LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION AND QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN RWANDA: A CASE STUDY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL THIRD FORM LEARNERS IN THE GISAGARA DISTRICT

Gloriose Mugirase

Student Number: 3748484

A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Education, University of the Western Cape

Supervisor: Professor Zubeida Desai

May 2020

Abstract

The language of instruction plays a determining role in students' academic performance. This suggests that students should be taught in a language they are familiar with in order to enhance understanding of the content subjects. In Rwanda, almost all Rwandans communicate and interact in Kinyarwanda, their mother tongue. It is, thus, expected that Rwandan children should be instructed in this home language. However, the status of English as a global language has also found echo in Rwanda, and this foreign language was adopted as medium of instruction from Primary 4 onwards. This thesis, therefore, aims to determine what role English as a medium plays in delivering quality education in Rwanda.

To respond to the above question, the researcher investigated three secondary Third Form schools in the rural Gisagara District of the Southern Province. She wanted to explore the teaching and learning strategies deployed in the English language classrooms and the learning materials and infrastructure available at the schools. The focus was on English language classes as these were the spaces in which Rwandan children were explicitly exposed to English and where their proficiency in the language was developed. However, the researcher also needed to find out the effect that English had on the students' academic performance, the correlation between their results in English and their results in content subjects, and the students' and teachers' perceptions of English as language of instruction. It is in this vein that a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches was used and various data collection techniques employed to obtain enriched data. Classroom observations and interviews with students and their English teachers were conducted. A questionnaire was also distributed to the students and their results in English and in content subjects were analysed to supplement the data generated by other methods.

This study was guided by sociocultural theories of second language learning according to which language is a mediating tool that helps to adjust relationships between people that live in the same community. Language is, hence, a necessary artifact that is worth acquiring. For language learning to take place, learners need to interact with more knowledgeable people. In the classroom, it is the teacher who has to mediate this learning, assuming that he/she is more knowledgeable than the students. Classroom peer interactions in the target language also provide

room wherein brighter students may assist their struggling classmates. Language across the curriculum approach and content-based instruction also inspired this study. These approaches suggest that language should be taught in context and especially through the content related to the students' fields of study.

The research findings indicate that the students were not proficient in English, the language of instruction, which hindered their school achievement. In addition, no correlation could be established between the students' results in English and their results in content subjects. Indeed, despite the students' poor performance in English they did better in this language than in the content subjects. Furthermore, not all students who fared well in English succeeded in the content subjects, and some students scored good marks in the content subjects whilst they failed in English. The findings also show that the teaching and learning strategies used in the language classrooms, as well as the learning materials and infrastructure at the schools, did not promote English acquisition. Ironically, despite English being a hindrance to the learning of other subjects, both the students and their teachers affirmed that they preferred that this language remain as medium of instruction. They believed that being competent in English could offer them more life opportunities than any other language.

Keywords/phrases

Language of instruction

English

Nine-Year Basic Education

Rural schools

Language learning

Language proficiency

Academic performance

Quality of education

Content subjects

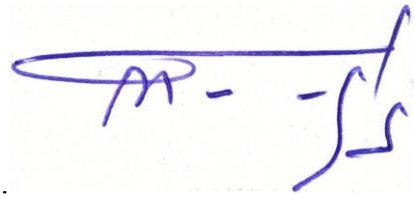
Kinyarwanda

Declaration

I declare that

LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION AND QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN RWANDA: A CASE STUDY OF SECONDARY THIRD FORM LEARNERS IN THE GISAGARA DISTRICT

is my own work, that it has never before been submitted at any other higher learning institution for degree or examination purposes, and that all sources used or quoted have been acknowledged and referenced appropriately.



… ……

GLORIOSE MUGIRASE May 2020

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to:

my late father, Leopold Kabagema, who made sacrifices so that I could become who I am now, and my late brother, Vital Kamarade, who I still miss so much.

Acknowledgments

The finalisation of this work would not have been possible had not particular people provided assistance. I am greatly indebted to all of them.

Firstly, I am thankful to the University of the Western Cape, especially the Faculty of Education, Department of Language Education, where I am a student, and the University of Rwanda, my employer, for having authorised me to carry out this research.

Secondly, I wish to express my thanks to Third Form students at School 1, School 2 and School 3 and their English teachers for their cooperation. I also thank the head teachers for having permitted me to conduct my investigation at their schools.

Thirdly, I owe a lot to my supervisor, Professor Zubeida Desai, for her untiring guidance, constructive comments and concern to make me give the best of myself. Thank you so much Professor.

I am grateful to friends who warmly welcomed me and made my stay in Cape Town comfortable. I would also like to thank colleagues in the Centre for Language Enhancement at the University of Rwanda for their friendliness, assistance and encouragement.

My heartfelt thanks are due to my brothers Leonard, Innocent and Vincent and to my sisters Claudine and Yvonne for their moral and financial support throughout my doctoral studies.

Last but not least, special thanks go to my husband Jean-Pierre and to my children Raissa, Tanguy, Regis, Queen and Romeo for their patience during my repeated absences from home and for their loving support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

Figures

Tables

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS WITH EXPLANATIONS

12 YBE	Twelve years basic education
9 YBE	Nine years basic education
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BICS	Basic interpersonal communication skills
CALP	Cognitive academic language proficiency
CBI	Content-based Instruction
CUP	Common underlying proficiency
EAC	East African Community
EICV	Enquête intégrale sur les conditions de vie des ménages
ES	Ecole Secondaire
GS	Groupe Scolaire
HEC	Higher Education Council
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
L1	Home language/mother tongue
L2	Second language
LAC	Language across the curriculum
MEG	Mathematics-Economics-Geography
N	Number

NISR	National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda
S	Student
SCT	Sociocultural theory
T.T.C.	Teachers' training centres
T1	Teacher 1
T2	Teacher 2
T3	Teacher 3
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, Rwanda has striven to eradicate illiteracy among its people. It is with this end in view that many more primary schools were constructed to enable Rwandan children to attend schools near their homes. As the number of children completing primary education kept increasing, it required that more secondary schools be built to accommodate them. Therefore, the Nine Years Basic Education (9 YBE) programme was launched in 2009 (Rwanda Ministry of Education, 2015)[1]. 9 YBE involves 6 years of primary and the first 3 years of secondary school (the First, Second and Third Forms) or secondary lower level. 9 YBE schools were subsequently built in all 30 districts of the country where students were provided free education. In 2012, this programme was extended to Twelve Years Basic Education (12 YBE), that is, including the Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Forms of secondary school that make up the higher or advanced level of secondary school (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2012; Mbonimana, 2018). The creation of these schools was a wonderful opportunity, particularly for poor families whose children used to drop out of school because their parents could not afford to pay the heavy school fees that normal primary and secondary schools charged. Unverified information also attests that most of the students enrolling in the secondary schools of 9 YBE and 12 YBE are those who scored only passable grades in the national examinations. I elaborate more on secondary schools in 9 YBE and 12 YBE in Section 1.1.3 below.

---

[1] The universal primary education that was introduced in Rwanda in 2003 brought about a notable growth in the number of children that completed primary school from 2008. This policy increased the demand for secondary education. In 2009, a supplementary three years of lower secondary was created in order to attain nine years of basic education. The goals behind this programme were (1) guaranteeing all children fair access to nine years of basic education, (2) offering them quality education and skills required to achieve their full potential, (3) and concurrently reducing repetition and drop-out rates. All children who completed the nine-year basic cycle (secondary lower level) from 2011 onwards could then consider pursuing their studies to the full secondary cycle of 12 years (secondary advanced level) and beyond.

Nonetheless, despite the Rwandan government's will to get all children schooled, the quality of education offered in most of the schools leaves much to be desired. The researcher is naturally aware that a number of factors may hinder quality of education. Some such factors are the poverty of students, illiteracy of parents, lack of knowledge of teachers, inadequate teaching methods, scarcity of teaching materials and infrastructure, and lack of proficiency in the language of instruction, to name but a few. As not all these factors can be explored in one single piece of research, the current study focuses on one aspect only, namely the language of instruction and the role it plays in providing quality education. Other factors can be dealt with in further research. The researcher's choice of topic was influenced by the fact that since the shift from French to English as a medium of instruction, most students entering the university where the researcher teaches, have had difficulties coping with their courses taught in English. In addition, employers have for long complained that university graduates' low proficiency in English has hindered performance in their work. Such deplorable situations did not exist at the time students were instructed in French, although it too is a foreign language. As a lecturer of English, the researcher, thus believed that it was of the utmost importance to investigate this matter to understand what had gone wrong so as to contribute to the improvement of the language-in-education policy in Rwanda. One may wonder why English was proclaimed as medium of instruction in Rwanda. The answer to this question is furnished below.

Rwanda currently belongs to the East African Community (EAC), a regional organisation that comprises five other countries, namely, Burundi, Uganda, Tanzania, Kenya and South Sudan. Three of these countries - Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya - have for long used English as one of their official languages and one of the media of instruction in their schools. Incidentally, the educational level from which the students begin to study through English varies according to the language in education policy in each particular country. Rwanda has also recently become a country member of the Commonwealth where the language of communication is English, although it was never colonised by the English people. This political alliance has driven the Rwandan government to declare English as an official language alongside Kinyarwanda (the mother tongue) and French (a foreign language that used to be the medium of instruction before the year 2008).

Supposedly, the adoption of English was to enable Rwandans to learn this language so as to improve their competitiveness regionally and internationally as it had acquired the status of a global language in the eyes of numerous people (Crystal, 2003; Pandarangga, 2015; Rees, 2014). Focusing on the educational side, however, it can be assumed that some obstacles obstructed the realisation of this dream. As stated above, a good number of Rwandan teachers are not proficient enough in English to deliver their lessons effectively. These teachers are the ones who were used to teaching in French so could not adapt to the sudden shift from this familiar language to a novel language, English, that was imposed on them. Even though regular training of the teaching of English has been organised since then (Japan International Cooperation Agency [(JICA), 2012)], it has proven ineffective as most teachers have failed to master this language of instruction. I imagine that the training was unsuccessful because it was either not planned adequately or because it was not allotted sufficient time. What impact then would the teachers' lack of competence in the medium of instruction have on students' academic performance and quality of education in Rwanda?

The current research is a case study conducted in Third Forms at three 9 YBE schools of the Gisagara District located in the Southern Province of Rwanda. The aim of the study was to explore the impact that the language of instruction, English, had on the quality of education of the students at these selected schools. This was achieved through investigating the teaching techniques devised by the English teachers, as well as the learning materials and infrastructure that were supposed to promote the students' learning of English. The study also assessed the role that English played in the students' academic performance and if there was any correlation between their results in English and in content subjects. In brief, this study aspired to determine how the language in education policy in Rwanda was implemented in order to identify strengths that may be built on in the future and deficiencies to be remedied for promoting the students' learning of English, as well as facilitating their assimilation of content subjects.

In this chapter, I provide the context and background to the study. Next, I highlight the aims and the research problem of the study. After that, I provide the rationale for the study. Then I briefly discuss the significance of the study and research methodology used. Finally, I present the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Context and background to the study

1.1.1 The education system in Rwanda

In Rwanda, there are three main educational systems: private, public and government-aided schools. Private schools are owned by private individuals or private organisations. Public schools are wholly managed by the government, while government-aided schools belong to private organisations but are partly supported by the government. All three types of schools are assumed to follow the same teaching programmes and abide by the same academic rules and regulations. A few private schools, however, have sought authorisation from the government to follow some internationally-recognised foreign curricula, such as the Cambridge programme.

Primary education in Rwanda lasts six years. At the completion of Primary Sixth Form, pupils sit for national examinations that determine their progressing to secondary school or repeating the year. Nevertheless, the required conditions to be admitted to secondary school are nowadays not as strict as they used to be about ten or fifteen years ago and almost all pupils manage to get promoted. This causes children not to work assiduously and so enter secondary school without the necessary knowledge and skills to grasp the content of the lessons taught at this level. Furthermore, secondary schools that are reputed to be the best in the country have the freedom to select students who have scored good marks. Those with only satisfactory grades are sent to schools not known to perform well or to 9 YBE schools. Children from indigent families also apply to 9 YBE schools, regardless of whether they have fared well or not in the national examinations.

Secondary school has two levels: lower level (First, Second and Third Forms) and higher or advanced level (Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Forms). In the secondary lower level, all schools adhere to the same curricula. Upon completion of this level, students also sit for national examinations before they are allowed to the higher level. In secondary advanced level, students follow different programmes in accordance with their chosen options. At the end of the secondary Sixth Form, students again take national examinations, results of which will determine their admission to university or other higher learning institutions. Again, the conditions to be eligible for university have been relaxed and some private higher learning institutions even accept students

with very low marks. Others having obtained low grades, or whose parents are destitute, may apply to private universities as the requirements to be admitted at these instutions are not as stringent and they charge far lower fees than public higher learning institutions.

Before entering university, students apply for programmes related to the options they followed at secondary school. The pass mark to be granted this access varies according to the particular programme applied for. A student may be refused the option of her choice if she does not satisfy the criteria set by the Rwanda Higher Education Council (HEC). Students may even be compelled to take up options they have not chosen when their marks are deemed not to be satisfactory. Marks obtained and the programmes students want to take will greatly determine their eligibility for government sponsorship. It is normally those who study science-related subjects that have a great chance of being granted this bursary. University studies may last three, four or more years depending on the type of programme followed.

The following section briefly discusses the language in education policy in Rwanda.

1.1.2 The language of instruction in Rwanda

To better understand the current language situation in Rwanda, let us go back to late 1994 when many Rwandans who were living in exile returned to their motherland after the Rwandan Patriotic Army stopped the genocide that was being perpetrated against the Tutsis, one of the ethnic groups in the country. As refugees, Rwandans had sought asylum in different countries, so had adopted the languages that were spoken there. There then arose the problem of agreeing on which languages were to play the role of official languages and of media of instruction in schools and other educational institutions, as many returnees did not speak Kinyarwanda, the main language spoken in Rwanda (Kagwesage, 2013; Mugirase, 2004). Kinyarwanda, English and French were eventually declared to be the appropriate languages for both purposes. The language policy stipulated that:

> Kinyarwanda, French and English shall continue to be offered in schools: Kinyarwanda as a medium of instruction and English and French as subjects in all lower primary schools, public as well as private, whilst either English or French will be offered as a medium of instruction in the upper primary cycle and in secondary schools (Rwanda Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Scientific Research, 2003: 23).

The government policy was, however, to put emphasis on the teaching and learning of English and French, especially at secondary school, to empower students with the necessary skills in both languages to assist them to cope with university studies. At university, lecturers were free to teach either in English or French for it was assumed that students would be bilingual (English-French) by the time they completed secondary school. Unfortunately, the reality proved to be different, as only a few students succeeded in the English or French proficiency tests they had to sit for before pursuing university studies (Mugirase, 2004). In their study, Lyambabaje, Ntakirutimana and Iyakaremye (2010) also came to the conclusion that secondary school students in Rwanda were not proficient in either English or French.

In October 2008, the Rwanda Ministry of Education proclaimed English the sole medium of instruction from nursery school onwards. Using this foreign language as a medium from such a young age proved to be too demanding for the majority of Rwandan children. The sudden introduction of English as medium of instruction was a challenge for both students and teachers whose language of instruction used to be French before this period. It is indeed daunting to shift abruptly from one language in which one is not proficient to another language in which one feels even less comfortable. This is corroborated by Desai's research in four classes at a school in Khayelitsha, South Africa. Desai (2003) suggests that it makes more sense for learners to be taught in their mother tongue till at least the end of Grade 7.

The following entry test results from four academic years highlight the English language difficulties that students in Rwanda were facing. The figures were obtained from the School for Foundation Language Skills of the National University of Rwanda in February 2013. The pass mark was 70 %.

Academic year	**Students who sat for the test**	**Students who passed**	**Students who failed**
2010	2362	483 = 20.448 %	1879 = 79.551 %
2011	1688	158 = 9.360 %	1530 = 90.639 %
2011-2012	2087	99 = 4.743 %	1988 = 95.256 %

2012-2013	2839	128 = 4.508 %	2711 = 95.491 %

It was not until February 2011, when it was more than obvious that the use of English had not yielded the expected results, that Kinyarwanda was officially announced to be the medium of instruction from Primary 1 to Primary 3, whereas English was to be introduced from Primary 4. However, this new policy was not going to be much more successful than the previous one as this English language handicap is visible long after Primary 3. The findings in the fourth and fifth chapters of this study illustrate clearly that English medium remains a barrier that hinders Rwandan students' learning.

The next section provides a description of 9 YBE and 12 YBE, explains why the Rwandan government decided on the creation of these schools and highlights challenges faced by the implementers of this policy.

1.1.3 Nine-Year Basic Education (9 YBE) and Twelve-Year Basic Education (12 YBE)

The Rwandan Government's goal to guarantee that all children finish primary education led to the creation of the Nine-Year Basic Education (2009-11) reforms. The Rwandan Ministry of Education assumed that this new scheme would promote teaching and learning at primary and secondary schools thus giving learners more opportunities to pursue their studies and to get employment. This new programme, "for which Rwanda was conferred the first Commonwealth Education Good Practice Award 2012" (Rwanda Ministry of Education, 2008), was a testimony of the engagement of many Rwandans who worked hard and participated in the building of classrooms and hence in the promotion of basic education (Rwanda Ministry of Education, 2015). The Rwandan Ministry of Education also maintains that if children must travel long distances to reach school, they are not going to learn as well as those living near schools and will probably drop out before they have completed the cycle. With the emergence of this Nine-Year Basic Education programme, schools were built nearer the communities, hence making it possible for children to use less time to travel to school. This policy has not only boosted the enrolment of many children, boys as well as girls, but it has also motivated them to pursue their studies until completion of the cycle (Rwandan Ministry of Education, 2015). In 2012, the basic

education programme was spread out to 12 years. The Twelve-Year Basic Education (12 YBE) programme, thus, builds upon the 9 YBE programme.

The Japan International Cooperation Agency [(JICA), 2012] affirms that this policy has proved to be efficient, as promotion, repetition, and dropout rates have improved between 2000/1 and 2008. Improvements were made and the repetition rate at primary school diminished considerably. However, this body recognises that the results of the Rwandan Government's pilot initiatives to assess learning achievements show that certain students still do not satisfy the learning objectives stipulated in the school programmes. Another challenge that JICA points out is that the enrolment rate keeps increasing whereas the existing classrooms cannot accommodate the large number of students. Besides, the schools suffer from a shortage of basic infrastructure such as electricity and scarcity of learning resources like textbooks, which hinders the quality of education offered in these schools.

The following section gives the geographical and socio-economic description of the Gisagara District in which the investigated schools are situated.

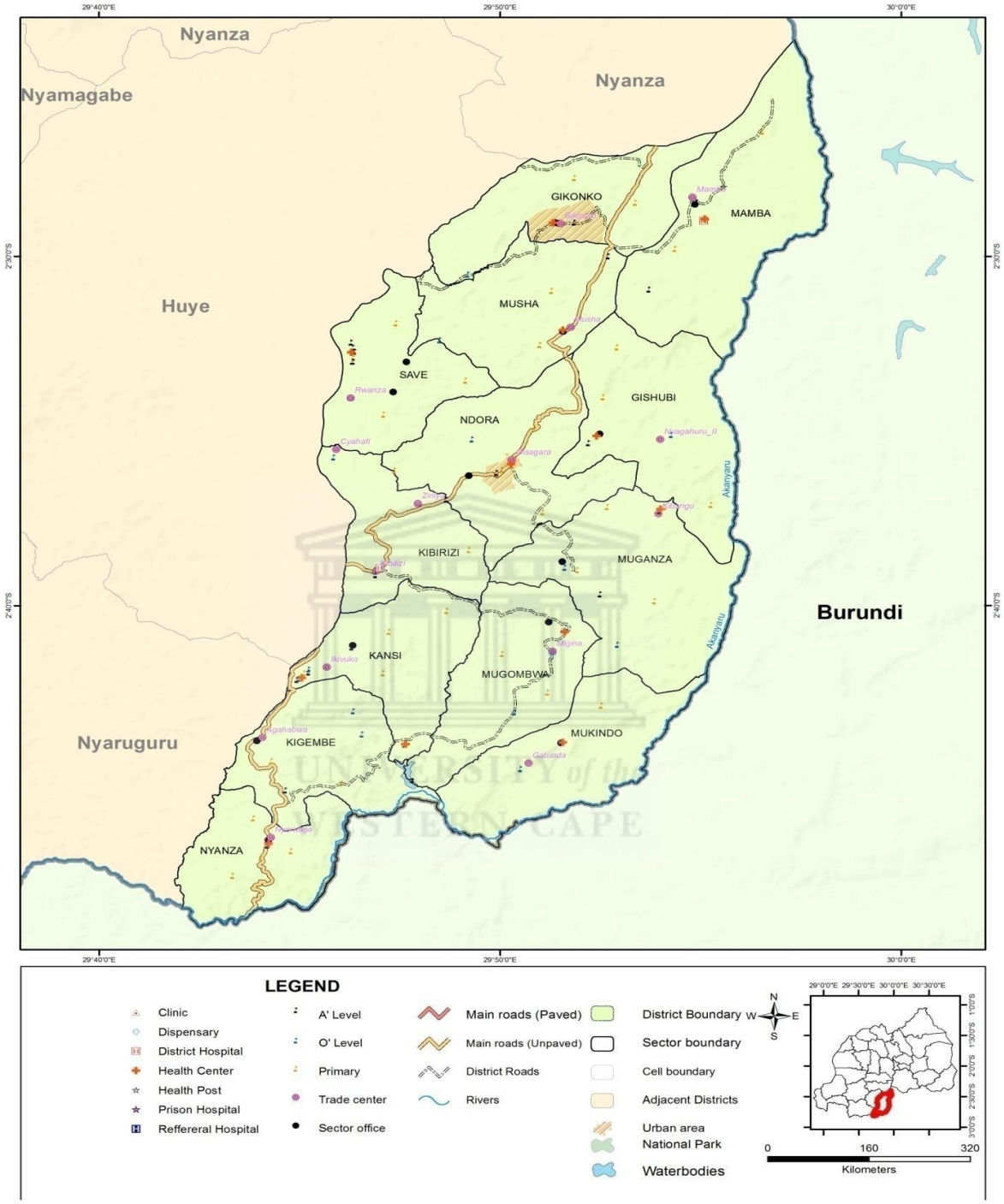
1.1.4 The Gisagara District

Gisagara is one of the thirty districts of Rwanda, which is located in the Southern Province. This province itself is divided into 8 districts, Gisagara being one of them. Neighbouring districts to Gisagara are Nyanza in the North, Huye in the West, Nyaruguru in the South-West, all of which belong to the Southern Province. In the North-East and South, Gisagara shares borders with neighbouring country Burundi.

