachers generally believed that code-switching was helpful in the implementation of EMI. Therefore, at Oakford Teachers' College, lecturers switched to the mother tongue in order to enhance understanding of content by students.

The other reason why lecturers experience the implementation of EMI in the way it happens is that they code-switched because of the lecturers' own inability to use the English language entirely in a one and half hour lecturer. It is apparent that even lecturers have limitations in using the English language in teaching as a result they resort to Shona the mother tongue of both lecturers and students. These lecturers from my point of view are very accommodative in that they are concerned with their students' grasp of concepts. The lecturers thus use Shona to express themselves explicitly so that students understand. In other words, if students do not know the language in which they are taught, they cannot possibly comprehend the content, hence translanguaging provides a way of making difficult content instruction understandable.

It is clear that in as much as lecturers would want to use English only in teaching, there are instances where they should allow the use of the mother tongue to enable students to participate in class discussions. This was echoed by Clemensen (2010) speaking about students in grade 8 and 9 in Zambia's Bwasana Basic School, who notes that pupils' participation was increased through the use of their home language.

Having noted the importance of translanguaging in higher education, Kotze (2014) argues that effective teaching strategies which embrace the mother tongue in learning regardless of EMI policies should be publicised adequately so as to shape

the foundation of the new policy that recognises the mother tongue in education at all levels.

## **7.6 Conclusion**

This thesis reported on lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI at a teachers college in Zimbabwe. In chapter five, I explored lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI and in chapter six; I explored how lecturers are affected by their experiences in teaching through the EMI. In this chapter (chapter seven), I dealt with the analysis and discussion of main themes that emerged out of the data. In this section, I summarise according to each research question and show how the thesis answered each of the three research questions and how I will then conclude by giving implications for further research.

### **7.6.1 Research question one**

What are the lecturers' experiences on the implementation of EMI in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

In this study the findings have revealed that teachers at Oakford Teachers College teach without a policy document from the government concerning the medium of instruction. The study established that five out of the six participating teachers taught in English but they had no knowledge on how the government wanted the policy to be implemented. This was like this because, since they had not seen the medium of instruction policy, they had not also seen the implementation procedures. This made lecturers present lectures in different styles some of which were against the expectations of the government.

To make the situation difficult the teachers' college under study did not avail a policy document to the lecturers therefore lecturers taught in their own different ways.

The study also established that most lecturers used code-switching between English language and Shona to help students who had difficulties with English language to be able to comprehend content as well as participate in class discussions which would again enhance their understanding of content.

Furthermore, students failed to participate in class through asking and answering questions due to the language barrier. They feared that they would be laughed at by peers if they gave wrong answers.

The study reviewed that most lecturers felt that they were confident in the English language therefore; they had no trouble in presenting their lectures in English. Nevertheless, some used the mother tongue of the students when they felt that students did not understand the content taught.

The study also established that lack of resources such as communication skills centre and a language laboratory hindered the students from acquiring communication skills which would help them in using English in lectures for effective understanding of content.

### **7.6.2 Research question two**

How are lecturers affected by their experiences in teaching through English medium of instruction in a teachers' college?

#### **7.6.2.1 Content taught**

The research established that the mastery of content by students depended upon the tongue that the lecturers used as means of instruction. The study revealed that all the six participating lecturers presented their lectures in English however four out of the six lecturers indicated that they at times switched over to Shona. The four participants who switched to Shona said that they did that when they found that they could not express themselves clearly in English. The other reason given for switching to Shona was when lecturers noticed that students had problems in grasping the concepts taught in English.

The findings also revealed that whenever lecturers stick to English only in teaching, students did not contribute in class discussions. In the end, lecturers provided students with notes with the hope that they would read later and understand the concepts. The study revealed that providing notes facilitated rote learning as opposed to active learning which enhanced comprehension.

#### 7.6.2.2 Lecturer and student activities

The study revealed that using active learning activities like group presentations and group work enabled students to be active participants in the lectures. This resulted in them grasping the content taught. The research also revealed that giving students homework enabled students to read at their own pace and discuss freely in the language they understand. This helped students to be active in the lessons as they were able to participate. Students' presentations also helped students to be responsible for their learning which resulted in them fairly understanding the content.

#### 7.6.2.3 The use of English and Shona code-switching in the lecture room

Some lecturers switched between English and Shona in lectures. This was in order to assist students whom they perceived to lack proficiency in the English language. Furthermore, some lecturers code-switched between English and Shona in order to alleviate their own problems with the English language to explain the content explicitly for student to comprehend.

#### 7.6.2.4 Students' participation when taught in English

Participation of students was very high when lectures were presented in English and Shona. This was due to the fact that students could understand the content well therefore could respond positively to the question asked by the lecturer. In addition, students were confident to participate in lectures where they were allowed to use Shona in asking or answering question.