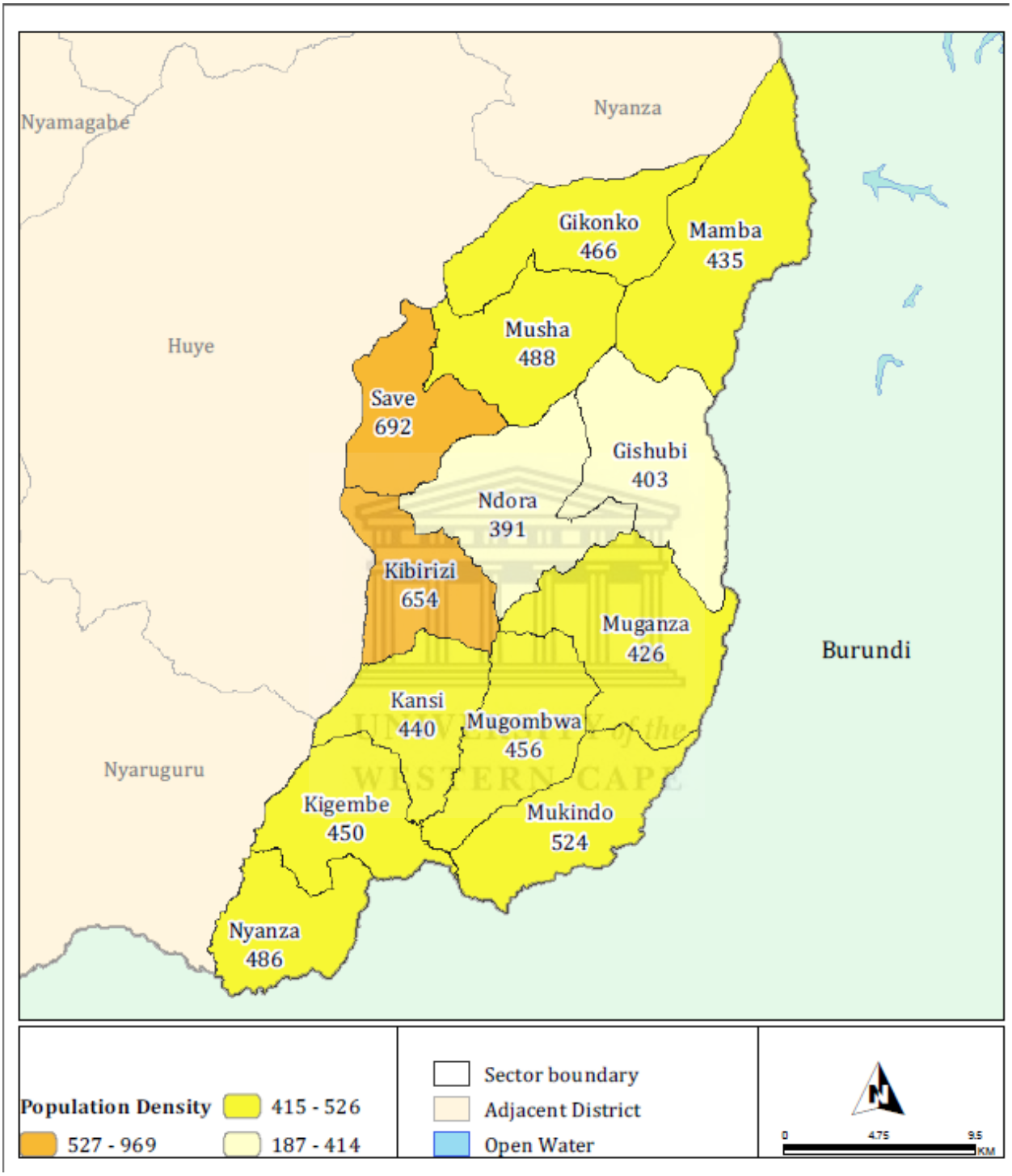
The Gisagara District is about 140 kilometres from Kigali, the capital city of Rwanda, and occupies a surface of 679.2 square kilometres (Rwandan Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources, 2015). Research by the Rwandan Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning in 2012 also indicates that the Gisagara District was inhabited by 322, 506 people then that constituted 12.4% of the total population of the Southern Province, which amounted to 2,589,975 people.

The administrative map of the Gisagara District, alongside the map representing its population density, as drawn by the National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR) (2012), is shown below.

The Administrative map of the Gisagara District



Map representing the population density of the Gisagara District



Concerning the living standards of the Gisagara District residents, the Rwandan Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (2012) discloses that 50% of the people lived in clustered rural settlements, commonly called "imidugudu" in Kinyarwanda. The Rwandan government has always urged (and is still urging) people living in isolated or risky zones to build houses on selected sites with basic infrastructure such as roads, schools, hospitals, markets, water assets, etc. The government has even been building houses for very poor people who cannot afford to do so themselves. The NISR specifies that another 45.4% of the population lived in isolated houses and the remaining 4.6% in spontaneous housing. These houses were mostly built of wood or mud and were covered with local tiles. Many households in Gisagara also used firewood as the main source of energy for cooking. A few others used charcoal, grass or leaves. The main sources of water were improved drinking sources of water although not all people had access to drinking water, hence, not meeting the Rwandan government target (Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, 2012).

The same ministry maintains that the sources of energy that Gisagara residents employed for lighting were kerosene lamps, firewood, candles and other non-specified types and that only a few people could afford using electricity. Regarding economic activities, the residents of the Gisagara District lived mainly on agriculture, which was the predominant economic activity in Rwanda. Raising cows was also an activity that was prized by many Rwandans and was found in the Gisagara District as well. Cow breeding was an occupation spread all over the country, especially through the government policy of "Girinka Munyarwanda" consisting of donating cows to the most economically vulnerable Rwandan citizens.

On the educational side, many adults in the Gisagara District were illiterate as they either had never attended school or had stopped studying altogether at some time (Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, 2012). However, there is a Rwandan educational policy named "Education for all" that compels parents to register their children at school and also encourages adult people who have never been to school to learn how to read and write. According to the same Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, this policy has proven to be fruitful as the number of children attending school has kept on rising and many adult Rwandans, even old people, have seized the opportunity and many can now read and write. Nevertheless, in spite of this Rwandan government policy of aiding all Rwandans to become educated, primary and secondary school

attendance in the Gisagara District was still lower than in any other district of the Rwandan territory, as revealed by the same study conducted by the Rwanda Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning in 2012. The reason for my decision to conduct research in the Gisagara District, and especially in three of its sectors, will be explained in detail in the research methodology section.

As referred to earlier, the quality of education in Rwanda is hindered by the students' and teachers' lack of competence in English, the language of education in the country. Therefore, this study aspires to explore the causes of this impediment by determining whether key conditions known to promote language learning are met in the visited schools, in other words, what efforts are being made by the Rwandan government, including schools, to facilitate the acquisition of English.

The next section discusses the aims and objectives of the study.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The main question of the current study is to assess what role English, the language of instruction, plays in influencing the quality of education of students in Third Forms classes in three 9 YBE schools in the Gisagara District. The research has five main objectives. Firstly, it examines the teaching and learning strategies (if any) used by English language teachers to enable their learners to cope with content subjects in English. Secondly, it intends to know what kind of learning materials and infrastructure the schools have that may promote the learning of English. Thirdly, it examines how the language of instruction impacts on learners' performance in content subjects. Fourthly, it evaluates if the students' exam results in English correlate with their exam results in content subjects. Fifthly, it hopes to establish the students' and their English teachers' perceptions of the use of English as a language of instruction in Rwanda.

The following section provides the rationale behind the current study.

1.3 Rationale for the study

The motivation behind this research is to identify the context and ways in which Third Form students in 9 YBE schools in the Gisagara District learn English and the role this language plays in students' performance in content subjects. From my experience as a lecturer of English at the University of Rwanda, I share the same concern felt by education stakeholders about how poorly Rwandan students perform in English. This apprehension is grounded on the prevailing reality that, apart from being the only medium of instruction, English is also the most commonly used among the recognised official languages in Rwanda. This situation has the wider implication that in the Rwanda of today, English has multiple roles: one must know English to cope with one's studies, to be able to write a good job application letter, to successfully answer questions once you have been called for a job interview, to correctly process documents written in English at work, to name but a few examples. Wolff (2016: 262), however, maintains that introducing a foreign medium as early as the primary cycle, as is the case of Rwanda and many other African countries, unavoidably leads "to poor outcomes and a largely underperforming educational system with low-achieving school leavers and, in the end, also mediocre university graduates".

This study is interested in Third Form students because it is the highest grade in which English was taught as a subject in the whole district of Gisagara at the time when the investigation was taking place. This implies that the students in these schools would be taught English again only in the first year and second year of university once they were admitted. The investigation is specifically conducted in rural schools located in the Gisagara District in the Southern Province. I argue that the schools located in this poorest district in the country deserve particular attention and support, especially as their students sit for the same national examinations as other students, regardless of the conditions in which they have studied. Furthermore, this 9 YBE policy is a new educational system that was introduced in Rwanda only in 2009. As not much research has been done to explore how efficient this educational system is, I feel it is the right moment to investigate these schools to add to the body of literature in the field.

I am one of the English lecturers at the University of Rwanda and I have been teaching this language to first year and second year students for about twenty years. Nevertheless, throughout

my career at this institution I have been witnessing the hard struggle students were engaged in to cope with their academic studies. I am therefore well placed to describe the disagreeable situation these learners endure. In fact, the students have a hard time trying to understand what lecturers are saying, which prevents them from taking effective notes. It is also obvious that they get very little from what they are assigned to read considering their inability to provide suitable answers to reading-related tasks. Moreover, the students have neither sufficient vocabulary nor grammatical skills needed to effectively carry out their speaking and writing activities.

Sadly enough, as years pass, students who are admitted to university perform more and more poorly in English. What is ironic, though, is that even the students who have joined higher learning institutions or university in the past two years and who have been taking all their secondary courses in English, that is, from secondary First Form to secondary Sixth Form, also suffer from this impediment. How come learners who have been exposed to English for so long still present themselves poorly in this language? There must be something wrong somewhere, which must be identified and addressed. I attempt to explain this enigma in Chapter 5.

The next section explains the importance of the present study.

1.4 Significance of the study

As specified in section 1.2, this study investigates the effects that English has on the quality of education in three selected schools in Rwanda. The research findings in the study should make the people in charge of the language-in-education policy in Rwanda, as well as all concerned stakeholders, to be aware that using a language that students and teachers are not competent in hampers the quality of education. Indeed, the teachers are prevented from effectively imparting knowledge to their students who, in turn, fail to learn successfully. The study should reveal that students learn better when they are instructed in a language they understand; accordingly, they should be taught through Kinyarwanda, their mother tongue and home language. Valuing Kinyarwanda in this way would help preserve this mother tongue that is nowadays endangered because of the wrong mindset that English is worthier than other languages spoken in the world. However, as knowing more than one language is an asset, English should be taught as a subject. The shift to this foreign language as medium of instruction should eventually take place only

when the students have acquired cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in it, as counselled by Cummins (1979, 1999, 2008).

The following section discusses the methodology used to conduct the study.

1.5 Research methodology

As pointed out previously, this study's primary goal was to determine the effect that English had on the quality of education of students in selected rural schools in Rwanda. Responses to this question were obtained by carrying out research in Third Forms in three 9 YBE schools of the Gisagara District. Case study was used as the basic design of the study. I chose the case study design as it permits to explore and gain more insight of the researched phenomenon (Gillham, 2000; Ridder, 2017; Starman, 2013). For reliability and validity purposes, both qualitative and quantitative paradigms were used to collect and analyse the data. The combination of the two approaches also helped to use triangulation of data collection methods to gather more information than would have been available through using one single approach. The methods used to collect the data were observations in the English classrooms, questionnaires to the students, interviews with students and with the English teachers and the students' results in both English and content subjects. These methods allowed the researcher to observe whether the teaching and learning strategies used in the English classrooms, and the learning materials and infrastructure, promoted Gisagara students' English proficiency. They also enabled her to see the way in which the students performed in English and how this language of instruction affected their performance in content subjects. I specifically focussed on English classes as this is where students are exposed to English as a subject in order to attain a particular level of proficiency so that they can study through the medium of English. Content subject classes are not expected to do this.

I provide more details on the research methodology in Chapter 4.

1.6 Chapter layout

The study comprises 6 chapters: the introduction, the theoretical framework, the research design and methodology, the presentation of data, the data analysis and discussion, and the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

The first chapter sets forth an overview of the thesis by providing the context and background to the study, the aims and objectives of the study, the rationale for the study, the significance of the study and the research methodology used. The context and background section discusses the educational systems that operate in Rwanda, explicates why English was adopted as the language of instruction in the country and circumstances that gave rise to the creation of Nine-Year (and Twelve-Year) Basic education schools. In the section on the objectives of the study, I state the research problem of the study and set the aims that will enable me to obtain responses to this question. The rationale for the study explains the motives that pushed me to embark on this research. The section dealing with the significance of the study points out the way this research may contribute to improving the language in education policy in Rwanda. The research methodology section briefly summarises the research design that was embraced and the research paradigms, as well as the data collection methods employed to carry out this study.

The second chapter deals with the theoretical framework that provides an orientation to the study. It discusses sociocultural theories and their relevance to second language learning by particularly focusing on the teaching and learning of English, a foreign language and the medium of instruction in Rwanda. The chapter also underlines the significance of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) for language acquisition. Moreover, it emphasises the influence the home language (L1) can exert on second language (L2) development. This chapter also highlights the effect that the language of instruction may have on academic performance.

The third chapter describes the research design and methodology employed in the study. It explains the appropriateness of case study design to the study and the usefulness of combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. It also gives an account of the methods used to collect the data and explicates the reasons for the choice of the particular research participants and

settings. The chapter also specifies the ethical considerations that guided the study and the limitations of the study.

The fourth chapter presents the data collected. Aspects that emerged from classroom observations, questionnaires filled out by the students, interviews with students, interviews with English teachers and the students' results are described in detail.

The fifth chapter analyses the research data. The data gathered are assorted, grouped in categories, and scrutinised. The findings provide a response to the main research question posed in the study.

The sixth and last chapter summarises the findings of the study, draws conclusions and makes recommendations regarding the choice of the medium of instruction for fostering the quality of education in Rwanda. It also acknowledges the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for further research into other parameters that can promote the language of instruction in the country, thereby contributing to the quality of education.

The following chapter deals with the theoretical framework that guided this study.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

Proficiency in the language of instruction is one of the fundamental prerequisites for any learner to attain academic achievement. However, this requirement is not met by the majority of Rwandan students, as they learn in a foreign language that they do not understand. Indeed, English is one of the official languages used in Rwanda and the only language of instruction after Primary 3. Evidence has shown that Rwandan students lack the necessary English language skills that should enable them to cope successfully with their studies (Lyambabaje, Ntakirutimana & Iyakaremye, 2010; Samuelson & Freedman, 2010; Sibomana, 2014; Williams, 2011). As there is no alternative option offered to learners to deal with their academic work except through mastering English, novel ways of teaching and learning this language of instruction need to be devised. And if instruction were effective, it should result in learners' acquiring what Cummins (1979, 1999, 2008) designates as basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language skills (CALP) in English.

The section below explains what basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) signify and their role in second language development.

2.2 The function of BICS and CALP in language acquisition

Cummins (1979, 1999, 2008) distinguishes two competencies that take place in the process of language acquisition. These are basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). He argues that BICS refers to the skills that are necessary to engage in everyday social activities while CALP relates to academic language, i.e., advanced language skills that learners must develop for critically dealing with academic matters. Estrada et al. (2009: 55) echo Cummins and assert that BICS includes "basic commands, social conversations and fluency", and CALP, literacy skills that are based on content as well as more complex use of language. Choi (2005: 264) also contends that BICS refers to basic listening

skills that allow individuals to communicate in an authentic and direct way while CALP indicates the capacity to use the target language to present concepts in a more sophisticated and symbolic way. She adds that BICS is dependent on various nonverbal communications, such as different expressions of the face and gestures, as well as other types of body language signs to transmit messages. Similarly, Helot (2002: 25) regards BICS as surface fluency and abilities whereas CALP refers to the more evolved language skills required to benefit from the educational process.

From his experience with immigrant Spanish children immersed in an English learning environment, Cummins (2008) concluded that BICS in the second language is normally acquired in two or three years of learning the language. He adds that, however, CALP takes much longer (about five years or more) to catch up academically in English, the target language here, and continues to develop throughout students' schooling or even throughout their lifetimes. According to Cummins, BICS in a familiar language is acquired rapidly because in everyday conversations, meaning is supported by contextual cues that are present in interactions. He explains that acquiring CALP, nevertheless, necessitates even much more time in cases where the school is the only environment where acquisition of these skills may happen, as support provided by these kinds of contextual cues present in conversations is almost non-existent. Helot (2002) also discloses that BICS usually takes place when there is context that supports language production as in the home setting and CALP at school in academic situations, which are known to provide only reduced context.

In this study, I contend that Rwandan students lack sufficient exposure to English. It is true that the medium of instruction is English from Primary 4, but learners encounter this language only in the classroom. During break and outside the school, it is Kinyarwanda that these students and other Rwandans use to communicate. If, as Cummins indicates, it takes learners who are immersed in an English-speaking environment 2 or 3 years to acquire BICS in English, it would take Rwandan students even much more time as the school setting provides only very reduced context for learning English and the outside milieu almost no context at all. It goes without saying, then, that extended time and tremendous effort are required on the part of both English teachers in Rwanda and their students for the latter's CALP in English to develop.

Cummins (1999) claims that there are differences in the acquisition and developmental processes between BICS and CALP, which have to be considered in order to provide students with the necessary support for the development of their academic language. He argues that if teachers are ignorant of this distinction and regard fluency as a sign of language proficiency, students inevitably risk facing academic failure. Teachers must, hence, be informed that conversational fluency in the target language is not an indicator of language proficiency (Cummins, 1999; Estrada et al., 2009). Despite this distinction, though, Cummins (1999) claims that BICS and CALP cannot be considered separately as CALP normally builds on BICS. He also adds that these skills are acquired and developed in similar circumstances, i.e., through interactions with more knowledgeable people.

The case of Rwanda is a good illustration for this situation in which learners' fluency in English may be wrongly interpreted as language proficiency. I provide the example of students at the University of Rwanda where I teach. Indeed, some university students who had the privilege to study in good secondary schools have developed fluency in English and one may be misled and so believe they have already acquired CALP. Still, it is when they are dealing with critical reading or academic writing that one notices their lack of academic proficiency in this language. These students have acquired BICS in English but need assistance to develop their CALP so as to deal with their academic listening, speaking, reading and writing activities effectively. As Scarcella (2003: 10) holds, "academic English requires not only the development of those advanced reading skills which enable learners to access complex words, but also the advanced skills which enable learners to understand and use the words in spoken and written communication." In her study at a South African university, Boughey (2000) also observed that, although all students spoke English as an additional language, they had writing-related difficulties so needed to be acquainted with academic discourses in order to cope with their learning.

Likewise, Cummins (2008) maintains that, to develop students' CALP, effective instruction should focus primarily on context-embedded and cognitively demanding tasks. He explicates that without these higher-order thinking skills, academic performance cannot be achieved. Helot (2002) purports that the child's already acquired cognitive concepts will furnish a meaningful context that can allow the teacher to construct demanding tasks and activities that are content-

related and that may stimulate comprehension and reasoning. Cummins (2008) points out, however, that what is context-embedded or cognitively demanding for one learner may not be so for another student depending on the differences in internal characteristics such as prior knowledge or how interested they are in what they are being taught. It is up to the teacher, then, to identify her students' individual needs and generate cognitive and demanding tasks that will help meet these needs so as to develop academic language proficiency.

English teachers in Rwanda should, thus, be aware of the lack of exposure to English in Rwanda and devise activities that foster learners' academic language consequently. This would, however, prove to be a serious problem if the language teacher lacked performance in the target language as the learners would be denied support to catch up academically (Cummins, 1999: 4). Scarcella (2003: 3) declares that many language instructors are not conscious of the significance of academic English, thus cannot know which appropriate methods to use to teach it. She explains that this has a negative impact in that the challenges learners face while learning academic English are rarely taken into consideration. In Rwanda, many language teachers are under-proficient in English, so are unable to identify their students' academic needs in order to help them foster their proficiency in this target language.

Cummins (1999) recommends that we address three constructs so as to promote the CALP of bilingual students. These constructs are the cognitive, academic, and language components. Cummins proposes cognitively challenging instruction in which learners would use higher-order thinking skills. He also states that academic content (such as science, mathematics, social studies and art) should be integrated with language instruction, i.e., language should be taught through content. Cummins then suggests that critical language knowledge be fostered in the classroom by aiding learners to detect similarities and differences existing between their languages (e.g. discovering features they have in common like nouns, verbs, etc.) and by giving them occasions to investigate their own and the second language use, practices, and assumptions (e.g. what status they have in the community, what are their specific features, etc.). In the case of Rwanda, I consider a bilingual student as one who speaks Kinyarwanda, the mother tongue, and English, the language of instruction. Nevertheless, even though comparing and contrasting Kinyarwanda and English would be no easy task because of the linguistic distance between the two languages,

this exercise is worth trying as it would awaken students' awareness of linguistic features specific to each language.

BICS and CALP are, hence, skills that learners need to acquire to be competent in both the first language (L1) and the second language (L2) as L1 acquisition is believed to influence L2 acquisition. In this study, I relate L1 to the language spoken in the home and L2 to the additional or second language. The next section deals with the potential role L1 may play in L2 acquisition and impact on academic performance.

2.3 Importance of L1 in L2 development and academic performance

The researcher considers L1 as the home language, which is, in most cases, also the learners' mother tongue, so she has used the two concepts interchangeably. She also regards L2 as either a second, foreign, or additional language that is officially used for specific purposes.

Hélot (2002: 21) claims that children begin to learn long before they enter school. She states that by the time they commence school, they have already acquired L1 (or home language) and they have learnt to make their own meaning from their experiences and through collaborating and negotiating with others. She continues to say that children have developed an innate knowledge of how language works, which is essential to the learning process and to the development of language. In his Interdependence Hypothesis, Cummins (1999) articulates that there is interdependence between the home language (L1) and the second language (L2). He explains that L1 and L2 are strongly related and that strong promotion of L1 CALP influences development of L2 CALP. He affirms that there exists another language skill, the "common underlying proficiency (CUP)", which children acquire at a very early age, and which facilitates language development and the learning of additional languages. Cummins puts forth that if learners have attained CALP in L1, these skills will be transferred to L2; hence, they are likely to succeed academically even through the medium of this second language. He adds that, on the contrary, if learners have not acquired CALP in L1, they are unlikely to develop competence in L2 or to achieve academic success. Cummins advises, thus, that students learn in L1 until they have developed proficiency (CALP) in this language before they switch to L2 medium. In a similar vein, Simpson (2017: 13) highlights the position taken by the British Council after

important research findings from their studies exploring the effects mother tongue had on the quality of education when it was used as the language of teaching and learning:

> …if young students in low- or middle-income countries are taught in their own or a familiar language, rather than English, they are likely to understand what they are learning and be more successful academically (including in L2 as a subject) with benefits to education, the economy and society.

Alexander and Bloch (2004) and Wolff (2016) also concur that learning is efficient if learners are instructed in the language they know, that is, their mother tongue. Alexander and Bloch (2004) add that people can get empowered only in and through the language they are proficient in.

Meisel (2011: 114), however, minimises the role of first language in second language acquisition. He states that transfer from L1 is one among many options available to L2 learners, that is, depending on the linguistic context and on communicative situations, learners make use of all available resources in their efforts to process input, including relying on their L1 knowledge. In his opinion, some learners may use L1 transfer strategy freely while others may avoid it. Despite Meisel's affirmation, a number of other research findings have demonstrated the positive role that L1 plays in L2 acquisition (e.g. Brock-Utne et al., 2000, 2003; Desai, 2003, 2004, 2012; Rubagumya, 2003). Naturally, there are other factors that contribute to L2 learning alongside L1. These will be discussed later in this work.

To illustrate the importance of L1 in L2 acquisition, Ball (2011: 13) refers to the Threshold Level Hypothesis posited by Skutnabb-Tangas and Toukomaa (1976). This theory postulates that learners must acquire a threshold of competence in L1 in order to learn a second language and become competent in both languages. These scholars developed the theory after they noticed that Finnish students who immigrated to Sweden and were compelled to learn in Swedish before they had acquired CALP in Finnish, their mother tongue, were competent neither in Finnish nor in Swedish and performed poorly at school. Conversely, Finnish immigrant students who began school in Sweden after they had become competent in Finnish and were given opportunities to continue developing skills in this language while learning the second language, would become proficient in both Finnish and Swedish and achieve academic performance. To develop students' competence in both L1 and L2, Ball also recommends the recruitment of teachers who are fluent

in the language of instruction at the level of cognitive academic proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing and who can assist children in the development of their L1 and self-confidence while also learning an additional language.

Hélot (2002: 23), on her part, advocates that teachers ought to base their teaching on the children's already existing knowledge to help them acquire new knowledge, and especially a second language. She contends that if L1 is developed, the child will easily acquire L2 as language features are not apart in the cognitive system but transfer easily and are interactive. She purports that L2 learning will greatly depend on L1 development. Hélot reasons that if the child is competent in L1, L2 will develop easily; conversely, if the child lacks proficiency in L1, L2 development will hardly be attained. She, therefore, claims that L1 skills that children bring to school should continue to be reinforced, as cognitive growth in L2 will greatly depend on L1 proficiency. She affirms that what is taught in L1 is beneficial for not only an L1 part of the brain but also for the L2 section as lessons learnt in one language can easily transfer to the other. Hélot explains that teaching a child to multiply in English or use a dictionary, for example, can easily transfer to another language, so the child does not need to be taught again to multiply in this other language. Reflecting Cummins' (1999) common underlying proficiency (CUP) model, Hélot (2002: 23) argues that when people can use two or more languages, their thinking originates from one merged point, so they may become bilingual or even multilingual as they can master several languages easily.

Clark (2000: 186) also declares that both cognitive development and academic development in the home language have a very important and beneficial effect on learning a second language. He expounds that everything that learners have acquired in L1 will transfer to L2 as they will draw on the background and experience at their disposal from L1. He proposes an environment owning various materials written in L1 to allow learners to engage in intensive reading and so develop literacy in this language. According to Choi (2005: 264), knowledge of one given language eases acquisition of an additional language. She maintains that when a learner of a second language understands her own language perfectly, she is more capable of learning and acquiring the same level of comprehension in the target language. It cannot be disputed that the mother tongue plays a more than significant function in a learner's acquiring new skills and knowledge as she reasons in this very language and has already acquired some specific language

proficiency (Veliyeva, 2015: 2448). Veliyeva adds that when a student is learning a new language, she resorts to theoretical and practical skills she possesses in L1 to acquire similar skills in L2. In her opinion, knowledge acquired in L1 can easily be retrieved while using L2. She holds that this is of great benefit to the learner because her life experience is refined and her proficiency promoted.

Research has not only highlighted the influence L1 acquisition may have on L2 acquisition but has also demonstrated the positive role L1 plays in academic performance. For instance, Ball (2011: 13) reveals that instruction in the mother tongue is an important factor for achieving quality education especially when it is provided in the early years. She also asserts that if children are taught in the mother tongue throughout primary school and shift gradually to the second language as medium of instruction, they are going to learn this second language fast. She continues to say that if the students are given opportunities to go on developing L1 in secondary school, they may become bilingual or multilingual depending on the number of languages being used. Furthermore, Ball states that when instruction is given in the mother tongue or home language, parents can help in their children's learning and children are likely to achieve academically.

Ball (2011) asserts that instruction in the mother tongue particularly benefits more learners from disadvantaged groups and those from rural communities. In the context of this study, the learners have grown up, studied and always lived in a rural area in Rwanda. They have no other opportunities to be acquainted with English (the medium of instruction) other than the little exposure provided in the classroom. However, the school itself does not provide the required conditions to learn English as many Rwandan teachers are not proficient in this target language and the learning infrastructure and materials are very poor. Moreover, these students' parents are generally illiterate and speak no other language apart from Kinyarwanda. This entails that parents cannot contribute to their children's learning, firstly, because they do not understand the content of the lessons, and secondly, because they do not speak the language of instruction. I suppose that these students would certainly gain a lot academically if they were taught in Kinyarwanda until they have acquired CALP in this mother tongue that they understand so well. The transition to English would then take place readily and they would perform academically well as they would be proficient in it. Naturally, elaboration of materials in Kinyarwanda would

be required if this mother tongue were used as medium of instruction. As Desai (2012: 79) puts it, resources and teaching materials in the mother tongue (Kinyarwanda here) should, thus, be promoted for adequate literacy levels to be developed.

As debated above, learning in the mother tongue does not hamper the acquisition of the second language as some would be inclined to believe, but rather, the skills acquired in L1 become a cognitive and linguistic foundation for learning another language (Ball, 2011: 6). Ball goes on to say that, however, if learners experience an abrupt switch from being instructed in the native language to learning in the second language, they may not attain proficiency either in L1 or in L2. This is exactly what happens in Rwanda. Students are taught through the medium of Kinyarwanda from Primary 1 until Primary 3 and then shift to English medium. The sad evidence resulting from this early switch is that many Rwandan students, even those in tertiary education, are not at all proficient in English and also display poor literacy in Kinyarwanda.

Hélot (2002) declares that L1 acquisition is different from L2 acquisition. For her, the home context offers ideal conditions for L1 acquisition whereas the necessary conditions are not often provided in the school environment for L2 learning to happen. This is true for the current linguistic situation in Rwanda, and especially in the rural Gisagara District where the study has been conducted. Actually, Kinyarwanda is well known by almost all Rwandan citizens residing in the country because it is the only language that is spoken by the entire community. Acquiring skills in this home language, thus, happens naturally. However, learning English, a second language and medium of instruction, turns out to be arduous. Exposure to English is lacking, and the only context in which people can learn English is the school. Unfortunately, favourable learning conditions that may be conducive to acquiring this target language are usually absent. Firstly, there is an early shift from Kinyarwanda (L1) to English as medium of instruction (L2), which, according to research, is unfavourable for the development of competence in both languages. Secondly, many English teachers, especially teachers in rural schools, lack sufficient proficiency in English. This situation is normally due to the fact that the best teachers are appointed in urban schools that can afford to pay them better salaries. Thirdly, learning infrastructure and materials are inadequate. All of these factors, if combined, constitute obstacles to Rwandan students' acquiring competence in English.

Therefore, considering the significant role that L1 seems to play in the child's learning of additional languages and academic achievement, skills acquired in this language need to develop strong foundations, as they are transferable to other languages. In other words, "mother tongue development should be supported until learners have attained cognitive academic skills to scaffold additional language proficiency" (Ball, 2011: 13). In the case of Rwanda, Kinyarwanda, L1, should be the medium of instruction until the students have acquired CALP in it and transition to English medium should occur at the start of secondary education.

The next section discusses the effects of English, the language of instruction, on students' academic performance in Rwanda.

2.4 English medium of instruction in Rwanda and its impact on academic performance

Despite not having been colonised by the British, Rwanda has adopted English as medium of instruction, as have many other countries on the African continent. This stems from the current status of English as a global language, knowledge of which is believed to open social, economic and political opportunities. Danladi (2013: 8), for example, states that, "on an international level, English plays a global, integrative role and has become the world's lingua franca par excellence, and the quest and yearning for science and technology are satisfied through English". As Desai (2010) too indicates, being competent in English is nowadays a requirement that people in poor countries must meet to ensure successful economic transactions with wealthy countries they depend on.

It is in this vein that it has become imperative for students in Rwanda to develop competence in English considering that they are taught through this medium from Primary 4. However, Rwandan students lack the English skills one assumes they should have acquired all along their school years. I base my assertion on personal experience as an English lecturer at the University of Rwanda and at some private universities where I have taught for years. It is an undeniable fact that many students are not fully proficient in English and have difficulties coping with lessons that are delivered in this language. They do not have the minimum required language skills that, in normal circumstances, ought to help them comprehend new input provided and hence develop

their English. What, then, causes these learners, who have been for so long exposed to classroom English, to be deficient in this language? One plausible interpretation is that learners might not be provided with comprehensible input. The other explanation is that, despite its significant role, input alone is not sufficient and that there exist other factors whose influence on learning cannot be ignored (Guariento & Morley, 2001; Krashen, 1982). Some such factors, which are particular to the Rwandan context, are discussed below.

Research has, indeed, shown that learners, for whom English is a second language (which is true for the majority of African learners) and at the same time the medium of instruction, perform poorly in content subjects. Fakeye and Ogunsiji (2009: 494) state that one of the biggest challenges that learners studying in a second language encounter is failing to understand the content in their various academic subjects. Malekela (2003: 102) also contends that if a student is not proficient in the medium of instruction, the learning is hampered, as communication between her and the instructor might not occur. In his study on English as language of instruction in primary schools in Tanzania, Rubagumya (2003: 164) also maintains that teaching students in an additional language is more likely to be a barrier to learning of subjects like Science, Maths, Social Science, History, etc. Similarly, in her work with Grade 4 and Grade 7 classes at a primary school in Khayelitsha, South Africa, Desai (2003: 62) found that as learners were struggling to express themselves in English, the medium of instruction, they were not able to cope with academic tasks. UNESCO (2007b) proposes that learners be exposed to L2 as medium of instruction at least after primary education assuming that they may have acquired academic cognitive skills in L1 that may be transferred to L2 easily. Ball (2011: 28) also admits that to switch too soon to education in a new language can be disadvantageous to the learning processes and learners' academic achievement.

It is evident that proficiency in English is a fundemental asset to succeeding academically, while under proficiency leads to poor achievement. Unfortunately, many learners in Rwanda do not have proficiency in English so fail to deal with their studies (Lyambabaje et al., 2010). As Cummins (2008) states, students need to have acquired CALP for achieving their learning purposes. As stated earlier, Rwandan students who are currently studying in Secondary Third Form ought to have acquired BICS and CALP in English as they have been studying in this language since Primary 4, which makes 5 years of instruction in English (without including the

current school year). However, facts induce one to believe that these students have acquired neither the BICS nor the CALP in English considering the difficulties they encounter while they are learning in this language. This lack of proficiency in English, which has a great impact on the quality of education, may originate from various sources. Focusing on the case of Rwanda, I will refer to some of the causes of this hindrance.

One reason for the learners' failure to develop BICS and CALP in English is probably the fact that shifting from Kinyarwanda to English medium was premature and should have taken place not in Primary 4 but after the completion of Primary Education (after 6 years of using Kinyarwanda as medium of instruction). Rwandan students must firstly develop BICS and CALP in the language that they know well, and this is no other language but Kinyarwanda, their mother tongue and home language. Then, transition to English may be possible as the skills acquired may be easily transferred to this target language.

As a matter of fact, the poor academic performance displayed by students learning through English does not necessarily suggest that they are incapable of assimilating their subjects, but rather that it is being under proficient in English that has become a major obstruction to their learning. Pennycook (2017:12) illustrates this truth with a case he witnessed in Hong Kong. When his students who had been taught through the medium of Chinese in elementary level experienced an unexpected switch to English medium in secondary level, Pennycook noticed that many of his students had difficulties in learning, not because they were lacking learning skills, but simply because they were subjected to the hindrance of studying through a second language. It is, usually, when learners have developed language cognitive skills in the language they know well that they can be instructed in a second language and adapt easily. The skills acquired through learning in their mother tongue can then be smoothly transferred to the second language. Aito (2005), Nomlomo (2007), Pinnock (2009), and Yip (2003) mirror other scholars' position that proficiency in the native language will facilitate the acquisition of the second language.

Pinnock (2009: 8) adds that the difficulties occasioned by teaching a student in a language she is not acquainted with may be exacerbated by additional obstacles, like financial problems in her family and an environment not conducive to learning. Most of the learners in this study may also be suffering from poverty and hunger as they live in rural areas and come from financially

deprived families. It goes without saying also that the learning environment in which they evolve is not at all conducive to learning because, as indicated earlier, schools in rural areas in Rwanda generally suffer from a lack of adequate learning materials and infrastructure. To crown it all, instruction in the mother tongue is not extended to the six years of primary education, a period after which it is assumed learners may have acquired CALP in this language, but rather stops abruptly in Primary 3 to give way to English, a second language.

Ball (2011: 24) asserts that academic success does not depend only on the language of instruction but also on socioeconomic factors, for example, poor nutrition, high stress and discrimination, which should not be underestimated, but rather addressed, to ensure quality education. In the same way, Cummins and Hornberger (2008) argue that proficiency in the language of instruction alone does not ensure academic success as there are other relevant elements that have to be considered and addressed.

Other factors that may impede students' academic performance in Rwanda are lack of support from their parents and unfavourable linguistic environments. Many parents in Rwanda are illiterate (Ruterana, 2012) because they either never went to school or they dropped out of school before they even completed primary level education. Such parents do not assist their children in any way with their school work. Apart from lack of home support, the linguistic environment in Rwanda does not favour the learning of English either because learners encounter it only in the classroom. Nevertheless, Rwandans have the good fortune of speaking one native language, Kinyarwanda, which means that outside of school and in some official contexts, it is Kinyarwanda that is spoken almost everywhere. Rwandans do not need to have recourse to another language to understand each other. This, however, insinuates that students have to rely only on the knowledge received from school to improve their English. As Nomlomo (2007: 14) argues, "insufficient exposure to English and lack of support from parents induce students to furnish too much mental effort to understand their content subjects, which has an adverse effect on their academic performance".

The last, but not least, factor hampering Rwandan students' learning is teachers' lack of proficiency in English. This is, regrettably, an impediment that a large number of Rwandan teachers suffer from. Many Rwandan teachers had been using French before the proclamation of

English as medium of instruction in 2008, and since then they have been struggling to adapt to the situation, delivering their lessons in a language they are not proficient in. How can we expect teachers to impart knowledge, which they themselves do not own? That would be like expecting a miracle. It is clearly evident that teachers' deficiency in English, thus, also negatively impacts on the quality of education in Rwanda. As Probyn (2005: 157) contends, teachers' low proficiency in reading and writing may limit learners' chances for language development as it is proficiency in reading and writing in English, where it is the language of instruction, which can guarantee academic success. As Bakahwemama (2010: 204) adds, learners perform better academically when both teachers and students are knowledgeable about the medium of instruction.

Second language learning, then, is a concern that has been at the heart of applied linguists for years, so various approaches have been proposed and tried. Some of the current theories, which focus on the significant role that social, cultural, linguistic and historical contexts play may provide new insights into second language teaching and learning, and are therefore pertinent to this study.

This work is, accordingly, shaped by sociocultural theories of second language learning and a framework of teaching language across the curriculum. Sociocultural theory highlights the role social, historical and cultural factors play in the efficient and effective learning of a second language and particularly the language of instruction, as is the focus of the present study. The Teaching Language across the Curriculum framework entails teaching English through content and collaboration between language teachers and content-subject teachers to agree on which content to deliver. This has proved to be an effective approach to promoting second language learning and to ensuring academic performance. We are going to discuss the views of different linguists concerning each of these theoretical models.

The following section discusses the views of sociocultural theorists on second language learning.

2.5 Sociocultural theories and second language learning

Sociocultural theories draw on the work of the Russian psychologist Lev S. Vygotsky. Vygotsky (1978) argued that children's mental processes develop through getting fully involved in activities with the people in their surrounding environment. This environment may be the home, the school or the neighbours (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006: 197). Fahim and Haghani (2012) regard the sociocultural context as a fundamental element exerting considerable impact on the development of cognitive processes. Sociocultural theories do not depict individuals but rather take into consideration the important roles that society and the culture play in fostering knowledge, understanding and learning (Kyungsoon, 2000; Wang, 2006).

Gass and Selinker (2008: 285) state that individual experience, along with interactional activities, is essential for knowledge acquisition. In Eun and Lim (2009)'s opinion, sociocultural theory focuses on successful interactions as the utmost factor required for the individual to develop and learn. From the sociocutural perspective, Behroozizad, Nambiar, and Amir (2014: 219) also observe that mental function development is determined by social interaction. Gabillon and Ailincai (2013: 170) consider that sociocultural theory does not separate the development of cognitive functions from social functions but rather views them as approaches that are linked and dependent on one another. In other words, learning a second language cannot be imagined without the context in which it happens.

Nevertheless, there are misconceptions held by some applied linguists about the essence of sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Lantolf and Thorne purport that one such controversy is the wrong presumption that SCT suggests that learning is merely a copying activity. This is misinterpreting the theory of internalisation, which maintains that internalisation implies imitation in which individuals make use of their critical thinking (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006: 203). Lantolf and Thorne describe internalisation as an activity in which cultural tools assume a cognitive role. They clarify that internalisation implies a process of managing to do things which once needed external assistance to be realised. Internalisation occurs when guidance is stopped and the individual can act independently (Behroozizad, Nambiar & Amir, 2014: 219).

Quoting Vygotsky (1978), Lantolf and Thorne (2006: 203) affirm that internalisation has taken place when an individual is capable of imitating other people's deliberate undertakings. They also purport that imitation is not a mechanical reproduction of other individuals' activities but rather a cognitive function resulting in transformation of the original model. In the words of Vygotsky, "Development based on collaboration and imitation is the source of all the specifically human characteristics of consciousness that develop in the child and, as such, imitation is the source of instruction's influence on development" (Vygotsky, 1987: 210).

In Moeller and Catalano's (2015: 328) view, taking part in activities that are culturally organised is fundamental for learning to take place. They regard learning as an active and deliberate activity that aims to reach a targeted purpose. Moeller and Catalano also perceive that engaging in meaningful interactions during the learning and development process aids the learner to internalise and transform new data. "Knowledge is firstly co-constructed at social planes through interactions with others and then this knowledge is appropriated (internalised) at personal planes" (Gabillon & Ailincai, 2013: 170). Gabillon and Ailincai add that, through active individual experience, learners grasp how new knowledge relates to previously acquired knowledge. For them, when learners link new knowledge to prior knowledge, they comprehend and absorb new concepts better. In the context of the second language classroom, Gabillon and Ailincai recommend classroom activities that are interesting and that motivate students to get fully involved in their learning process. For Behroozizad, Nambiar, and Amir (2013: 70), the classroom is an opportune setting for fostering learning and stimulating new learning techniques through engaging in interactions between peers and between students and teachers. Collentine and Freed (2004: 156) advocate a learning environment in which students are immersed in contexts providing them with adequate opportunities that may advance second language development.