#### 7.6.2.5 Inadequate resources

The Oakford Teachers' College did not have enough teaching space therefore they could not display subject related materials in the rooms to allow students to interact among themselves. Lack of teaching and learning space led to some lectures being held in small gazebos. This made it impossible for some electronic gadgets to be fixed in such rooms yet these electronic gadgets would help lecturers to effectively present their lectures.

### **7.6.3 Research question three**

Why do lecturers experience the implementation of EMI the way it happens in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

#### 7.6.3.1 The government's lack of commitment towards the implementation of EMI.

Lack of commitment by the government to avail a medium of instruction policy, instead of availing a policy, the government relies on the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 which states that English is the medium of instruction from Grade four up to tertiary level, while indigenous African languages are taught as subjects. This makes it difficult for lecturers to implement EMI effectively because there are no clear guidelines on how lecturers should teach. This resulted in lecturers teaching in a variety of ways, some of which are not very useful as they encourage rote learning. Furthermore, the lack of commitment by the government to monitor the implementation of the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 in relation to EMI encouraged the lecturers to teach in diverse ways to enable them to serve the needs of their students. However this goes against the expectations of the Government of Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987.

#### 7.6.3.2 Lack of the government's financial support

The study revealed that the government of Zimbabwe failed to give funding support at the teachers' college. Lack of funding support by the government resulted in the lack of any new construction projects going on at the teachers' college. This resulted in lack of enough teaching space, lack of teaching resources and favourable learning environment. Lack of lecture rooms made some lectures to be conducted in unconducive places like the dining hall and small gazebos dotted around the college. Furthermore, the government's lack of support in funding the Teacher's College has resulted in failure by the college to extend infrastructure which includes a communication skills centre and a language laboratory to facilitate the learning and acquisition of English skills. Lack of all the above stated resources enabled ineffective implementation of EMI.

#### 7.6.3.3 The Oakford Teachers' College's lack of dedication towards the implementation of the English medium of instruction policy

The study has shown that lack of dedication by teachers' college to avail an official document that stipulates the medium of instruction that enhances lecture delivery, allowed lecturers to implement EMI in various ways.

#### 7.6.3.4 Lecturers' ways of teaching

Most lecturers presented their lessons in ways that did not facilitate comprehension and participation of students. Some lecturers however, used active methods of teaching which were psychologically sound in that they facilitated the grasp of content by students.

#### 7.6.3.5 The attitude of lecturers towards the use of EMI

Lecturers did not have any negative stance towards the use of EMI. When they code-switched between English and Shona it was in an effort to assist students who lacked English proficiency to comprehend the content taught. This would facilitate participation in discussions as well as in producing good results in both assignments and examinations.

#### 7.6.3.6 Lack of English language proficiency

The majority of lecturers had poor language skills which resulted in them code-switching between English and Shona in lectures in an effort to explain difficult content. Code switching also allowed students to participate in class discussion so as to enhance their comprehension.

## 7.7 Recommendations

From the findings the research recommends that:

- ❖ The Zimbabwean government should avail the medium of instruction policy with implementation procedures to lecturers who are responsible for implementing the EMI.
- ❖ The government of Zimbabwe should avail funds to the teachers' college to enable it to construct enough teaching space as well as furnishing all lecture rooms with gadgets that facilitate current trends in learning.
- ❖ The teachers' college should also make efforts to avail an official document which explains clearly the implementation procedure to enable lecturers to teach in a manner that is in line with both college and government's expectations.
- ❖ The government of Zimbabwe should design a flexible medium of instruction policy that recommend that in addition to English, at least one official language of the linguistic region concerned, be used to compliment the EMI



to enhance improved teaching and learning by indigenous African lecturers and students without prejudice to other local languages spoken in Zimbabwe.

- ❖ Lecturers need to be capacitated with skills to use active learning strategies and avoid lecturer-centred lessons.
- ❖ The college should avail a communication skills centre and a language laboratory to facilitate the acquisition and learning of communication skills.

## 7.8 Implications for further research

From the findings of this thesis, the following may be needed for further research.

- ❖ This study was conducted at one teachers' college. It may be interesting if the study included many teachers' colleges, as this would explore lecturers' experiences in several teachers' colleges so that the results may be generalised.
- ❖ There is a need for further research that will look at the possibility of using a multilingualism policy which supports the use of English and students' mother tongue as medium of instruction in higher education institutions.