In this study, the learning of English is supposed to take place in the language classroom. As the expert or more knowledgeable person, the English teacher's role is to create learning activities that incite students to actively engage in interactions and collaboration and to assist them whenever the need arises. To support her students in the learning of a second language, the teacher must identify their needs and build on the knowledge they have already acquired.

The next section talks about two specific constructs, which are part of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, and their relevance to second language learning.

2.5.1 The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), scaffolding and learning

Engaging in interactions with a more knowledgeable person favours learning and enables the learner to move to a higher level of knowledge (Kao, 2010). This relates to two constructs in Vygotsky's sociocultural framework, namely, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffolding. Vygotsky (1978: 86) defines ZPD as "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers". He claims that ZPD describes mental functions which already exist in the child but which are still in the process of maturation with assistance and will mature in the future whereupon the child will be able to do things by herself. The ZPD relates to knowledge that the learner has not acquired yet but that she may acquire if favourable conditions are met (Brown, 2014). From this definition of the ZPD, Lantolf and Thorne (2006) ascertain that cognitive development emerges from social interactions which provide the base on which the learner's knowledge builds and hence enable her to internalise new information. Internalisation happens when the child's imitation of more knowledgeable people's actions and behaviour boosts her mental development. Vygotsky also asserts that learning stimulates mental processes that can function when the child is interacting with people around her or when she is engaged in cooperating with others. He thus views learning as an essential activity that must be undertaken to foster the learner's cognitive development.

Similarly, Fahim and Haghani (2012) consider the ZPD as very important as it is the area where exemplars from social interactions capacitate the learner's cognitive processes to function effectively. They maintain that learning awakens multiple intellectual functions in the child and this takes place only through interacting with peers and adult people. Fahami and Haghani specify that when the child has succeeded in internalising new information, this knowledge is stored in her mental repertoire. Kao (2010) attests that the skills that the learner does not own yet are included in the ZPD until she can perform the same functions she could not accomplish alone without relying on any support.

However, some classic authors of psychological literature like Piaget (1955) have a different assumption about the importance of learning on the development of mental processes recognised by Vygotsky. Piaget holds that learning depends on development and if the child's mental development is defective, learning is not going to take place. If a child's cognitive functions have not matured and she is incapable of learning a particular subject, then no instruction is going to help. I believe Vygostky's assumption to be solidly grounded and share the same view that learning plays a significant role in developing the already existing mental processes in the child. I also hold the strong conviction that what works for the child is also true for the adult learner, especially the English language learners in the present study. Instruction will help to awaken the learner's intellectual processes acquired earlier and the teacher's assistance, together with interaction with peers, will bring about development.

The other construct of Vyotsky's sociocultural theory that is pertinent to this study is scaffolding. Scaffolding implies the assistance provided by any better-informed persons such as parents, teachers or peers to the learner (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006: 200). Lantolf and Thorne elaborate that scaffolding happens between learners when they engage in collaborative tasks, which may enhance language skill acquisition. Winne and Nesbit (2010: 661) also state that peer-supported learning enhances "learners' social, motivational, behavioural, metacognitive, and academic benefits." For Fahim and Haghani (2012), scaffolding occurs when the individual with more knowledge helps the one with less knowledge to successfully carry out an activity which, under other circumstances, she could not execute alone. Turuk (2008) holds the same opinion that while interacting, the knowledgeable learner will use speech and create good conditions that will encourage the novice learner to use the present skills and knowledge to a superior stage of proficiency.

In the language classroom setting, Moeller and Catalano (2015: 329-330) propose problem-solving tasks in which the teacher (the connoisseur) scaffolds the student (the apprentice) by providing her with learning assistance. They state that the teacher should work at rousing the students' interest by devising context-related activities whose aim is to motivate the learner to engage in classroom interactions effectively. To solve these tasks, the learner should be provided with instructional scaffolding by the teacher, who is a better skilled language user and who also designs the activities (Gabillon & Ailincai, 2013: 170). This implies that the teacher should have

the capability to provide scaffolding (Behroozizad et al., 2014: 223). Gabillon and Ailincai go on to say that, as the learner attains proficiency, the scaffolding is gradually reduced.

In their mediating role, teachers have to aid learners by encouraging them to use their existing skills to acquire new skills or pass to the next level until they become independent learners (Ipek, 2009). Teachers should take as a starting point what the student can contribute but extend it by scaffolding the language the student will later be expected to use (Gibbons, 2003: 268). Gibbons claims that there has been scaffolding when a learner has succeeded in achieving an activity with the teacher's support, and when she has attained a higher level of independent aptitude gained from this experience.

Land (2004) distinguishes two types of scaffolds. He declares that "hard scaffolds" relate to support that can be foretold beforehand by taking into account barriers that may prevent the learner from performing a specific task whereas "soft scaffolds" are those necessitating that the teacher continuously detects whether the students have grasped the content in the lesson and provides opportune assistance based on their replies. This means that the teacher needs to explain the tasks clearly to the students to allow them to understand what they have to do and to assist them while they are performing the activities.

Referring to second language learning, language teachers should devise challenging task-based activities where learners are given room to interact freely and collaborate with peers in pairs or groups so as to negotiate meanings and come up with agreed solutions. These tasks are deemed to be good opportunities for students to learn from each other by using the target language, English, without fear of making mistakes or possibly being laughed at. Those with little knowledge of the target language would feel encouraged to see that their ideas are valued and would, at the same time, benefit from the language knowledge of their classmates. More skilled learners may also learn a lot from these social interactions. It is, however, when learners produce meaningful output that it can be said they have benefitted from their peers' and teachers' input.

In supervising the students and assisting them to carry out peer-interaction tasks, the teacher also ought to insure that all learners are really engaged in the tasks as collaboration may not occur due to some individuals who may dominate others or others who may let their classmates do the work for them (Land, 2004). Kwon (2006: 133) recommends that teachers assign a role to each

participant when structuring the group activity, so as to elicit output equally from each student, as well as to prevent one person from dominating the discussion.

Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory also posits that for higher mental processes to develop, learners have to utilise cultural tools to mediate the relationships between them and the environment. In the present case of students in secondary Third Forms in 9 YBE schools in Rwanda, the language of instruction is a tool that has to be used to mediate learning.

The next section refers to the language of instruction as a mediating tool in the learning process.

2.5.2 Language as a mediating tool

Mediation is one aspect of Vygotsky (1978)'s sociocultural theory. Vygotsky acknowledges the importance of cultural artefacts that function as intermediaries between people and their surroundings and work to regulate the interdependence between them and the society in which they live (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006: 198). Vygotsky reasoned that humans have the potential to exercise power over the physical environment but with the assistance of tools. As people use material artefacts to bring about positive transformations in their community and, thus, ameliorate their standard of living, they also utilise symbols to establish relations with other people in their society in order to live in a harmonious world (Fahim & Haghani, 2012). Dongyu et al. (2013) view mediation as a central concept of sociocultural theory that depicts the utilisation of cultural artefacts, referring to resources that are adopted to deal with a difficulty or achieve a fixed objective. Mediation signifies the use of psychological tools, referring to skills that are utilised to cope with challenges or attain a targeted aim (Kao, 2010). Kao affirms that these psychological tools are artefacts that are used as mediators for human beings' mental activities.

Language is a tool that people use in their everyday lives to express and negotiate meanings, to create socio-interpersonal relations and is fundamental to learning. Kao (2010: 123) considers language as one of the most important artefacts such as signs and symbols that may mediate humans' physiological and cognitive activities. Kao adds that the external activities in which a learner takes part can be modified and internalised as personal knowledge.

In the present study, English, the language of instruction, is an important mediating tool that Rwandan learners are compelled to know to cope with their studies. In fact, students have to listen to their teachers, read and write for their assignments and examinations, and give presentations or engage in classroom discussions that require them to speak. All of these tasks cannot be accomplished successfully without proficiency in the language of instruction. The level of proficiency in the language of instruction is, thus, one of the factors that has a great impact on learners' academic performance positively or negatively, resulting in either academic success or failure. Stephen, Welman and Jordaan (2004: 42) contend that high levels of English language (as medium of instruction) competence are an important factor in attaining academic success, and if a student is under proficient in the medium of learning, it is obvious that she runs enormous risks of failing. This can be applied to Rwandan learners as they betray a lack of proficiency in English, the medium of instruction. It would come as no surprise, thus, if they did not perform well academically.

As stated previously, proficiency in the language of instruction alone does not, however, guarantee academic achievement. In their study, Padilla and Gonzales (2001) found that under achievement or over achievement do not depend on being skillful in the language of instruction only but on a number of social and psychological factors of learners as well. They propose that learners should receive a solid foundation in basic academic skills in their primary language, which will transfer to the language of instruction when they begin learning in it. In other words, if a student is competent in the home language and is instructed in it, there are strong chances that she transitions to English medium easily and predictably attains academic achievement (Padilla & Gonzalez, 2001: 739). Similarly, Marsh, Kong, and Hau (2002: 733) noticed that when students were instructed in a second language they did not know well, they were performing poorer academically than their peers who were taught in their first language. Marsh et al. (2002) and Thomas and Collier (2002) propose that secondary education learners who are instructed in a second language in which they are lowly skilled be granted a period in which they should follow intensive instruction in this target language before they are taught through it as a medium.

The experience I once had while I was teaching English to first-year university students in Rwanda corroborates the importance of Marsh et al. (2002) and Thomas and Collier's (2002)

proposition. Between the years 1995 and 2004, students who completed secondary education and were enrolled at the National University of Rwanda, where I was a lecturer of English, had to spend a whole academic year learning English before they began dealing with other academic subjects in the following years (Kereni, 2004). At the very beginning, the students had to sit for an English proficiency test to enable language lecturers to know their level of proficiency in this language. After the release of marks, students were assigned groups according to the grades they had obtained. The English lecturer in each group had, therefore, to identify the particular language needs of their students and help them accordingly. The students knew they had to take this English course seriously and concentrate on it, as the English grades determined whether a student was eligible to pursue her studies in the faculty or to repeat the year.

I would not be exaggerating to say that after the successful completion of this one-year English course, students had become more competent in English as they could speak and write better than they did before they began the course. In addition, the students were able to follow courses delivered in English without real difficulties, according to their subject lecturers.

Between 2005 and 2010, I was working at another public university, the School of Finance and Banking. Here, the English intensive course lasted only three months, but the students were conscious that they had to seize this unique opportunity that was offered them and maximise it to develop their English skills so as to be able to cope with their academic studies. This short-English intensive course has also proven to be beneficial to the students, even though it was limited in duration.

Currently, there are no intensive English courses provided at public universities in Rwanda. English has been allotted only a few hours in the academic timetable alongside the content subjects. Considering the generalised English language difficulties that students encounter in their studies and at work once they have graduated from university, I assume the language policy should be revised and English given much more time in the timetable to allow the students to strengthen their skills in this language of instruction. Moreover, as school is the only available setting for learning English in Rwanda, appropriate teaching and learning techniques should be devised to enable students to acquire competence in this target language and so deal successfully with their studies.

The next section shows the importance of peer interaction as one of the learning techniques that may stimulate second language learning.

2.5.3 Peer interaction and second language learning

Dongyu, Fanyu, and Wanyi (2013) contend that SCT regards learning as a process in which a learner uses signs and symbols while taking part in various socially-mediated activities. As Vygotsky (1978) points out, learning derives from the social mediation provided by interactions. In fact, sociocultural theory holds that interactions play an essential role in language learning and serve as a channel through which learning happens. Gibbons (2003: 268) echoes Vygotsky by suggesting that language learning is not a single individual's achievement but rather a social realisation. She extrapolates that meanings are not produced by isolated individuals but rather derive from collaboration through social interactions.

Besides advocating participation in social interactions as a way of rendering language learning possible, contemporary theories on second language learning emphasise learner-centred instruction instead of the traditional teacher-centred classroom proposed in old approaches. These theories call upon language teachers to create classroom activities in which learners engage in peer interactions to have their share of responsibility in the learning process. Philip, Adams, and Iwashita (2014: 3) define peer interaction as a "communicative" task performed by students with little, if not any, intervention on the part of the instructor. When the interaction happens between the teacher and the learner, the latter has very little time to speak; it is peer interaction that can guarantee each student expanded time for talking (Harmer, 2001). However, Philip et al. and Harmer do not clearly define the important role the teacher plays in assisting her students, which is only possible through interactions. Of course, interactions between the teacher and the student should be limited enough to allot sufficient time for student interactions.

For Robaton (2011), peer interaction refers to the relationships and roles developed by the students in the classroom environment when engaging in any kind of task. In his opinion, learners are interactional beings so must be aware of other people's ideas and strategies to enhance their own learning process. Robaton holds that, as learners note that they are heard and appreciated by other people, they will be encouraged to express themselves more confidently.

Students should, then, be encouraged to actively engage in tasks through interacting and collaborating with their peers. In the English language classroom, peer interactions will enable learners to make use of whatever English language load they possess to negotiate and share meanings. Working together with their peers for the same purpose of learning will make students feel responsible for their own learning. If the students are really collaborating, they will benefit from each other ‘s knowledge respectively, which can help increase their language skills. The more knowledgeable students can aid their classmates to make use of the English competencies they already own and facilitate them to acquire more. Gibbons (2003) and Nomlomo (2007) claim that learning takes place through a collaborative interactional process in which learners begin to utilise the language of interaction for their own purposes. In Lantolf and Thorne’s (2006) viewpoint, if learners take responsibility for learning the second language, it is a positive sign foretelling that their skills in this language may be fostered, even when they do not presently display much performance in it.

In the context of second language learning, learners will rely on peer interaction as a context for language learning and will depend on each other to complete the tasks (Philip et al., 2014). Philip et al. (2014) elaborate by saying that tasks require learners to depend on one another for information even when they are not at equal levels of competence. They go on to say that peer interaction entails collaboration as students work together to achieve a common goal and this collaboration creates the powerful feeling that they must unite their efforts for the accomplishment of this joint venture. Swain (2000) explains that while collaborating, learners are involved in activities in which they use their critical thinking, which promotes knowledge acquisition. For her, tasks mediate language learning because, as the students attempt to perform listening, speaking, reading and writing activities in a given language, they are unconsciously developing skills in this language.

Collaborative tasks aid students to realise that social interactions are fundamental for the improvement of their mental and linguistic functions (Donato, 2000). Land (2004) suggests that peer interactions allow students to give and receive explication, which is likely to lead to the development of higher mental processes like explaining and re-organising ideas, fixing errors and perceiving things in a novel way. He adds that reconstructing thoughts can prompt collaborative learning that fosters second language learning as the students gain language skills

through real and purposeful interactions with peers in this target language (Yip, 2003: 211). Kwon (2006: 133) contends that peer interactions provide a strong motivation for second language learners to participate in tasks, to reflect on their performance, and to improve upon it.

In the second language classroom, weak students will benefit from pair or group work only if they are interacting with more knowledgeable peers. Furthermore, interactions should occur not only between students and students as proposed by some researchers but also between teachers and students. The teacher should mediate learning by devising strategies that support students in their endeavour to learn. The next section focuses on the mediating role of the teacher in the learner's language development.

2.5.4 The mediating role of the language teacher

The language teacher's responsibility is to impart knowledge to her students and to ensure that they benefit from her instruction. The teacher must also interact with students by guiding them throughout the learning process. As a well-informed person, she must provide her learners with all the required support to render the learning of the second language easy and effective. Gibbons (2003) purports that mediation occurs in situations in which difference, difficulty or social distance prevail. He claims that these traits are typical of the teacher-learner relationship, as it is normally assumed that there exists a huge linguistic and conceptual gap between the two. Behroozizad, Nambiar and Amir (2016: 37) advance that with the support of more knowledgeable people (or "experts"), learners (or "novices") are capable of executing activities which they could not normally perform if they were denied this assistance. They maintain that this is only possible if teachers and students interact within a socioculturally-organised learning context. They also add that by designing communicative language tasks, effective classroom interactions among peers and between the teacher and the learners will take place.

Hamamorad (2016: 69) also acknowledges that the teacher plays a significant role in mediating the learning process. He posits that the teacher can mediate learning by interacting with her students and by guiding them throughout the learning process. The teacher can also facilitate interactions among students by designing interactive pair and group activities in which the students negotiate meaning through collaboration. In addition, the teacher has to create a friendly

learning environment to encourage students' participation and foster learning. Hamamorad adds that the teacher's constructive feedback is very important as well. He explicates that constructive feedback may reinforce the learners' interest and enhance learning whereas non-constructive feedback may provoke only frustration and disappointment. For Behroozizad, Nambiar and Amir (2014: 219), the central role of the language teacher is to provide a supportive environment for learners' cognitive development.

As for Xiongyong, Samuel and Hua (2012: 119), they hypothesise that the mediating role of the teacher consists of helping the students to become autonomous, to take control of their own learning, with the primary objective of facilitating them to become self-reliant thinkers and problem-solvers. They then propose that the teacher devise appropriate tasks for the students to participate in and provide them opportunities for collaborative learning (p. 129). To provide students with the opportunities to attain their full potential as learners, the teacher has to devise teaching techniques that stimulate learners' active participation (Zacharias, 2014).

In the present study, the English teacher is assumed to be proficient in English to be able to provide her students with all the required support in their venture to develop English competence. The Rwandan students in the study are in their last year of secondary lower level education and are preparing to sit for national examinations, which they must pass to be admitted to secondary advanced level. In normal circumstances, we would expect them to have acquired a certain level of proficiency in English as they have been learning in this language since Primary Four. Unfortunately, this is not the case as they generally perform poorly in English. In order to assist these students to expand their English skills and eventually become proficient, the teacher should be aware of what skills they already own and so decide on what new aspects of the language she is going to focus on, and at which level of proficiency she wants to take them. As a mediator, the teacher should strive to help students learn independently by providing them with the required skills and knowledge (Kao, 2010). The teacher should, hence, attempt various strategies to identify those that will best aid her to render her teaching mission successful.

The following section shows the benefits of teaching language across the curriculum in second language learning.

2.6 Teaching Language across the Curriculum

Language across the Curriculum (LAC) is an approach that emphasises integration of second language and content subjects in order to provide learners meaningful and interesting learning materials that may help them develop their language skills whilst at the same time acquiring additional content-related knowledge. For Krashen (1998), input that is interesting and relevant to the learner is a necessary condition for language learning. This teaching approach that advocates integration of language skills with subject content in the language classroom conflicts with other teaching methods recommending that language skills be taught separately from content (Snow, Met & Genesee, 1989: 201). Snow et al. go on to say that learning genres specific to learners' subject areas may be a prerequisite to mastery of specific content or to academic development in general.

This integration of second language and content subjects does not concern second language teachers only. Language learning should be the responsibility of all teachers in a school. Content teachers are also invited to promote second language acquisition in addition to imparting content concepts. Collaboration between both second language teachers and subject-content teachers is, thus, recommended so that content teachers can advise language teachers on the relevant content-specific materials through which to teach the target language. Similarly, language teachers should guide subject teachers on how to help learners with language difficulties while teaching them content since they also have to contribute to supporting second language learning. With the language teacher's assistance, subject teachers should then be able to identify their students' language needs and support them accordingly (Costa et al., 2005).

Kilfoil and Van der Walt (1997) also state that if the language of learning is English, the English teacher has to consider the learners' academic needs. The teacher will help the learners to enhance their cognitive skills to enable them to cope with all their subjects in English. They go on to say that by integrating content from other subjects in the English classroom, the teacher is paving the way for the students to successfully deal with other subjects as their proficiency in English will either support or impede their scholastic progress. Moreover, this approach will be

useful in the future as learners may for instance need the vocabulary they would have acquired for different purposes.

Lughmani et al. (2017) support collaboration between language teachers and subject teachers. They argue that the language teacher should exploit content-related genres to teach language skills. It is naturally recommended that she select the texts with the help of content teachers. The language teacher should, thus, use appropriate strategies to enable her students to recognise the different types of genres. After that she may check their understanding of genres by assessing the outputs they have produced. The focus on the use of English in each content subject will augment the students' language skills as each subject area has its own specialised vocabulary and distinct writing genres.

For Lughmani et al., cooperation occurs when subject lecturers are willing to work together with English teachers through discussing the subject content as well as sharing teaching materials. They claim that, to collaborate effectively, both the English teacher and the subject teacher have to save some time after class to work on how the teaching of English may facilitate the teaching of other subjects. In the opinion of Haynes and Zacarian (2010), students would learn English better if they were taught by a lecturer having the ability to teach both English and subject content efficiently and at the same time encouraging them to be responsible for their own learning. In response to Haynes and Zacarian's point of view, I do not believe it would be easy to have the same teacher capable of teaching English and content subjects at the same time, at least in Rwanda. The usual situation is that the teacher is either specialised in teaching English or in teaching a content subject.

Logically, the language of instruction should be developed, not only by the English teacher, but by all teachers while imparting knowledge, as language problems do not only have an impact on English as a subject but also on performance in content subjects. Students would also be more interested and motivated to learn English, as they would be using content drawn from their specific area of study. And when students are happy about what they are being taught, they learn both the language and the content better.

However, I do not know of any schools in Rwanda in which English language teachers and subject teachers cooperate and collaborate to promote students' proficiency in English. Both

teachers do their job separately. English teachers elaborate their teaching materials without consulting subject teachers whereas subject teachers focus on their content only without caring about their students' poor English skills.

This study, however, focuses on English language teachers only, as it aims to explore the ways and contexts in which this language of instruction is taught and its impact on learners' academic performance. A further study could later be undertaken to investigate the contribution, if any, of subject teachers in the development of learners' skills in English, the medium of instruction.

Another approach to language teaching and learning that advocates the learning of English through content worth discussing is Content-Based Instruction.