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Appendix A: Letter requesting permission from the Ministry of  
Higher and Tertiary Education Science and Technology  
Development to conduct research in a teachers' college

6492 Mango Drive  
Zimre Park Ruwa  
9 August, 2016

The Permanent Secretary  
Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Science and Technology  
P.O Box CY 7732  
Causeway  
Harare, Zimbabwe.

Dear Sir/Madam

**Re: Request for Permission to Conduct Research**

I am a PhD student studying at the University of KwaZulu Natal, Edgewood campus, South Africa. I would like to request your permission to conduct my research in one of your Teachers' colleges entitled, "Towards the implementation of the English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe."

The aim of the study is to investigate lecturers' understanding about the implementation of English medium of instruction Policy in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe, explore the ways in which lecturers implement the English medium of instruction and why they do so. I will first observe lecturers teaching. From the observation, I will conduct one on one interview session with selected lecturers. After this all the lecturers would be requested to participate in a focus group session which will be scheduled for 1 hour. I will arrange with the participants to find the most convenient time for them so that I will not disrupt their teaching programmes. I intend to visit the college during the period of June and July, 2017.

Yours Faithfully

Tatira Shamiso  
Email: [shamiso.tatira@gmail.com](mailto:shamiso.tatira@gmail.com)  
Cell 0772 422 853

Supervisor Details: Dr.Zinhle Primrose Nkosi  
Email: Nkosiz@ukzn.ac.za (Tel) +27 (0) 31 260 3691



You may also contact the Research Office through  
Dr Shamila Naidoo  
HSSREC Research Office  
Tel 031 260 4557  
Email [snymanm@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:snymanm@ukzn.ac.za)

## Appendix B: Letter requesting permission from participants to take part in the research

6492 Mango Drive  
Zimre Park  
Ruwa  
9 August, 2016

Dear Participant

### **INFORMED CONSENT LETTER**

My name is Shamiso Tatira, I am a PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu- Natal, Edgewood campus, South Africa. I am conducting a study entitled, "Towards the implementation of the English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe"

The aim of the study is to investigate lecturers' understanding about the implementation of English medium of instruction Policy in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe, explore the ways in which lecturers implement the English medium of instruction and why they do so. I will first observe lecturers teaching. From the observation, I will conduct one on one interview session with selected lecturers. After this all the lecturers would be requested to participate in a focus group session which will be scheduled for 1 hour.

Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person, but reported only as a population member opinion.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purpose of this research only.
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.
- You have a choice to participate, not to participate or stop participating in research. You will not be penalised for taking such an action.
- The research aims at establishing approaches and strategies used by lecturers in lecturing and why in the English medium of instruction.
- Your involvement is solely for academic purposes, and there are no financial benefits involved.
- If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment: Voice Recorder.

My contact details are:

Email [Shamiso.tatira@gmail.com](mailto:Shamiso.tatira@gmail.com)

Cell +263- (0) - 772 422 853

My supervisor's details are

Dr.Zinhle Primrose Nkosi

School of Education, Edgewood Campus  
University of KwaZulu Natal  
Email [Nkosi@ukzn.ca.za](mailto:Nkosi@ukzn.ca.za)  
Tel +27 (0) 312603691

You may also contact the Research Office through  
Dr Shamila Naidoo  
HSSREC Research Office  
Tel 031 260 4557  
Email [snymanm@uknz.ac.za](mailto:snymanm@uknz.ac.za)

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

### **DECLARATION**

I \_\_\_\_\_ (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at anytime, should I so desire.

I agree/do not agree to be audio taped \_\_\_\_\_

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix C: Letter requesting permission from the Principal of the teachers' college to conduct research in the college

6492 Mango Drive  
Zimre Park  
Ruwa  
9 August, 2016

Dear Principal

### **REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

My name is Shamiso Tatira. I am a PhD student studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood campus, South Africa.

I would like to request your permission to conduct my research in your college entitled, "Towards the Implementation of the English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe." The aim of the study is to investigate lecturers' understanding about the implementation of the English medium of instruction Policy in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe, explore the ways in which lecturers implement the English medium of instruction and why they do so. I will first observe lecturers from five subject areas delivering lectures. From observations, I will be conducting a one on one interview session with selected lecturers. The interview is scheduled for twenty-five minutes per lecture. I will then ask five lecturers to participate in a focus group session which will be scheduled for one hour. Please note that,

- A pseudonym will be used instead of the real name of the college.
- Participants' confidentiality is guaranteed as their inputs will not be attributed to them in person, but reported only as a population member opinion.
- Any information given by participants cannot be used against them, and the collected data will be used for purpose of this research only.
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.
- They have a choice to participate, not to participate or stop participating in the research. They will not be penalised to taking such an action.
- The research aims at investigating the implementation of the English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe.
- Their involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.

Your positive response to this request will be highly appreciated.