2.7 Content-based Instruction and second language learning

The American linguist Noam Chomsky (1957) maintained that language, specifically grammar, did not require context to be meaningful. According to him, learners acquire fluency by learning grammatical structures first, then by practising and using them in isolation, i.e., without relating them to any context. Many reactions against this belief have given birth to new approaches that uphold the thought that language needs to be learnt through meaningful content. One such approach, which is more than significant to our study, is Content-Based Instruction (CBI), which is closely linked to the Language across the Curriculum framework. CBI refers to a communicative approach to language teaching that favours the teaching of languages through content instead of putting emphasis on language structures. If this approach is well implemented, the student may learn both content and acquire new language skills (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Richards and Rogers understand content as the subject matter that we are taught via language rather than the language utilised to communicate it. They state that people develop second language skills better when this language serves as a tool for learning information, which would yield different results if language were the only goal of learning. They further explain that teachers ought to put emphasis on genuine communication and the exchange of information to create an adequate environment wherein content would provide the ideal context for learning the second language. The target language would be used to introduce content, and learners could acquire language as "a by-product of learning about real-world content" (Richards & Rodgers,

2001: 205). In his Input Hypothesis, Krashen (1982) also claims that a language learner understands input that brings into focus content instead of the structure in which information is conveyed. He further contends that people make use of contextual information they have, their life experience and whatever knowledge they possess to understand a language of which some structures are still unknown.

Stoller (2002) is another proponent of Content-Based Instruction. She assumes that when students know the language perfectly, they acquire more content, and as they acquire more content, they can ameliorate their language skills. She goes on to say that if students are held responsible for their learning of both language and content, they can achieve a great deal. Indeed, they go out of the classroom with more knowledge of the world and are able to use the improved language skills, critical thinking skills, and collaboration skills acquired to solve the problems that they encounter in the real world. Omoto and Nyogesa (2013) also recognise the significance of Content-Based Instruction for language learning, but note that since CBI does not specifically put emphasis on language learning, this can cause some of the learners to be disoriented or to believe that their language skills are not being enhanced. They then advise teachers to incorporate within the materials language tasks aimed at promoting language competence. Omoto and Nyogesa affirm that combining the learning of a second language with content has four main objectives. Firstly, students acquire knowledge in distinct subject areas. Secondly, students can use the language functions and skills required to comprehend, read and write about the concepts acquired. Thirdly, students are more motivated while they are studying content than when they are studying language by itself. Fourthly, content gives the setting for students to develop learning strategies.

In the same way as LAC advocates the use of genre-based pedagogy, CBI states that language is text and discourse based (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). According to Richards and Rodgers, this involves using various types of genres like essays, reports, letters, articles, speeches, etc., and determining their specific structure. Advocates of CBI also attest that a focus on identifying and addressing students' needs helps determine the appropriate content to teach and stimulates effective learning. They declare that if the programme is at a secondary school level, the students' academic needs should guide teachers to decide on what kind of content to teach. The

approach also emphasises collaborative modes of learning, which allow students to support each other.

Although CBI strongly recommends that the second language should be taught through content in the same way as the LAC approach, it seems as if this so important but difficult task is left to the English teachers alone to carry out. The significant role played by collaboration between language teachers and content-subject teachers in learning is not clear-cut here. I believe that if there is lack of collaboration and cooperation between the two, language teachers would find it challenging to provide the right content to teach.

It is obvious that collaboration between students may only be effective if they are provided with content they can understand. The kind of input the learner is given within the classroom is, therefore, a determining factor of the quality of output she will produce. The next section shows the importance of input and output in second language learning.

2.8 The role of input and output in second language learning

Input indicates language information provided to the student while learning a language (Donesch-Jezo, 2011; Zhang, 2009). Krashen emphasises the importance of input for learning in his Input Hypothesis. He purports that:

> We acquire when we understand language that contains structure that is "a little beyond" where we are now…. A learner is at stage i, where i represents current competence; i+1 is the next level. A necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from stage i to stage i+1 is that the acquirer understands input that contains i+1…? We can understand language that contains structures that we have not acquired yet because we use more than our linguistic competence to help us understand. We also use context, our knowledge of the world, our extra-linguistic information to help us understand language directed at us (Krashen, 1982: 20-21).

For input to be beneficial, it must be slightly higher than the knowledge the learner presently possesses (Nomlomo, 2007: 80). Nomlomo contends that the learner's background, experience and already acquired knowledge will help her to understand the new input. She adds that when input is too easy or too difficult, it will not serve the learner. If input is very easy or very difficult, the learner is not going to gain any additional knowledge in any case as she either knows the things she is being taught or she does not understand anything from the material.

As highlighted in the previous sections, learning, and particularly second language learning, occurs in social contexts while the learner is interacting with other people. Input produced by these persons who are engaged in interactions with the learner is very significant, as the latter will attempt to imitate it. It is necessary that the learner be exposed to input in order for second language acquisition to occur (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006: 214). Bahrani (2013) echoes these other scholars by stating that input, which is brought into contact with the learners in their effort to acquire second language skills, is one of the external factors that plays a critical role. However, it is not just any kind of input but input that is comprehensible and that promotes learning. In other words, the quality of input available to the learner is crucial for successful second language acquisition (Ellis & Collins, 2009: 309). The role of comprehensible input is also emphasised by Kwon (2006: 132). In his study, Kwon noticed that when learners were not given enough information about how the target words were used, they had trouble with further processing of the meanings of words they had learnt. Vygotsky's (1978) "Zone of Proximal Development" (ZPD) and "Scaffolding" specify that the learner's already existing cognitive functions require assistance of the knowledgeable person in order to mature until when the learner has become autonomous and can manage to do things independently. To effectively assist the learner, the knowledgeable person must provide input that is comprehensible to her.

Third Form students in the present study have been learning through English from Primary 4, so it can be hypothesised that they have acquired some English skills that can aid them to move forward to a higher level and acquire additional skills with the help of peers and English teachers. As Krashen's (1982: 21) input suggests, the classroom may be a better setting for second language learning than the outside milieu for students who have not reached advanced level yet. This is more than true in monolingual Rwanda, where the only context in which learners can encounter English is provided through school instruction as in the outside world, and particularly in the rural milieu, Rwandans communicate in Kinyarwanda only. Consequently, it is mainly the English teacher, who is supposedly more cognisant than her students, who must make available comprehensible input that will promote learning. Similar to Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory, Krashen's Input Hypothesis requires an interaction between an individual who is more knowledgeable and another who is less knowledgeable for learning to occur (Krashen, 1982). Therefore, in her endeavour to impart knowledge and guide the students

throughout the learning process, the English teacher's task is to provide selected listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities that can stimulate the learner's production of comprehensible output.

As comprehensible input is necessary for the production of meaningful output, the quality of input learners receive in the classroom will determine the quality of output they will produce (Nomlomo, 2007: 83). Nomlomo explains that when the teacher is not proficient in the target language, the learners will be exposed to low input; hence, they will generate poor output. On the other hand, if the teacher is proficient, learners will be exposed to rich input and the quality of their output is likely to be good. She goes on to say that if both the teacher and the learners perform poorly in the language of instruction, things become worse and communication is impeded. This last argument depicts the language situation that prevails in Rwanda where the quality of education is affected by teachers and students' lack of competence in English, the language of instruction.

Output is the language that a learner produces and is requisite for language acquisition (Zhang, 2009: 92). Nevertheless, Krashen's (1982: 60-61) Input Hypothesis recognises, but at the same time minimises, the contribution of spoken and written output to language learning. On the one hand, Krashen concedes that output supports learning as it offers opportunities for error correction. He elaborates that when the second language learner makes errors while speaking or writing, the teacher will correct them, which helps to improve language skills. On the other hand, Krashen does not recognise the importance of exercising speaking in the target language but, rather, states that a learner may become fluent only through reading and listening practice and by grasping the meaning of input provided to her. This assertion does not value the role learners' involvement plays in their acquiring of new language skills (Brown, 2014: 258). Swain's (2005) Output Hypothesis opposes Krashen's claim and emphasises that comprehensible output is as indispensable as comprehensible input for successful language learning. I assume the slight importance ascribed to output by Krashen would be justified only in contexts where intense exposure to the target language is possible as when learners are immersed in a community where the target language is the only means of communication. In the case of Rwanda, however, exposure to English outside school is almost non-existent, so the opportunity to encounter it is provided in the classroom only.

As Guariento and Morley (2001: 352) put it, language input and output are both indispensable for effective communication to take place. Bahrani (2013), Birkner (2016) and Kwon (2006) also contend that both comprehensible input and comprehensible output are important in the second language learning process. They add that learning requires the opportunity to utilise the second language because when faced with communication failure learners are compelled to produce more accurate output. The importance of both input and output is again emphasised by Zhang (2009: 92) who claims that when input is mediated and students interact in the second language actively, they remember input they have assimilated and select accurate language structures to communicate, which enables them to internalise the skills they have acquired.

In addition, if Krashen himself asserts that the classroom could be a good place where second language learning may occur, how can the learning happen without the learner's active participation in the process? It would not make sense if a second language learner attended class and listened and read only, without speaking or writing, as all four skills must be integrated for second language development. Swain (2005) suggests that when learners produce the second language in speech or writing, they can be aware of their ability or inability to say what they want and work accordingly. To put it otherwise, when learners encounter communication difficulties, they will strive to produce more accurate output (Izumi, 2003). Funk (2012: 305-306) adds that students also develop language skills when they are encouraged to use the target language, a process in which they may become aware of their language difficulties and so work at removing them. In the classroom, feedback from the teacher is necessary as it may help learners to improve the output they have produced (Nomlomo, 2007).

In other words, input exposure and output production must both be taken into consideration for the full development of the second language (Kwon, 2006). Rwandan learners have, thus, to participate in the learning of English, the medium of instruction, by producing spoken and written output to enable the teacher to identify their strengths and weaknesses and by so doing address their needs in this target language. The teacher's feedback concerning students' output needs to be provided to ensure that they avoid misunderstanding and misuse of the target language during peer interaction (Kwon, 2006: 133). Feedback is also needed once the teacher has finished correcting students' works to enable them to realise their weaknesses and so make efforts to ameliorate them.

Apart from providing rich input, teachers also need to elaborate more teaching and learning strategies that may foster students' English proficiency, at the same time enabling them to understand their content subjects. The next section shows the advantages of translanguaging, a kind of bilingual education, in supporting second language learning and academic success.

2.9 Translanguaging

The word translanguaging was coined by Cen Williams in 1994 to indicate a learning and teaching approach in which learners attending Welsh-English classes were required to alternatively use Welsh and English to acquire listening, reading, speaking and writing skills in both languages (Garcia & Lin, 2016:1). Garcia (2009: 140) describes translanguaging as a process where bilingual learners are motivated to acquire skills in two or more separate languages so as to increase communication opportunities. Celic and Seltzer (2011) and Garcia (2009) explain that translanguaging refers to practices that are adopted by bilingual people so as to negotiate meanings in the multilingual environment in which they dwell. In multilingual settings, multilingual instruction programmes acknowledge the multiple language practices developed by bilingual or multilingual children. Garcia (2009: 156) observes that translanguaging is an ideal method for promoting effective teaching and learning. Ball (2011: 13) describes bilingual or multilingual practice as an approach to second language learning and teaching where two or more languages are used as media of instruction.

Childs (2016: 22) sees translanguaging as a well-designed and well-organised way of using both the mother tongue and the medium of instruction to support teaching and learning. Her study in multilingual primary school classrooms in South Africa in 2011 revealed that a translanguaging approach facilitated flexible movement between the home and school language. She, thus, believes that a translanguaging approach provides humanising experiences to students and teachers as they can use their home languages in the classroom and engage in interactions in which they learn from each other. Childs (2016: 24) also asserts that motivating bilingual students to use knowledge gained from one language to facilitate the use of an additional language is advantageous to learners as they may easily acquire both content and language skills in the two separate languages.

The different languages children and teachers speak are all valued and used to perform various classroom functions in order to increase understanding of the material taught, enable teachers and learners on the one hand and learners and their peers on the other hand to interact in a meaningful way, and to develop competency in the second language (Canagarajah, 2011 a, b; Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Lin, 2016; Garcia & Wei, 2015; Hassan & Ahmed, 2015; Hornberger &; Lewis et al., 2012 a, b; Link, 2012; Pacheco, 2016; Wei, 2011). Translanguaging enables a flexible use of one's linguistic repertoire that has important implications for teaching an additional language, which contrasts with the traditional approaches that support monolingual instruction and separation of languages to guarantee the successful learning of foreign languages (Garcia & Wei, 2014; Portoles & Marti, 2017). In their study in a kindergarten Catalan immersion school where Spanish and English were used as media of instruction, Portoles and Marti confirmed the importance of translanguaging practices. They observed that children used their L1, L2 and L3 strategically in order to perform various communicative functions, without threatening their exposure to the target language. Hence, they claim that translanguaging offers learners equitable opportunities to deal with their academic activities.

Garcia (2009) asserts that in classrooms where translanguaging is practised, it is accepted and adopted by teachers and students and is a more effective way of teaching and learning than code-switching which she says is an instance of translanguaging. Code-switching is a practice consisting of using firstly one language, then another language, and back again to the first language repeatedly, and which educators and students have recourse to for supporting second language learning (Garcia & Lin, 2016: 1). Childs (2016: 25) considers code-switching as a comparatively slight shift from the language of instruction to the learners' mother tongue and to the medium of instruction again. Celic and Seltzel (2011: 1) maintain that in code-switching, the learners' home language and the classroom language are two completely distinct languages that can work separately without one depending on the other. They contend that this is not the case with translanguaging where the languages spoken are considered as one linguistic repertoire that allows bilinguals to communicate effectively.

Translanguaging does not only enhance learners' understanding and performance of speaking activities but also allows them to employ their different languages to comprehend and carry out writing tasks. This is true for teachers as well. Cenoz and Gorter (2017: 316) contend that

"teachers and learners use translanguaging in the classroom to ensure understanding but also use similar strategies when writing in different languages". In their study, Velasco and Garcia (2014: 10) found out that "bilingual writers use different problem-solving strategies and exhibit ways of expressing meaning that are not present in monolingual writing". They counsel teachers to embrace translanguaging techniques in which learners are provided free room to use the languages they own to express themselves through the demanding proceedings of writing (p. 21). As for Heugh (2015: 3), she emphasizes the importance of both genre theory and translanguaging. She estimates that genre is helpful for learners who have difficulties with English and for learners coming from distinct "background contexts". In her opinion, genre furnishes support for school writing activities and helps to boost the students' self-reliance. Heugh believes that using translanguaging and genre can help students' understanding of content in their subjects.

Garcia and Lin (2016) recognise the important role played by code-switching to make meaning comprehensible to the students. However, they estimate that code-switching does not emphasise bilingualism as translanguaging does, but rather supports only the teaching and learning of an additional language. According to these scholars, the learners' native language is only seen as an instrument used to achieve competence in the second language so they consider translanguaging as a more appropriate approach than code-switching to foster bilingual education. I also hold the view that striving to develop learners' competence in a second language should go hand in hand with reinforcing mother tongue use in the classroom. Indeed, utilising the mother tongue would permit students to develop skills in this language and so understand better their academic subjects as they would be learning in a language they understand well. The skills acquired in the native language would then be smoothly transferred to the target language.

Mirroring other research, Garcia (2009: 152) purports that giving instruction in a language learners do not speak leads to communication and education failure. For her, translanguaging should be given its due value in educational programmes. She views it as a pedagogical technique used in bilingual classrooms to make the additional language more comprehensible. In translanguaging practice, the home language and the language of instruction are used in a systematic way to allow students to assimilate the content in their courses and to also acquire skills in both languages (Garcia & Lin, 2016: 4). Garcia and Lin, then, find it deplorable that

translanguaging is not adopted in classrooms in African countries, many of which experience an early shift from the native language to English medium of instruction. Some such countries are South Africa, Rwanda, and Uganda. Conferring English so great a value is devaluing the mother tongue in the eyes of children and at the same time denying them the right to acquire knowledge, as many are not proficient in this foreign language.

Garcia (2009: 153) claims that two pedagogical practices, social justice and social practice ought to be considered in the language learning process. The social justice principle creates learning contexts that give credit to learners' identities and accepts the use of multiple languages, at the same time highlighting academic rigour and high achievement. It also acknowledges students' right to learn, be taught and assessed in their respective native languages. A social practice approach, like Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, implies that peer interaction in which students collaborate and negotiate meaning promotes learning.

In bilingual or multilingual classroom contexts, learners' languages are regarded as social resources without any discrimination (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). As learners are allowed to interact freely in their languages, it is the teacher's responsibility to know when and how these languages must be used as the students may abuse this flexibility. The way in which communication in the target language is channelled will be conditioned by the particular setting in each individual classroom and the students' and teachers' language skills (Childs, 2016: 26). Garcia (2009: 154) believes that translanguaging occasions learners' bilingual acquisition and learning. She believes that, as students are learning in the language they speak, comprehending the content in their various school subjects becomes easier, and proficiency in the target language is acquired steadily as they are carrying out some of the classroom functions in this target language. Cenoz and Gorter (2016), Garrity et al. (2015), Martinez et al. (2014), Sayer (2013), Schwartz and Asli (2014) and Swanwick (2015) studied practices in bilingual education programmes and noticed that students and their teachers had recourse to translanguaging to understand academic content as well as to develop skills in the standard languages used in the classroom and it worked.

Apart from making sense of what they are being taught, interacting in both the native language and the target language also enables students to learn from each other. For instance, a student

may not master the target language but understand better the content of a subject, so she is going to share her knowledge with the others and help them to understand by explaining in the native language. Similarly, a student who is more proficient in the target language than her friends will also help them acquire new skills in the foreign language as they will be communicating in both languages. Bilingualism is likely to occur through interactions if the teacher is perfectly bilingual in L1 and L2 and if there are students who understand the lessons taught while others are proficient in the target language. Garcia and Lin (2016) contend that it is simply when bilingual learners are allowed to communicate freely in both languages that they will develop fluency in them. As a matter of fact, they recommend that bilingual teachers give their students room to interact and use all their language skills independently in addition to their intellectual capacity and creativity (ibid, 2016: 13).

Estrada et al. (2009) also advocate a dual language approach that would promote both colloquial and academic competence in the target languages. They claim that education programmes in which the second language and the home language are both used to accomplish academic tasks are fundamental ways of teaching second language learners. This merely means that instructing learners in both the home language and second language will allow them to acquire academic language easily and, hence, achieve academic success. Estrada et al. maintain that, indeed, when children at an early age use their first language to learn content subjects during the whole period of their educational programmes, they develop proficiency in this home language, convey the skills acquired to the second language little by little, and manage to use this additional language to perform academic activities. Clark (2000: 186) also holds that in bilingual programmes, students keep on fostering their mental and academic development in the first language whilst developing proficiency in the additional language.

Estrada et al. (2009: 56) disagree with what they call transitional programmes that put emphasis on the acquisition of English proficiency to the detriment of the home language. They maintain that for transitional programmes, the efficient way to enable learners to develop English skills is to put them in an environment where English is the only language spoken. Estrada et al. (2009) further explain that in these programmes, everything is taught in English and learners have to utilise this foreign language for communication and learning purposes. Estrada et al. (2009) purport that transitional programmes produce students who are illiterate in both their home

language and second language. In fact, the assertion from advocates of transitional programmes that students learn a second language better if it is used as the only language of communication, conflicts with the claim of various applied linguists. The latter hold the view that second language development, as well as academic achievement, will be promoted if students are taught in their home language, a language which they understand well, and if they learn the second language simply as a subject.

Dual language approaches hold the view that learning in the first language is advantageous to students as they become more skilled in this language. With dual language programmes, learners continue to develop proficiency in both the home language and the second language thus fostering their instructional and mental growth (Estrada et al, 2009: 57). Estrada et al. sustain that the language skills acquired in one language may easily be transmitted to additional languages. They then suggest that when students have acquired BICS in their first language, they should first develop academic language in this very language before they switch to the second language. Of course, the students must also have acquired CALP in L1 to transfer these skills to L2 and to be able to accomplish their academic work.

In the case of Rwanda, translanguaging could function as only two languages are used in the classroom. These are Kinyarwanda, the mother tongue that is spoken by all Rwandans, and English, which is a second language and medium of instruction from Primary 4. In Primary lower level, it is Kinyarwanda that is used as the language of instruction while English is taught as a subject. Certain functions could, thus, be accomplished through using Kinyarwanda and others through English. If Kinyarwanda were given the same value as English in the classroom, students would gain a lot academically as they would be learning in a language they understand. Proficiency in English would also be boosted as the cognitive functions acquired through using Kinyarwanda would be easily transferred to English. Of course, this would work only if Rwandan students were taught through the medium of Kinyarwanda until when they have acquired CALP in this native language, a period after which I presume they would be ready to start learning through the medium of English.

Nevertheless, it should be kept in mind that understanding the language in which instruction is provided is a crucial factor to effective learning, especially as translanguaging is not resorted to

in formal assessment. In addition, translanguaging assumes that students' linguistic repertoires include both the first language and the additional language, but the situation in rural Rwanda is such that students' English is almost non-existent, hence a greater reliance on their first language, Kinyarwanda and less use of translanguaging.

The following section deals with teaching strategies and their impact on students' academic performance.

2.10 Effects of teaching strategies on students' academic achievement

Research has demonstrated that the quality of teaching strategies greatly impacts on learners' academic achievement. Ganyaupfu (2013: 29), for example, observes that teaching strategies that are effective result in learners' academic performance whereas teaching strategies of poor quality lead to low achievements. Blazar (2016) adds that, besides considerably affecting learners' academic performance, teachers also exert influence on learners' life success. Similarly, Haas (2002: 11) states that teaching methods play a significant role in students' learning although he also recognises that there are other factors, such as teachers' knowledge, experience, management techniques, etc., which may affect achievement but which are beyond the teacher's control.

Accordingly, Nafees et al. (2012: 161) declare that teaching strategies should be selected properly as they guarantee effective attainment of set learning goals. They also contend that various teaching strategies may enable learners to acquire knowledge in different ways, and at different rates throughout the learning process (ibid, 2012: 166). In addition, when the knowledge imparted to learners is comprehensible and relevant, they are motivated and feel answerable for their own learning (Abdi, Laei & Ahmadyan, 2013: 283). And if students participate more frequently, they may acquire more knowledge as they understand the material in a more complex way.

Rahman et al. (2011: 84-86) declare that good teaching is defined by good teaching methods. They suggest that teachers should know which strategies are available and choose those that suit both the content and the specific needs of their students. Rahman et al. (2011), moreover, claim

that no one single method can work with all kinds of learners or all instructional objectives. They contend that teaching should be dealt with in various manners to promote learning, considering that teaching techniques present individual peculiarities and so may need to complement each other (ibid, 2011: 90). Schroeder et al. (2007: 1439) also maintain that no one strategy is as powerful as combined strategies to bring about effective learning. In the same vein, Ganyaupfu (2013) proposes that teachers should be familiar with diverse strategies and know which ones best suit the particular learning situations that predominate in their classrooms.

Thomas and Green (2015) also state that teachers have to identify the instructional needs of their students, then adjust the appropriate strategies with the assessed needs and so engage students in their own learning. They furthermore believe that teachers' knowledge and understanding of the academic levels and prior knowledge of their students is very crucial in determining the most appropriate strategies for their students. They presume that these strategies will help produce the expected learning outcomes. Similarly, Onweh and Akpan (2014: 81) assert that students learn better when the right teaching methods are utilised, so teachers should employ a variety of teaching strategies to address individual learners' interests and needs and to meet the objectives of the curriculum.

Khurshid and Ansari (2012: 7) advocate modern teaching methods that can provide a student-centred learning environment and make the learning process interesting and understandable to the learners. They assume that innovative teaching strategies outperform traditional classroom teaching and bring about better results. Ganyaupfu (2013) also states that it is student-centred learning environments that can generate positive learning outcomes. Consequently, in-service courses should be planned to inform teachers of new teaching strategies and train them to use them effectively so as to enhance students' academic achievement (Khazaei, Bayani & Haji-Yar, 2015).

It is, thus, important that teachers be cognisant of modern teaching strategies that may foster learning in their classrooms. Teachers should also be aware that utilisation of one single teaching strategy cannot facilitate learning as it may work with some learners or specific lessons while failing with others. Students' individual needs as well as the types of content to be learnt require that a variety of teaching strategies be employed. Teachers should, therefore, attempt a variety of

modern teaching strategies and select the ones that are suitable to the particular learning situations in their classrooms so as to address these requirements. In the case of English classrooms in this study, the chosen methods should be those that favour student-centred learning environments and that prioritise peer interaction and collaboration, as well as interaction between teachers and students.

Considering the lack of English proficiency that generally characterises Rwandan students, English teachers need to be regularly trained in how to select and use appropriate teaching strategies that may facilitate the development of learners' competence in English. However, I remain sceptical as to the efficiency of such training if it is given to teachers who are under proficient in this language, as is the case with many Rwandan teachers.

The following section discusses the positive role instructional materials may also play in the development of students' English competence and achievement of academic success.

2.11 Impact of instructional materials on academic performance

Akpan and Okoli (2017: 247) define instructional materials as "those things that a teacher or the learner uses in the course of teaching/learning to make learning simple, easy to understand, aid retention and recall whenever it is necessary". They maintain that instructional materials provide comprehensible sources of information so help students to expand their learning experience through a wide range of learning activities and subsequently foster their academic performance. Akpan and Okoli (2017) and Olayinka (2016) classify instructional materials in three main categories depending on the sensory organs to be utilised. These are audio, visual and audio-visual instructional materials. Audio instructional materials are those that solicit the auditory sense like the radio and audio-tapes. Visual instructional materials require the use of the sense of sight such as pictures, prints, real objects, etc. Audio-visual instructional materials need the use of both auditory and visual senses. These can be films, television, audio-visual tapes, CDs, etc. The different types of instructional materials should be regularly used in the classroom as they have proved to greatly contribute to helping the students understand what they are taught and, hence, to enhancing academic performance.

Gee (2012) proposes the use of digital media (e.g. television, computers, mobile telephones, video games, etc.) to enhance learning. He states that, in the same way as books, digital media may channel content and can be conducive to literacy development. In a similar vein, Cleveland-Innes and Wilton (2018) and Huang, Ma, and Zhang (2008) advocate blended learning wherein the use of diverse educational technology may cater for individual students' learning needs. Gee asserts that through some digital media a person can read what other people have written or write things for others to read. He continues to say that digital media also allow people to engage in interactions. Taking into account that digital media particularly attracts the youth, Gee suggests that they should be regularly used in the classroom to convey content and to engage learners in peer interactions. As students would be dealing with things that they like, learning may easily be stimulated.

Yara and Otieno (2010: 126) contend that handy instructional material reinforces the effectiveness of schools, as these are fundamental assets that may bring about academic success. They maintain that instructional materials and infrastructure such as classrooms, adequate textbooks, teaching aids (e.g. chalk, board, etc) and laboratories are factors that affect students' academic performance. Yara and Otieno hold the view that when these resources are accessible to schools, learning is strengthened; otherwise, learning risks not taking place. Adebule and Ayoola (2016: 2) also claim that the use of instructional materials allows students to learn more and retain better what they have been taught. They reveal that students' interest is fostered and supported as they are not learning in abstract and they can discover themselves and their abilities. In their study in secondary schools in Nigeria, Abedule and Ayoola (2016) note that students who had been exposed to instructional materials performed much better than their counterparts who had been taught without instructional materials.

Olayinka (2016: 32) also argues that instructional materials are important tools for the teaching and learning of school subjects as they promote teachers' efficiency and learners' academic performance. He goes on to say that teaching and learning materials make learning more attractive, pragmatic, and natural. This simply means that relevant instructional materials can boost learning since they rouse, induce and at the same time capture students' attention during the instruction process (Ogaga, Igori & Egbodo, 2016: 33859). Ogaga et al. explain that people recall what they have seen, touched and even played with. They assume that instruction devoid

of instructional materials leads to learners' poor academic performance. In a similar vein, Okongo et al. (2015: 132) articulate that a lack or inadequacy of instructional materials negatively affects academic performance.

Akpan and Okoli (2017), Ogaga et al. (2016), Olayinka (2016) and Yara and Otieno (2010) propose that teachers improvise whenever instructional materials are not available. Akpan and Okoli even advise that an instructional material bank should be made available for the teacher to access easily. Akpan and Okoli, Ogaga et al. and Yara and Otieno also recommend governments to increase their financial and material support to schools so as to enable the latter to equip themselves in adequate learning and teaching materials such as textbooks, boards, chalk, and laboratory equipments. These scholars also believe that concerted efforts between parents, the school and the government are required to make instructional materials available for students to achieve academically. Abedule and Ayoola (2016: 4) suggest that regular supervision to improve effective use of instructional materials and resources is also necessary.

However, Akpan and Okoli (2017: 248) state that the adequacy of instructional materials alone cannot be advantageous to the students. They specify that the instructional materials have to be used effectively to attain the targeted goal. Ogaga et al. (2016) also claim that learners will not benefit from instructional materials if the teacher ignores how to handle them. Hence, they advocate that workshops, conferences and seminars should be organised to train teachers on how to employ them.

The positive role that instructional materials seem to play in the learning process cannot be over emphasised. Apart from rendering learning more interesting, they also allow for more active interactions among students and between students and their teacher, thus, enhancing acquisition of academic knowledge. However, schools in rural areas in Rwanda are disadvantaged in terms of instructional materials. This situation entails that students in these schools are denied the benefits gained from using these valuable tools. And making reference to Akpan and Okoli's (2017) and Olayinka's (2016) three categories of instructional materials (visual, audio and audio-visual), it seems implausible that rural schools in Rwanda would own all of these types.

As far as learning English, the medium of instruction in Rwanda, is concerned, textbooks may be available even though one may not guarantee their relevance to the academic needs of the

subjects in this study. I also suppose that some minimum requirements such as owning chalk and boards are fulfilled by the schools. Nevertheless, I do not believe that they possess these other materials required in the teaching and learning of English such as radios, audio tapes, CDs, television and video tapes and laboratory equipments. If this were the case, all educational shareholders should work at providing these rural schools with relevant learning and teaching materials and infrastructure to give students opportunities to acquire the necessary English skills for the promotion of quality education. Moreover, if some instructional materials were available at these schools, teachers would need to be trained to know how to effectively use them. But, as parents in the rural areas are illiterate and poor, I do not suppose they can play much of a role in assisting schools to acquire instructional materials.

2.12 Summary

In this chapter, I have highlighted the difficulties that learners encounter in their studies when the medium of instruction is not their home language, but an additional language. I discussed the relevance of L1 CALP in the development of L2 CALP. Then, I proposed theories of second language learning that are pertinent to the particular case of Rwanda where English is the language of instruction from Primary 4. After that, I discussed the role of comprehensible input in enhancing the production of meaningful output and subsequently fostering language proficiency. Then, I dealt with translanguaging, a kind of bilingual practice, which, if well implemented, may promote L2 acquisition whilst at the same time strengthening L1 skills. Next, I debated on how teaching strategies can affect students' school success. Finally, I showed the beneficial impact that instructional material can have on academic performance.

The following chapter deals with the research methodology employed in this study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the current study's design and the procedures followed while conducting the research. It is divided into the following sections:

- Basic design of study,
- Participants and settings,
- Combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches,
- Data collection methods,
- Reliability and validity,
- Ethical considerations,
- Limitations of the study.

3.2 Basic design of study

De Vos et al. (2002: 165) define research design as "the plan, recipe or blueprint for the investigation, and as such provides a guideline according to which a selection can be made of which data collection method(s) will be most appropriate to the researcher's goal and to the selected design." For Bhattacherjee (2012: 350), "research design is a blueprint for empirical research aimed at answering specific questions or testing specific hypotheses, and must specify … the data collection process, the instrument development process and the sampling process." Yin (2003: 21) maintains that design is "a plan that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analyzing, and interpreting the data".

Yin (2003) holds that three conditions must be considered to decide which design is appropriate to one's research study. These are the nature of questions asked, the degree to which the researcher can regulate real behavioural phenomena, and the range of emphasis on present versus

past happenings. According to Yin, case study is generally preferred to other designs in carrying out social science studies such as "experiments, surveys, histories, and the analysis of archival information", when the questions "how" or "why" are being put. He claims that case study is also more appropriate when the investigator is interested in contemporary events and when she has very little, if not any, control over the relevant behaviours.

I believe the present study fulfills Yin's three conditions, hence the choice of a case study as the best appropriate design to collect and analyse the research data. Actually, this study's initial and main goal consisted of exploring and explaining how English, the language of instruction in Rwanda, affected the academic performance of *Sixth Form* students in 12 YBE schools of the Gisagara District. However, after the preliminary visits to the concerned schools aimed at establishing contact, I was shocked to learn from the school authorities that English was no longer taught at advanced level (from the Fourth Form to the Sixth Form) as it used to be in all secondary schools. The only language taught was Kinyarwanda. They explained that the Rwandan Ministry of Education had given them the choice to teach either English or Kinyarwanda, along with content subjects. All three schools had opted for Kinyarwanda. This signified that students stopped studying English altogether after the Third Form and would probably only study English again much later in first year and second year at university, if they were admitted. I enquired into other 12 YBE schools of the Gisagara District to know whether they taught English so that I could conduct my study there but was informed they too did not.

This situation had wider implications in that the students at these schools did therefore not have the opportunity of strengthening their skills in English, the language in which all content subjects were taught. The only alternative left to me, thus, was asking the directors at the same schools to let me conduct my study in the Third Forms of ordinary level, the last year of secondary school during which they would be exposed to English. I found it irrelevant to carry out the investigation elsewhere in the country simply because the characteristics that had motivated me to choose Gisagara were unique to this district as highlighted below in the section on participant selection. Despite this inconvenience, nevertheless, the aim of my study was still valid and I did not think the findings would be affected in any way by this change in participants. I wanted to know what role English as language of instruction had on the quality of education in Rwanda and believed carrying out an investigation into *Third Form* classes would equally generate

appropriate responses to my query. In addition, these students were the ones preparing to sit for national examinations, performance of which would determine their being promoted to upper level or not.

The study also focused on a phenomenon that was happening at the time of the research, not on an event that had taken place in an earlier past, and was conducted in English classrooms, the natural setting in which the phenomenon was occurring. Finally, I could not interact with the research subjects as I wished, rather, I had to adapt to the situation and work under the conditions imposed by the schools. In fact, I had to seek permission and assent from the research participants before I conducted the study and then abide by agreed terms and conditions.

However, there is underlying uneasiness among educational researchers to reach common agreement as to what a case study is considering the numerous definitions that have been given to this research design. For example, Yin (2003: 13) defines case study research design as an enquiry founded on different scientific evidence that explores current events occurring in their natural settings when the limits between events and settings are not obviously apparent. Qi (2009: 21) contends that case study focuses on providing a thorough investigation of certain phenomena or situations as well as their mutual interconnections. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:79), case study aims at picturing, analysing and interpreting the typical features of some people and contexts by means of stories at hand and at depicting true facts.

A distinguishing characteristic of case studies resides in the fact that they use individual cases to generalise about the wider population (Griffiths, 2004). "The case study's focus is to dig out the characteristics of a particular entity and its key distinguishable attributes include focus on a single unit, in-depth description of a phenomenon, anchored on real live scenarios and uses multiple data collection methods" (Njie & Asimiran, 2014: 36). For Bhattacherjee (2012: 93), "case research can help derive richer, more contextualized and more authentic interpretation of the phenomenon of interest than most other research methods by virtue of its ability to capture a rich array of contextual data".

Echoing Yin, Zainal (2007: 1) argues that case study design enables an investigator to closely explore the data obtainable in a particular context. She goes on to say that in their true nature, case studies explore current events that occur in real life by analysing carefully some phenomena

in their contexts as well as the relationships between them. Crowe et al. (2011) state that case study research is specifically helpful when the researcher intends to gain deep understanding of an occurrence that is taking place in its normal environment. As for Bennett and Elman (2006), they contend that a case study furnishes better opportunity to apprehend the true nature of the subject being researched.

Adelman, Jenkins and Kemmis (1980) define a case study as the study of an instance in action. They explain that a researcher chooses an instance from the group of things she is exploring and enquires to see how this instance behaves in the context. They also propose two ways in which case study research can be introduced. In the first, a hypothesis is suggested and an instance taken from that class is chosen and then studied. In the second way, a case is chosen and studied not because of its connection with a class but for its individual qualifications. It is Adelman et al.'s second way of processing that suited the purpose of the current study considering the uniqueness of the schools where the investigation was carried out.

Adelman et al continue to say that in both approaches, the case will either be a bounded system or a single instance. They explain that a single system can be an individual teacher or classroom while a bounded system is larger and is, for example, a school district. The district schools I inquired into fit into Adelman et al' s bounded system well, as they were larger sites than single classrooms. In addition, the fact that I (1) studied the behaviour of 9 YBE students in particular settings, (2) identified the challenges they might encounter while learning through English, and (3) suggested ways to overcome them shows that all of these activities were interrelated and affected one another.

Nunan (1992) draws a distinction between what the experimenter or surveyor and the case study researcher's goals are. He affirms that the experimenter handles variables to determine their relationships and that the surveyor poses systematised questions of broad, typical samples of individuals. Nunan contends that the researcher in a case study especially examines the features of a specific entity, in this case Third Form classes in 9 YBE Gisagara schools. The primary goal of this study was also to observe the ways in which Third Form learners in 9 YBE schools learnt English and its effects on their performance in content subjects. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) declare that the objective behind such an observation is to examine thoroughly and to

scrutinise the strength of the numerous and varied phenomena that form the life cycle of the unit in order to determine generalisations about the wider population to which the unit belongs. Nunan (1992) also purports that an important issue about the case study is the degree to which the insights obtained through the research may be applied to other cases.

Nevertheless, Popper (2002) ascertains that we cannot attain a universal truth by simply investigating a single case. He proposes his falsification principle stating that whereas true facts cannot indisputably be corroborated through induction, an affirmation can actually be distorted through providing evidence of one inconveniencing example. Consequently, all hypotheses ought to be conceived in a manner, which allows them to be falsified through a sole discomforting instance. Popper implies that we cannot assert that the truth we have discovered while investigating one case would be the same truth if similar cases were explored.

Nonetheless, this research was only interested in exploring and understanding the particular case of Third Form students in 9 YBE schools in the Gisagara District, not in what could be generalised. As Qi (2009: 22) points out, the objective of case studies does not consist of describing the universe but rather of depicting the individual situation or event. I was, therefore, aware that the insights gained from investigating these schools could not be labelled as universal truths, but that they might reflect a general tendency of knowledge that would be acquired from inquiring into other sites with similar characteristics.

Yin (2003) distinguishes three types of case studies: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. He explains that exploratory case study enquires into an issue that may be intriguing to the investigator. De Vos et al. (2002:109) add that "exploratory research is conducted to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or individual". They go on to say that this type of research allows the researcher to be familiar with the investigated phenomenon and to conceive an overall image of the situation. Descriptive case study aims to faithfully describe the phenomenon as it happens (De Vos et. al., 2002; Yin, 2003). In Yin's view, explanatory case study surveys the research data outwardly and inwardly so as to interpret the phenomena in them. According to De Vos et al., explanatory studies try to check on predictions and theories and seek to detect the cause-and-effect relationship that may exist between variables. According to Neuman (2014: 38-40), exploratory research is used when the subject is new, unknown or

slightly known and no researcher has investigated it yet, and descriptive research portrays a specific situation whereas an explanatory study is interested in causes and reasons. In the same vein, Bhattacherjee (2012) claims that conditional upon the investigator's motive, research can be exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. He states that:

> Exploratory research is often conducted in new areas of inquiry, where the goals of the research are: (1) to scope out the magnitude of extent of a particular phenomenon, problem, or behavior, (2) to generate some ideas about that phenomenon, or (3) to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study regarding that phenomenon…. Descriptive research is directed at making careful observations and detailed documentation of a phenomenon of interest. Explanatory research seeks explanations of observed phenomena, problems, or behaviors. …Explanatory research seeks answers to why and how types of questions. It attempts to connect the dots in research, by identifying the causal factors and outcomes of the target phenomenon (Bhattacherjee, 2012: 5-6).

Referring to the descriptions of the types of case studies provided above, the present study was both exploratory and explanatory since it explored and tried to understand the phenomenon under study. In fact, it used various data collection methods to gather all relevant information that enabled the researcher to gain a deep understanding of the situation prevailing in the selected schools as well as the causal link between the variables language of instruction and students' academic performance. Actually, I expected to gain information on how English, the medium of instruction, affected the academic performance of Third Form students in 9 YBE schools in Rwanda; hence, on the quality of education in general.

Yin (2003) also claims that the choice of a particular type of case study design will be influenced by the purpose of the study. He draws the distinction between what he calls multiple-case study (or collective-case study) and single-case study. Multiple-case study suggests that different cases are jointly studied to explore a happening. Single-case study means that only one single case is studied to investigate a phenomenon. Yin adds that multiple case-design sometimes appeals to the researcher because it may have advantages over single-case design. He explains that multiple-case study allows the investigator to identify discrepancies inside cases and between cases, the purpose being a replication of findings across cases. "Several cases are chosen because it is believed that understanding them will lead to better understanding, and perhaps better theorizing, about a still larger collection of cases" (Stake, 1995: 446). Stake suggests that, because comparisons will be made, the cases have to be selected cautiously to allow the

investigator to foretell comparable findings throughout cases or foresee diverging findings founded on hypotheses.

Zainal (2007: 2) also points out that considering the criticism on case study as a non-rigourous research instrument, researchers must be careful while designing case studies. She proposes that it is the nature of the study to be conducted that will determine whether the researcher should use a single-case study or multiple-case study. She explains that, however, the single-case design should be embraced if other cases are not accessible to be replicated. She recognises, nevertheless, that the single-case design presents disadvantages, as it cannot generalise conclusions, particularly when the phenomena are scarce. "Single case designs are vulnerable if only because you will have put all your eggs in one basket" (Yin, 2003: 53). Yin maintains that multiple-case study may be used to investigate real-world phenomena which exhibit various and solid facts obtained via replicating other cases rather than through mere deduction. "Researchers must consider if it is prudent to conduct a single case study or if a better understanding of the phenomenon will be gained through conducting a multiple case study" (Baxter & Jack, 2008: 549).

Crowe et al. (2011) maintain that in a multiple or collective case study the researcher examines various cases concurrently or systematically to try to reach ample understanding of a given phenomenon. Bhattacherjee (2012: 94) affirms that multiple-case design is indicated for enabling generalisation and generating various interpretations of a phenomenon. This will offer the researcher "the possibility of direct replication" (Yin, 2003: 53). Yin states that if the investigator manages to reach similar conclusions for the various cases under varied circumstances, they will have greatly extended the generalisability of the findings.

This study adopted a single case-study design because, even though the researcher collected various data from three different classes in three different schools, she was studying one specific phenomenon from the same environment (Heale & Twycross, 2017). In fact, all three schools were located in the same poorest district in the country, the rural Gisagara District. The results obtained could not, however, be tagged as generalisable but could be replicable in other settings sharing the same characteristics.