Yours Sincerely

Tatira, S.

My contact details are:

Email [Shamiso.tatira@gmail.com](mailto:Shamiso.tatira@gmail.com)

Cell +263- (0) - 772 422 853

My supervisor's details are

Dr.Zinhle Primrose Nkosi

School of Education, Edgewood Campus

University of KwaZulu Natal

Email [Nkosiz@ukzn.ca.za](mailto:Nkosiz@ukzn.ca.za)

Tel +27 (0) 312603691

You may also contact the Research Office through

Dr Shamila Naidoo

HSSREC Research Office

Tel 031 260 4557

Email [snymanm@uknz.ac.za](mailto:snymanm@uknz.ac.za)

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

## **DECLARATION**

I \_\_\_\_\_ (full names of principal) hereby confirm that I have been informed of the nature, purpose and procedures of the study. I have received, read and understood the written information about the study.

I agree/do not agree that my lecturers participate in this study.

SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL

DATE

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix D: Interview Schedule

Interview schedule for lecturers: Lecturers' experiences on the implementation of English medium of instruction in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe.

1. Are you aware of the government's position on the medium of instruction in higher education in Zimbabwe? Where did you get the information from?

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2. Does your teacher's college have a language policy?

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3. What is your understanding about the implementation of English medium of instruction in your teachers' college?

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4. How do you experience the act of teaching in English in a teachers' college in Zimbabwe?

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5. How do you view your own English skills and practices?

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6. What is your view about teaching in the medium of English?

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7. How do you feel when delivering your lessons in English?

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8. What challenges do you encounter in implementing the English medium of instruction?

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9. What are the students' attitudes towards the use of English as medium of instruction?

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10. How does this affect you?

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11. Does the teachers' college have adequate resources to facilitate the English medium of instruction programmes?

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12. Do you think English should continue to be the medium of instruction in higher education in Zimbabwe?

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13. What do you suggest to be the best way to ensure the successful implementation of the policy?

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## Appendix E: Focus group schedule

1. What are your views on the continued use of English as medium of instruction in independent Zimbabwe?
2. Are you finding it easy or difficult to teach through the English medium of instruction? Elaborate.
3. What are the factors that influence the use of English medium of instruction and how does this affect you?

## Appendix F: Observation schedule

Subject.....

Date and time.....

Lecturer.....

Focus observation.....

Topic covered.....

Classroom interaction – language used as medium of instruction

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English skills and practices demonstrated by the lecturer

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Level of student participation during lecture delivery

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General comments

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# APPENDIX G: LETTER FROM THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

All official communications should be addressed to:  
"The Secretary for Higher & Tertiary Education  
Telephones: 795891-5, 796441-9, 730055-9  
Fax Numbers: 792109, 728730, 703957  
E-mail: [thesecretary@mhet.ac.zw](mailto:thesecretary@mhet.ac.zw)  
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"



Reference:

MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY  
EDUCATION  
P. BAG CY 7732  
CAUSEWAY

26 August 2016

6492 Mango Drive  
Zimre Park Ruwa  
**HARARE**

Dear Mrs Tatira,

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## REQUEST OF AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH ENTITLED "TOWARDS THE IMPELMENTATION OF THE ENGLISH MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN TEACHERS' COLLEGE IN ZIMBABWE" MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT

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Reference is made to your letter, in which you requested for permission to carry out a research on **"Towards the implementation of the English medium of instruction in Teachers' College in Zimbabwe.**

Accordingly, please be advised that the Head of Ministry has granted permission for you to carry out the research.

It is hoped that your research will benefit the Ministry and it would be appreciated if you could supply the office of the Permanent Secretary with a final copy of your study, as the findings would be relevant to the Ministry's strategic planning process.

*PP. Mudyiwa L.*

Mudyiwa L. (Mr)  
Director - Human Resources  
FOR: **PERMANENT SECRETARY**



# APPENDIX H: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



18 October 2016

Mrs Shamiso Tatira 214585027  
School of Education  
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mrs Tatira

Protocol reference number: HSS/1702/016D

Project title: A study of the implementation of the English Medium of Instruction in a Teachers' College in Zimbabwe

**Full Approval – Expedited Application**

In response to your application received 11 October 2016, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

**PLEASE NOTE:** Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)  
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Dr ZP Nkosi  
cc Academic Leader Research: Dr SB Khoza  
cc School Administrator: Ms Tzyer Khumalo

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Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Sheruka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X64 001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3667/63504367 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: [hrm@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:hrm@ukzn.ac.za) / [snm@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:snm@ukzn.ac.za) / [mob@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:mob@ukzn.ac.za)

Website: [www.ukzn.ac.za](http://www.ukzn.ac.za)



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