3.2.1 Weakness in the case study design

Yin (2003) claims that case studies have for long been denigrated and considered unfit to be used as forms of inquiry in the same way as experiments or surveys. He points out some of the concerns raised by those who view case studies as not appropriate strategies for conducting research. One of the concerns is that case study research lacks rigour. "Too many times, the case study investigator has been sloppy, has not followed systematic procedures, or has allowed equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of the findings and conclusions" (Yin, 2003: 10).

A second worry is that case studies do not offer sufficient basis for scientific generalisation. Bhattacherjee (2012: 40) also deplores the fact that the researcher lacks control, which may constitute an obstacle to proving causality, and that the findings obtained from one site cannot be generalised to other case sites. Yin, nevertheless, purports that the same can be said of one single experiment as its findings cannot be generalised either. He explicates that scientific facts must be based on multiple experiments that have reproduced the same phenomenon under different conditions. Bhattacherjee (2012: 40) proposes that "generalizability can be improved by replicating and comparing the analysis in other case sites in a multiple case design". The other concern is that case studies take too long, as they can last months or even years, and provide numerous data that may be difficult to analyse and interpret.

Griffiths (2004) contends that the weakness of case studies resides in its level of subjectivity and the difficulty to guarantee reliability and validity. Crowe et al. (2011: 7) denounce the case study limitations in that the size of data collection, analysis and interpretation, and time restrictions imposed on the researcher can negatively affect the depth of data analysis that is possible within the accessible resources.

However, the fact that more and more contemporary researchers have adopted case study is enough evidence that this design has proven to be strong and reliable. "The strength of case study research method is its ability to discover a wide variety of social, cultural, and political factors potentially related to the phenomenon of interest that may not be known in advance" (Bhattacherjee, 2012: 40). Neuman (2014) also recognises the power of case study research. He

declares that "case-study research clarifies our thinking and allows us to link abstract ideas in specific ways with the concrete specifics of cases we observe in detail. It also enables us to calibrate or adjust the measures of our abstract concepts to actual lived experiences and widely accepted standards of evidence" (Newman, 2014: 42). Despite all the criticism leveled at case study, this research design possesses undeniable strength as it allows direct and in-depth observation of the researched phenomenon within its natural setting. The present study was also carried out within the context in which the research phenomenon was occurring, i.e., within the school, and the researcher was in direct contact with the research subjects, which enabled her to obtain relevant responses to her research questions.

3.3 Participants and settings

The purposive sample determination was used to select the participants. This kind of sample is thoroughly founded on the discernment of the investigator who estimates that the selected sample shares common features with the research population (De Vos et al, 2003). Patton and Cochran (2002: 9) contend that research participants are chosen because they are expected to produce helpful data for the study. Edwards and Holland (2013: 45) affirm that "seeing the participant in context (in their home, their classroom, their workplace), surrounded by the material culture of their created space, and possibly interacting in that space, offers a wealth of information." The participants and settings were, therefore, chosen because of the researcher's assumption that schools situated in poor and rural areas were disadvantaged in comparison to their counterpart schools established in urban areas, thus, they required much more attention. Indeed, the schools that were inquired into are situated in a district, Gisagara, considered to be the poorest district in the country. This suggests that these schools likely suffered from a lack of learning materials and infrastructure, which would hinder the learning of English and hence students' performance in content subjects. In addition, exposure to English was even more limited in rural areas such as Gisagara.

The Gisagara District comprises 13 sectors but only three of them will be dealt with in our study. These were labelled Sector 1, Sector 2, and Sector 3. The selection of Gisagara was influenced

by two peculiar characteristics to the district: (1) Gisagara is the poorest district in Rwanda and (2) secondary education attendance is the lowest in the country.

After preliminary visits to the selected schools, I noticed that the same conditions outlined in the study by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (2012) still prevailed at the time when the present study was conducted. Indeed, many people still lived in poor conditions and only a few had electricity in their homes. This implied that most 9 YBE students living in this district were unable to revise their lessons or do take-home assignments after they returned home from school in the evening because of lack of electric power.

3.3.1 Participant selection

As mentioned above, this study was conducted in the Gisagara District, Southern Province. The choice of Gisagara was based on the "Rwanda Third Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey – EICV3" (Enquête Intégrale sur les Conditions de Vie des Ménages, 2010/2011) specifying that this was the poorest district in the country. Presently, no further study has contradicted this reality. Another study by the NISR (2015) discloses that net and gross secondary school attendance rates in Gisagara District were below average in 2012 and that only 30% of eligible children were attending school. This means that more than half of Gisagara children who should have been following their secondary education were not attending school. This status of Gisagara, of both being the poorest district in the country and having the lowest rate of children going to school, motivated me to conduct the present investigation.

The three sectors were selected among others for their particularities. Indeed, according to this survey of the NISR dating 2015, Sector 1 totalled the largest number of children that had never attended school (10.7%), Sector 2 had the least significant drop out (14.2%), while Sector 3 had the highest drop out of students in secondary school (27.7 %) in the whole District of Gisagara. Education in these sectors was at risk and I wanted to explore the role that English as language of instruction played in adding to this risk.

Every sector in Rwanda shelters one 9 YBE school, which makes three schools (School 1, School 2, and School 3) that were investigated. Indeed, the sampling selected the Third Form in each of the three schools: School 1 in Sector 1, School 2 in sector 2, and School 3 in Sector 3.

Each class was visited three times, i.e., once in May 2018, another time in June 2018, and the last time in July 2018. Even though the second term begins in mid April, I did not wish to include this month as it is the period when Rwandans commemorate the 1994 genocide against the Tutsis and when many people are emotionally destabilised. I felt 9 YBE schools in the above-mentioned sites deserved a thorough investigation and that insights gained would contribute to bringing about helpful recommendations.

School 1 was built and is managed by the Rwandan Catholic Church. It is also partly sponsored by the Rwandan government. The school buildings are still in a good state as they were constructed only in 2009 when 9 YBE schools were created. They are built of baked bricks and their roofs are covered with blue sheet metals. At the time of the study, the whole school comprised 7 classrooms with 208 students who were all day students. There were 26 students in the Third Form. School 1 also had a small library with very few English books. It was the little money granted by the government that the school utilised to feed the students at lunch, and only those with special permission could go and eat at home. The people in this sector seemed to live in extreme poverty. In fact, on my way to the school and while I was leaving, I could see children walking around barefoot and wearing very dirty clothes. The adult people I met were not tidy either. Most people lived in small mud houses covered with old tiles. Only a few could afford mud houses plastered in cement. The roads were in a bad state and although School 1 enjoyed having electricity, the neighbourhood still lacked this valuable source of energy.

School 2 is also a school belonging to the Catholic Church and receives some government sponsorship. The buildings are made of baked bricks and the roofs are covered with blue sheet metals. This school had 370 students, 14 classrooms and a poor and small library when I visited the place. There were morning and afternoon classes, too. The Third Form had 43 students that had been split into two classes of 22 and 21 students. I carried out my study in the bigger class of 22 students to have one additional student contributing to my research. All the students at this school were day students. Students whose parents made some financial contribution could have their lunch at the school while those who lived not far from school could eat at home. It was not voiced aloud but I guessed that students who failed to bring their financial contribution and could not eat at home at midday break returned to the afternoon classes with empty stomachs. I

wondered how these students could follow the afternoon sessions being so hungry. People in this sector lived in similar poor conditions as those in Sector 1.

Like School 1 and School 2, School 3 is managed by the Catholic Church and is partially sponsored by the government. The school had only 309 students and 10 classrooms at the time of my visit. There were 51 students in the Third Form that were put in two classes of 26 and 25 students. I again chose to conduct my study in the class with the bigger number, the one having 26 students. They were all day students too. Those who lived near the school went home to eat lunch and came back for the afternoon classes, others whose parents had paid some money could eat at school; unfortunately, some returned to class without having eaten anything. Sector 3 was far more developed than the two other sectors when I was conducting the study. Indeed, there were many beautiful modern houses that had been built and good roads and electricity could also be found almost everywhere.

When I began my study, I learnt from the English teachers at the three schools that there had not been any students' or teachers' books available for the Third Form in the first term. The teachers tried to devise their own teaching and learning materials that they considered to be relevant to the English curriculum and kept hoping that the Ministry of Education would soon provide the books. In the second term, however, each school was furnished with one teacher's guide and a few students' books of English (not more than six). Because of the insufficiency of English books, students had to share one book in groups of four or five while studying. After class, the teacher collected the books and returned them to the library. This compelled the English teachers to write exercises from the book on the board if he wanted the students to take them home as an assignment. Only one or two English monolingual dictionaries could be found in each of the three libraries. Bilingual dictionaries were non-existent.

Furthermore, although electricity was supplied at all schools, it was unfortunately not installed in the classrooms but in some offices only, which prevented teachers and students from using learning materials that required electric power like computers, projectors or radios. Considering also that students' homes were not furnished with light, this lack of electricity in the classrooms constituted another impediment especially for those who wished to revise their lessons or do their homework before they went back home in the evening. The libraries were also so poor that

they possessed almost no reading materials in English such as novels, short stories or fiction for the students to take home and read in their free time.

3.3.2 Seeking permission to conduct research

Before I conducted my study, I had to seek permission from the relevant authorities and consent from participants. I initially went to the three schools and met with the school directors. I introduced myself to them and explained that I was a lecturer of English at the University of Rwanda and was at the same time doing PhD research at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa. I told them that I was carrying out a study about the impact of the language of instruction on the quality of education in Rwanda. I added that I was especially interested in Sixth Form students as they were the ones preparing to enter university. I, therefore, said I wished to explore how students in MEG (Mathematics-Economics-Geography) section coped with English in their studies. I had chosen this section for the sake of uniformity as it could be found in all three schools. As explained previously, I was compelled to shift my interest from Sixth Form students to Third Form students, as the former did not have English as a subject. The directors said that they had no objection to my conducting the study at their schools. Prior to undertaking the research, I gave them an information sheet with a detailed explanation of what the study was about, a recommendation letter from the Principal of the College of Arts and Social Sciences of the University of Rwanda where I work, as well as a letter seeking the school director's permission. Before I left, I assured each of the directors that I would donate a summarised copy of the research findings once I had completed my thesis.

Secondly, I contacted the English language teachers at the three schools. I also introduced myself to them and explained the reason behind my visit. I specified that the data collection methods would consist of classroom observations, interviews with students and interviews with teachers, questionnaires to students and students' exam results in English and content subjects. I also clarified that I would visit each school three times: the first time in May, the second in June and the third and last in July. All three teachers agreed to let me carry out the study in their classes. The next time I went to the schools, I presented the teachers with information sheets, letters seeking their permission and consent forms, which they all signed.

Thirdly, I talked to the concerned students. I again introduced myself and explained to them that I would come and spend some time in their English classes to see how they coped with English, the language of instruction. I told them that the findings from my study would contribute to helping Rwandan students, which included them, to improve their English skills and, thus, to perform academically as they would then be learning in a language they understood well. I added that I would also conduct interviews with some of their classmates who would be selected randomly and questionnaires would be answered by students entirely on a voluntary basis. In general, the students were enthusiastic and before I left, I promised I would bring them consent forms that would be filled in and signed by only those who were interested in taking part in the study. The following time, I provided information sheets and distributed the consent forms. Surprisingly, all of the students signed the forms. I also supplied students who were not eighteen yet with letters requesting their parents' permission to involve their children in the present study.

Upon obtaining permission from the school directors, consent from the English teachers and students and permission from parents, I commenced my study. The following section discusses the approaches that were used to conduct this research.

3.4 Qualitative and quantitative research

Various descriptions of quantitative and qualitative approaches have been provided. For example, Leppink (2017: 100) asserts that "quantitative research typically concerns numerical data, while qualitative research usually deals with words and only minimally with numbers". De Vos et al. (2002) advance the following definition:

> The quantitative paradigm is based on positivism, which takes scientific explanation to be nomothetic (i.e. based on universal laws). Its aims are to measure the social world objectively, to test hypotheses and to predict and control human behaviour…. In contrast, the qualitative paradigm stems from an antipositivistic, interpretative approach, is ideographic and thus holistic in nature, and aims mainly to understand social life and the meaning that people attach to everyday life (De Vos et al, 2002: 79).

De Vos et al. indicate that quantitative research is interested in controlled measurement whereas qualitative research deals with observing and trying to understand social phenomena. Neuman (2014: 167) contends that "in a quantitative study, the emphasis is on precisely measuring variables and test hypotheses. In a qualitative study, the emphasis is on conducting detailed

examination of specific cases that arise in the natural flow of social life." As for Atieno (2009), the essence of a qualitative research paradigm resides in describing and interpreting social phenomena while quantitative research is based on experiments (see also Patton & Cochran, 2002; Williams, 2007). Hancock, Windridge and Ockleford (2007: 7) explain that "the rigour involved in a well-designed research and executed experiment is one of the strengths of quantitative research just as an alternative approach which engages with context is one of the strengths of qualitative methodology."

According to the objective of the study, some researchers may opt for a qualitative research method to collect and analyse data, some others the quantitative research method while others may prefer combining both approaches. The choice of the method to utilise should be influenced by the research questions (Leppink, 2017: 100). De Vos et al. (2002) and Patton and Cochran (2002) suggest that the researcher should know the differences between the two paradigms, their strengths and weaknesses and thus choose the one deemed to be relevant to her study or else use what is known as "triangulation" which consists of combining the two approaches in one study. As Williams (2007: 65) puts it, the researcher uses the quantitative research approach to answer questions needing data expressed in numbers, the qualitative approach for research questions necessitating data in words, and triangulation of approaches to respond to questions requiring data in both numbers and words. Nevertheless, Neuman (2014) maintains that, even though discrepancies between qualitative and quantitative research exist, these two methods overlap. De Vos et al. (2002) also assert that qualitative and quantitative research methods are inseparable. Neuman then proposes that, as both qualitative and quantitative approaches have strengths and limitations, the researcher should mix them so as to build on their complementary strengths. All-Muallem et al. (2016), Bryman (2006), Chiang-Hanisko et al. (2016), Cresswell (2009), Driscoll et al. (2007), Hewlett and Brown (2018), Peersman (2014), Sandelowski (2000), Turpin, Arsano and Finlayson (2015) and Van Griensven, Moore and Hall (2014) also claim that a combined qualitative and quantitative research approach provides more enriched data.

Neuman (2014: 166) purports that four types of triangulation are possible: (1) Triangulation of measure that requires various measures of the same phenomena; (2) triangulation of observers that employs different researchers and so avoids limitations that may exist because only one researcher is conducting the study; (3) triangulation of theory that utilises multiple theories in

one study; and (4) triangulation of method that combines qualitative and quantitative research approaches to carry out the same study. Yeasmin and Rahman (2012: 156) also contend that,

> In the social sciences, triangulation refers to the combination of two or more theories, data sources, methods or investigators in one study of a single phenomenon to converge on a single construct, and can be employed in both qualitative (validation) and quantitative (inquiry) studies.

This study utilised triangulation of methods that combined qualitative and quantitative approaches so that "the deficiencies of any one method could be overcome by combining methods and thus capitalizing on their individual strengths" (Yeasmin & Rahman, 2012: 155). Williams (2007: 70) adds that if the researcher aims to gain deep understanding of a phenomenon, she might select a small purposive sample, which characterises qualitative research; and then use statistics to quantify the results, which is typical of quantitative research, and so draw on the strengths of both approaches. "The quantitative strand can provide statistical power and generalizability while the qualitative element provides meaning, content and depth" (Griensven et al., 2014: 368).

Griensven et al. (2014) claim that, in research utilising both approaches, the quantitative and the qualitative elements can be used sequentially or concurrently. They explain that how the distinct stages of a study are integrated will depend on the study's objectives and research questions. This means that the quantitative approach can precede the qualitative approach or vice versa, or both approaches can be used at the same time. The current study used a parallel research scheme in which qualitative and quantitative methods were conducted concurrently.

Despite the advantages gained by combining both types of research, Driscoll et al. (2007), Griensven et al. (2014), and Neuman (2014) acknowledge that this is no easy task as, by doing so, the research becomes more complex and requires much more time and money, constraints which may cause the researcher not to carry out her study efficiently. However, the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches and triangulation of methods in this research did not cause any great limitations because, according to the nature of the study, the selected sample was small. Instead, it enabled the researcher to obtain enriched data.

The following section deals with the research methods that were used to collect the data.

3.5 Methods of data collection

Nomlomo (2007: 173) indicates that "data collection refers to the process of gathering information related to your research which involves identifying sources of data and selecting methods". It is, thus, essential that the methods for data collection and analysis be well chosen and well implemented in order to obtain the information sought by the researcher (Peersman, 2014). Bhattacherjee (2012), Gill et al. (2008) and Hox and Boeije (2005) add that social science researchers need to use different data collection strategies to gather as much information as required to gain broad insight into the event or issue being researched. Driscoll (2007: 20) contends that "concurrent mixed method data collection strategies have been employed to validate one form of data with the other form, to transform the data for comparison, or to address different types of questions." These techniques can be interviews, observations, questionnaires, focus groups, and textual or visual analysis.

In this study, the researcher resorted to different data collection methods to have a deep understanding of how English, the language of instruction in Rwanda, affected the academic performance of Third Form learners in 9 YBE classes and the quality of education in general. Hence, classroom observations were conducted to see which teaching and learning strategies were used to promote the learning of English, and how proficient the students were in this target language. Interviews with English teachers and their students, along with questionnaires for students were also carried out so as to comprehend how both teachers and students perceived the impact of using English to teach and learn content subjects. Then analysis of students' English exam results and content subject exam results were conducted to see how students performed and how these results correlated.

The section below discusses classroom observation as one of the multiple data collection methods that were employed in this study.

3.5.1 Classroom observations

Driscoll (2011) and Kawulich (2005) claim that many researchers nowadays have recourse to observation as a fundamental research technique for collecting primary data, and that this method

can be applied to practically any research topic. De Vos et al. (2002: 280) describe observation as "a qualitative research procedure that studies the natural and everyday setup in a particular community or situation." Hancock et al. (2007: 18) maintain that observation is a data collection technique that enables the investigator to understand the behaviour of the research subjects.

Patton and Cochran (2002: 20) assert that "to understand fully the complexities of many situations, direct participation, and observation of, the phenomenon of interest may be the best research method." They go on to say that data collected through observations permit researchers to gain awareness of the differences existing between what research subjects affirm they do and what they do in reality and may also aid the researcher to disclose aspects of participants' behaviour that they themselves might not be conscious of. Hancock et al. (2007) also maintain that observations may help reveal whether information provided by the participants while dealing with the researcher directly is genuine or not. They add that observations may also furnish the researcher with useful information about the setting where the study will be carried out.

Driscoll (2011: 160) distinguishes between two types of observations, namely participant observation and unobtrusive observation. He describes participant observations as observations wherein the researcher engages in interactions with respondents to some extent and becomes a member of the community, and unobtrusive observations as those in which the researcher becomes a total observer and endeavours to take note of whatever is happening in the field. De Vos et al. (2012: 280), however, do not differentiate these two types of observation and use "participant observation" to signify one or the other. According to them, both types of observations require participation on the part of the researcher who must be in direct contact with the study subjects. De Vos et al., thus, purport that it is up to the researcher to decide how involved she will be depending on the objectives of her study. They explain that the researcher may either choose to be a total observer or total participant.

I chose to be an observer rather than a participant in this study. I wanted to explore not only how students coped with English but also what strategies English teachers used to enable their students deal with their studies in English. "By only observing, especially in an unobtrusive manner, the researcher will achieve the most objective experience of the community" (De Vos et al., 2002: 286). "There is little doubt that classroom observation can be a valuable tool in giving

us a more comprehensive picture of what actually happens in class, and help attain a higher standard of teaching and more effective teaching methods" (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011: 461).

Some techniques of data collection have been proposed to the researcher while carrying out observations. These are field notes and machine-recorded data. De Vos et al. (2002), Hancock et al. (2007) and Neuman (2014) suggest that the researcher try to jot down everything she sees and hears during observations. They also recommend that the researcher writes the field notes every day after leaving the site as she risks forgetting if this is not done at once. However, Hancock et al. (2007: 18) warn the researcher to be aware of the limitations of this technique as she may deeply be involved in taking field notes and thus miss out on things that are relevant to the study. The researcher must, therefore, develop a strategy that will allow him to take the field notes well without missing anything happening during observations.

Machine-recorded data are data collection techniques that are used in observations as supplements to field notes. These can be videotapes, tape recorders or photos. Hancock et al. (2007) and Neuman (2014) contend that these machines record data, which are almost similar to what is taking place in the field, and which can be reviewed anytime the researcher wishes to. They add that, nevertheless, these instruments can be distracting and cause participants to feel uncomfortable, which may affect their behaviour. Therefore, it is the researcher's task to ensure that the research technique to be used will not cause the study's subjects to feel discomfort.

In this study, I took field notes and supplemented them with data that I recorded using my laptop. I tried my best to note down whatever was occurring in the classrooms so as not to miss out any relevant information. As De Vos et al. (2002: 285) put it "…the researcher is unlikely to know at the beginning of the study what might become important later on." In addition, I preferred to use the laptop to record the data because I could use it discreetly without the students even being conscious of the fact. De Vos et al. maintain that the research subjects may dislike being recorded and sometimes draw back from the study (De Vos et al.: 304). However, I had sought consent from the English teachers and the students before I recorded the data. I visited each of the three classes three times: one day in May, another day in June and the last day in July.

Apart from observations, I also carried out interviews. "Validity is stronger with the use of additional strategies used with observation, such as interviewing, document analysis, or surveys

and questionnaires" (Kawulich, 2005: 4). Alshenqeeti (2014: 43) also contends that collecting data through more than one technique will enable the investigator to gather valuable facts and valid research findings.

The following section talks about interviews as another type of research method that was used to collect data in the study.

3.5.2 Interviews

De Vos et al. (2002: 292) posit that qualitative research utilises interviews as the most prevailing way of collecting data. They claim that in interviews, the interviewer engages in interactions with interviewees to capture all information that is relevant to her study (see also Fox, 2006). For Gill et al. (2008: 292), research interviews aim to examine the opinions, practice, convictions and motives of research subjects in particular situations. They consider interviews as adequate methods for gaining thorough and detailed insight of societal events. Alshenqeeti (2014: 40) claims that interviews aim to increase knowledge of the phenomenon being explored. He explains that the face-to-face encounter will allow the interviewer to elucidate her questions whenever necessary and also ask for clarification any time the respondent's reply is not understandable, which can yield more relevant answers and, hence, more realistic data. Edwards and Holland (2013: 77) explicate that in qualitative interviewing the researcher should try to create a friendly environment that will stimulate respondents to disclose their opinions, perceptions and knowledge of the phenomenon under study. Cassel and Symon (2004: 11) also claim that good rapport between researcher and respondent should be established as they facilitate the interview process. Edwards and Holland go on to say that, however, the researcher should not develop deep relationships with research subjects for ethical considerations and for obtaining unbiased research findings.

Social science researchers distinguish between one-to-one or individual interviews and focus groups as data collection methods. In one-to-one interviews, the researcher engages in interactions with one research subject only. This type of interview is used when the researcher wants to get a detailed account of an individual experience in relation to the study phenomenon. Fox (2006: 8) declares that individual interviews are appropriate when the researcher expects

various responses from respondents and "when the topic to be discussed is sensitive, where a respondent may be unwilling to speak about some aspect of their experience in front of others, or where there is possibility that the story could contaminate other participants' stories".

Focus groups are interviews that are carried out in groups. Edwards and Holland (2013), Gill et al. (2008) and Harrell and Bradley (2009) describe a focus group as a small group that holds a discussion on a specific research topic in order to enable the researcher to attain total comprehension of phenomena occurring in a specific context. Fox (2006: 8) advances that focus groups are appropriate when the researcher needs a group story about the context or about some phenomenon. De Vos et al. (2002: 305) view focus groups as a way of gaining much more insight into what other people think of a given phenomenon. They explain that participants in the focus group should normally be people sharing some attributes that are relevant to the subject matter of the interview. They also add that in focus groups, the researcher should create an atmosphere such that the interviewees feel confident and engage fully in discussions. De Vos et al. purport that some individuals may disclose more information in focus groups than they would in one-to-one interviews. However, though focus groups may be appropriate in exploring complicated phenomena, they require lots of time and effort (Alshenqeeti, 2014: 40).

Interviews can also be structured, unstructured or semi-structured. Structured interviews are interviews wherein questions are determined in advance and which do not give interviewees room to expand upon their answers (Gill et al., 2008: 91). Edwards and Holland (2013: 2) state that, besides not being flexible, structured interviews consist of questions that are posed in the same order and in a similar way to all respondents. Alshenqeeti (2014) and Myers and Newman (2007) postulate that the main characteristic of structured interviews is that the interview questions are set in advance, are straightforward and call for direct replies. In addition, in structured interviews, the interviewer sets her questions in such a way that she can establish comparison between the interviewees' responses (Fox (2006: 5). Alshenqeeti hypothesises that these types of interviews do not accord the interviewer and interviewee enough flexibility to elaborate on the issue being investigated.

Unstructured interviews are those that do not demonstrate any structured questions and do not follow any structure (Fox, 2006; Gill et al., 2008). Besides, "unstructured interviews are

conducted without utilising any of the researcher's prior information, experience or opinion in a particular area" (De Vos et al., 2002: 298). Alshenqeeti (2014) and Edwards and Holland (2013) state that unstructured interviews are open-ended interviews that give both the researcher and respondent enough latitude in asking or answering interview questions. Gill et al. claim that these types of interviews are strenuous to conduct and require a large amount of time.

Semi-structured interviews provide guidance as to the scope of the study but at the same time give freedom to both the researcher and respondent to diverge a bit from the main questions in order to generate a great amount of information (Alshenqeeti, 2014; De Vos et al., 2002; Gill et al., 2008). "In a typical semi-structured interview the researcher has a list of questions or series of topics they want to cover in the interview, an interview guide, but there is flexibility in how and when the questions are put and how the interviewee can respond" (Edwards & Holland, 2013: 29). De Vos et al (2002) and Fox (2006) also state that semi-structured interviews use open-ended questions that allow the interviewer to provide more explanation of her questions for better comprehension and so enable interviewees to expand on their responses. Although semi-structured interviews offer the researcher rich information, it may not be easy to certify consistency of interviewees' responses, so comparing the respondents' replies for analysis purposes may prove problematical (Fox, 2006: 6).

Battacherjee (2012), De Vos et al. (2002) and Edwards and Holland (2013) recommend that interview data be recorded on tape or video not to miss out anything the respondent is saying and to allow the researcher to focus her attention on the way the interviewing process is occurring. They state, however, that this recording ought to take place only if the researcher has obtained approval from respondents. Battacherjee adds that the researcher should jot down her own notes of the interviewee's actions and reactions that the recorder cannot catch as well as her opinions on what is occurring. He again maintains that interviews have to be written down word-for-word on a daily basis for future analysis. De Vos et al. (2002: 304) also suggest that the researcher should write down her opinions of the interview as soon as it is completed lest she may forget some of the things that she has seen, heard, experienced and thought about during the interviewing process.

De Vos et al. (2002: 297) acknowledge that while gathering interview data, the researcher encounters challenges, some of which are creating mutual understanding with respondents, dealing with unexpected obstacles and handling the voluminous data collected. Alshenqeeti (2014) and Cassell and Symon (2004) echo De Vos et al. that preparing interviews, conducting them and analysing their data is a strenuous and time-consuming activity.

I chose to conduct one-to-one (or individual) semi-structured interviews with the study's subjects. Firstly, I chose individual interviews because I feared that if I used focus groups, most of the students would not express their thoughts and opinions aloud. In fact, Rwandans dislike commenting or criticising in the presence of people they do not know or trust, in case what they say would be reported to the person that was commented on or criticised. Therefore, I wanted the students to relax and tell me the whole truth about what they thought of the teaching and learning of English and how this language of instruction affected their school achievement. In addition, as some learners could be influenced by their classmates' answers, I believed individual interviews would allow them to be independent and so provide responses of their own.

Secondly, semi-structured interviews were used to set a guideline to be followed during the interview process so as not to deviate from the main topic, and to give opportunity to learners to freely elaborate on their responses and so provide deep research data. They were also intended to enable the interviewer to furnish more explanations of the questions whenever need arose and to probe for detailed answers.

Moreover, students were free to answer interview questions in either English or Kinyarwanda. Indeed, I had translated the questions that were initially set in English into Kinyarwanda for I assumed some students might feel more comfortable replying in their mother tongue. This would then solve the potential problem of English proficiency and ensure quality as well as thoroughness of data produced even though analysing this data in two languages may be challenging (Alshenqeeti, 2014: 42). All students suggested that the interviews be conducted in Kinyarwanda to enable them to fully understand the questions posed and to express their thoughts effectively.

I also carried out individual semi-structured interviews with English teachers. Because they taught at three different schools, the teaching and learning settings were unique; therefore, I

hoped to hear three distinct stories as the teachers were expected to narrate their individual experiences. The interviews with English teachers were conducted in English.

Concerning the selection of students that participated in interviews, I used simple random sampling in which research subjects had the same chance to participate in the study. As the number of students in each of the Third Form classrooms was on average 25, I chose every 4th student from the class list of which the names were arranged in alphabetical order. This meant that 6 students were interviewed in each class, and 18 students in all three classes. The interviews took place in the interviewees' respective classrooms because I believed they would feel more comfortable in their natural context of teaching and learning.

The next section focuses on the questionnaire, an additional data collection method used in the present study.

3.5.3 Questionnaires

"We use the term questionnaire to refer to documents that include a series of open and closed questions to which the respondent is invited to provide answers" (Rowley, 2014: 2). Siniscalco and Auriat (2005: 3) define a formal standardised questionnaire as "a survey instrument used to collect data from individuals about themselves, or about a social unit such as a household or a school". They state that in a standardised questionnaire, respondents are subjected to similar questions and a similar approach of coding answers. Rowley adds that one important advantage of questionnaires is that they allow us to gather information from a big population and that the findings from the collected data may be generalised.

Rowley (2014: 6) claims that questionnaires can be conducted in various types of research. He identifies (1) profiling and descriptive research whose aim is to produce a description of the sampling attributes; (2) predictive and analytical research of which the goal is to comprehend interdependence between variables; and (3) developing and testing measurement scales aiming to produce a "measurement scale, or a set of statements to measure a complex variable". Referring to Rowley's types of research, the questionnaire in this study was used to carry out predictive and analytical research as it was intended to establish the relationship between two variables, namely, the language of instruction and students' academic success.

Krosnick and Presser (2009: 7) propose that before elaborating a questionnaire, the researcher should decide whether she would ask closed questions or open-ended questions. They believe that, even though most researchers choose to use closed questions because they are easy to code, open questions also present advantages as they allow respondents to give detailed responses.

De Vos et al. (2002), Mathers, Fox and Hunn (2007) and Meadows (2003) further explain that in closed questions respondents are compelled to select the right answer among the pre-determined responses that are provided by the researcher. They claim that closed questions are advantageous as they are easy to understand and so respondents can answer them easily and rapidly generate responses that may be comparable. Although De Vos et al. recommend using a questionnaire with closed questions mainly, they also recognise that these types of questions may not produce all relevant information to the study. They recommend that closed questions should be supplemented with open-ended questions to give respondents the occasion to provide detailed explanations.

In fact, open questions give respondents free room to elaborate on their responses, which enables the researcher to obtain more in-depth information (Bell, 2005; De Vos et al., 2002; Mathers et al., 2007). Meadows (2003: 565) explicates that open-ended questions do not offer any pre-established responses but allow respondents to use their own words. Nevertheless, they warn the researcher against using many open ended-questions as this would take respondents too much of their time and divert them from filling-in the questionnaire. Rowley (2014) also puts forth that one of the weaknesses of questionnaires is that the researcher will not be certain whether the questions were comprehensible to respondents, and if the information the respondents have given corresponds to the reality or not. Another challenge the researcher has to be aware of is that coding and analysing the responses obtained through open-ended questions, as well as comparing these answers, can be arduous and may take the researcher much longer than usual (Bell, 2005; De Vos et al., 2002; Meadows, 2003).

I decided to use both closed questions and open-ended questions as I believed I would gain deeper insight of the study phenomenon from responses to both types of questions. In addition, I personally delivered the questionnaire to the students in order to explain to them what it consisted of and what I expected from them. Bell (2005) contends that distributing the

questionnaire in person to respondents allows the researcher to clarify the objective behind her study and to create good rapport, which will influence respondents' disposition to collaborate. Moreover, delivering a questionnaire by hand and leaving sufficient time for respondents to freely complete it on their own influences their willingness to participate in the study (De Vos et al., 2002: 174).

After distributing the questionnaire to all students (92 students) in the three schools/classes, I gave them two weeks to complete it and kindly requested their English teachers to help me do the follow up. In fact, I anticipated that the students might leave the questionnaires aside and completely forget about them if they were not reminded of the task. Besides telling them verbally, I also had specified on the questionnaire the date on which I would return to collect them. Bell (2005: 149) maintains that if the date is not indicated and if respondents are given more time than needed, they will likely not remember to complete the questionnaire. As agreed, I went back to the schools two weeks later to collect the questionnaires and was agreeably surprised to notice that all had been filled in.

The following section discusses the study of exam results, another data collection method that was utilised to supplement data obtained through other methods.

3.5.4 Study of exam results

Mogalakwe (2006: 221) describes documentary analysis method as the study of records that hold data related to the researched phenomenon. Bell (2005: 123) claims that researchers use documentary analysis to complement data from other data collection methods for the reliability and validity of research findings. De Vos et al. (2002: 333) also state that "the utilisation of document study enables the qualitative researcher to investigate people, events and systems in depth, by analysing authentic written material". Bowen (2009) and De Vos et al. (2002) contend that, as this data collection method enables the researcher to use material which already exists and does not require the participation of research subjects, the data generated will not, in any case, be affected by either the researcher or the respondents.

Bell (2005), De Vos et al. (2002) and Mogalakwe (2006) draw a distinction between primary sources and secondary sources. They describe primary sources as stories narrated by individuals

who lived the phenomenon under study. They state that secondary sources relate to information obtained from persons who did not experience the event but were told the story by the very subjects who went through it or have read the narrative recounted by those who witnessed it. Hox and Boeije (2002: 593) define secondary data as materials that have been collected by other researchers and that are accessible to the whole community of researchers to be utilised.

Bell divides primary sources into deliberate sources and inadvertent sources. She defines deliberate sources as sources that are purposely generated for potential use in future research and inadvertent sources as those which the researcher utilises for a goal different from the one they were initially designed for. Bowen (2009) also claims that documents may be generated for purposes other than research purposes. Making reference to Bell's differentiation between deliberate and inadvertent sources, this study made use of inadvertent primary sources as it is students' exam results that were collected and these sources were not originally produced for research purposes.

Although gathering data through using document analysis has advantages, it also shows some limitations. De Vos et al. (2002), for instance, acknowledge that documents may be biased and produce data which do not reflect the reality about the research phenomenon. Bell (2005) also warns the researcher that some documents may have been produced with the intention of misleading specific individuals. As a matter of fact, the researcher in this study could be misinformed if she considered only the English marks on the students' transcripts. Indeed, a teacher might give her students much better grades than they deserve simply to give the false impression that she does a wonderful job. It is this concern over the accuracy of data generated by documentary analysis that led the researcher in this study to employ various data collection methods to corroborate the veracity of research findings. As Mogalakwe (2006: 228) purports, researchers may use a mixture of research methods so as to increase "the reliability and validity of their analyses". Bowen (2009: 28) also posits that combining different data collection methods allows the researcher to obtain evidence that supports her findings, hence diminishing the effects of possible misinformation that may result from using one single method only.

In Rwanda, students who have completed secondary Third Form have to sit for and pass national examinations to be eligible for advanced level. The content subjects that are focused on in these

exams are pure sciences (Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and Geography), social sciences (History and Entrepreneurship) and languages (English and Kinyarwanda). In each of these fields, the researcher randomly chose one content subject and compared the exam results with English exam results. The selected subjects for the study were Mathematics, History and Kinyarwanda. Even though Kinyarwanda is a language that is taught separately from English, the researcher believed it was pertinent to compare the students' performance in English, the language of instruction and their performance in Kinyarwanda, the mother tongue.

The next section deals with the pilot study as a means of ensuring beforehand whether the data collection methods to be used in the main study would provide relevant responses to the research questions.

3.6 Pilot study

"A pilot study can be defined as a small-scale study that helps to examine the practicality and feasibility of the methods to be used in a subsequent larger and more comprehensive investigation" (Viechtbauer et al., 2015: 1375). Jones et al. (2017) and Viechtbauer et al. (2015) state that a pilot study enables the researcher to identify unanticipated problems that could otherwise be a hindrance to carrying out the research efficiently. The researcher can then make the necessary amendments.

Bell (2005: 147) states that "all data gathering instruments should be piloted to test how long it takes recipients to complete them, to check that all questions and instruments are clear and to enable you to remove any items which do not yield usable data". Similarly, Chenail (2011), Dikko (2016), and Simon (2011) maintain that a pilot study should be carried out in order to find out whether the chosen research instruments are adequate or not for generating the expected data for the study, which enables the researcher to make the necessary improvements before the main study is conducted. Bell (2005) and Rowley (2014) also suggest that all instruments used to collect data ought to be tried before the main investigation is carried out in order to see if they are understandable, not too long and if they are suitable to produce accurate responses to the research questions and useful data for the study. As for Majid et al. (2017), they claim that a pilot study is conducted in order to prepare for the main study.

Although some researchers may be tempted to do without pilot testing because of restrictions of time, money and other various personal reasons, De Vos et al. (2002) and Zailinawati, Schattener and Mazza (2006) advise researchers not to omit this aspect of the study as it may prove extremely rewarding. Naturally, a pilot study does not indicate that the main study will absolutely be successful; still it will enhance this probability (Simon, 2011).

Arain et al. (2010), Chenail (2011) and Teijlingen van, Hundley and Graham (2001) propose two types of pilot studies that can be undertaken in social research. These are the feasibility study that is a miniature version of the main study, and the testing of research instruments prior to the main investigation. It is the second definition that was suitable to the present study as questionnaires and interview questions were tried out before the carrying out of the main research and the necessary amendments were made.

Bell (2005), Dikko (2016) and Rowley (2014) propose that the pilot testing be done on a handful of subjects possessing the similar attributes as the population in the main study; however, if it is not feasible the researcher may test any people who may wish to cooperate. I initially intended to test the questionnaires and interview questions on a small number of students in Third Form from other schools having more or less the same characteristics as the selected schools. Nevertheless, the schools I approached declined my request arguing that they were pressurised by time to cover the prescribed curriculum so that the students could be well prepared for the end-of year national examinations. I decided to conduct a trial run of the research instruments on my students in second year at the University of Rwanda. In addition, my colleagues at work lent a hand by agreeing to answer the interview questions designed for teachers. This exercise proved tremendously rewarding as it allowed me to identify some gaps in my questionnaires and interview questions and eventually to make the required changes.

The following section discusses reliability and validity, features that any research should possess.

3.7 Reliability and validity

Reliability and validity refer to the property of research instruments to generate accurate and trustworthy results. Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008: 2276) assume that “key indicators of the

quality of a measuring instrument are the reliability and validity of the measures". As a matter of fact, any instrument chosen for data collection should be scrutinised carefully to evaluate whether it is likely to produce valid and reliable data (Bell, 2005: 117).

Noble and Smith (2015: 3) contend that reliability and validity that used to be typical features of quantitative research are also relevant in qualitative research. They define reliability as constancy of data collection methods and data analysis. Bell (2005) and Golafshani (2003) on their part describe reliability as the extent to which measuring instruments generate the same results in circumstances that are worthy of comparison. Zohrabi (2013: 259) states that "reliability deals with the consistency, dependability and replicability of the results obtained from a piece of research". He claims that it is easy to get the same results in quantitative research as the data gathered are presented in the form of numbers, still tremendous efforts need to be furnished in qualitative research because the data are provided in words or texts. He then advises the qualitative researcher not to worry about the replicability of results but to rather strive for achieving reliability of the data through the data collection instruments. Noble and Smith (2015) also recognise that consistency is an essential criterion that the researcher must consider to ensure the reliability of her research. They explain that consistency "relates to the trustworthiness by which the methods have been undertaken and is dependent on the researcher maintaining a decision trail" (Noble & Smith, 2015: 3). They claim that an independent researcher could, thus, obtain comparable results by using similar methods.

Zohrabi asserts that the qualitative researcher has to employ three strategies to assure dependability and, hence, reliability. The first technique is "the investigator position" which consists of providing a detailed definition of the rationale of the study, its design and the research subjects. The second is "triangulation" consisting of collecting information by means of multiple instruments and from varied sources. In fact, using various data collection methods may help ensure accuracy and hence reliability of research results (Nomlomo, 2007: 185). Zohrabi goes on to say that replicating the study can, thus, be done without difficulty in such circumstances. The third technique is "audit trail" in which the investigator gives a detailed account of the way in which data are compiled and analysed, the way in which the various themes are obtained and the way in which the results are secured.

The present study attempted to satisfy all three techniques proposed by Zohrabi. Firstly, the researcher supplied a detailed explanation of the rationale that drove her to undertake this investigation, the research design that was used, and the reason for the choice of the particular research settings and participants. Indeed, this study was undertaken for the concern felt regarding the impact that the language of instruction (English) in Rwanda may have on the quality of education of secondary Third Form students in rural Gisagara, the poorest district in the country. The research design that was selected for conducting the study was also discussed. It is the case study that appealed to the researcher as being the most appropriate design for conducting the study because it was carried out on specific subjects interacting in specific settings. Secondly, various data collection methods were employed namely classroom observations, interviews with students, interviews with teachers, questionnaires for students and study of exam results. Thirdly, the researcher explained in detail how the data were collected, analysed, processed to obtain the different themes and how the research results were arrived at. The researcher presumed that the explanations provided, together with the triangulation of methods, would help generate data that could be said to be reliable.

However, reliability alone does not suffice to achieve quality research, so it must be considered along with validity. According to Bell (2005), Desai (2012), Golafshani (2003), Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) and Zohrabi (2013), validity is the level at which a research instrument evaluates what it is meant to evaluate. Noble and Smith (2015: 3) state that "validity refers to the integrity and application of the methods undertaken and the precision in which the findings accurately reflect the data". De Vos et al. (2002: 166-167) claim that validity can mean two things: (1) that the instrument assesses the construct it is expected to assess and (2) that the concept is measured correctly. They clarify that it might happen that the instrument explores what it is designed to explore but without doing it accurately. The researcher must, thus, ensure that both aspects of validity have been taken into consideration.

As research instruments may be utilised for different purposes, De Vos et al. (2002) and Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) propose four types of validity that can be considered in research. These are content, face, criterion and construct validity. A measuring instrument has content validity when it really measures the concept it has been designed to measure. Zohrabi (2013: 258) purports that "content validity is related to a type of validity in which different

elements, skills and behaviours are adequately and effectively measured. To this end, the researcher and the data might be reviewed by the experts in the field of research." He explicates that these comments from experts aid the researcher to improve her research questions. The instrument has face validity when it is designed in such a way that its relevance to measuring the concept in question is apparent to respondents; otherwise, respondents will not provide the expected information. Criterion validity is concerned with comparing the results yielded by a research instrument with an external criterion that is recognised to measure the characteristic being researched. Construct validity deals with ascertaining whether an instrument can really measure a theoretical concept or not.

As far as the current study is concerned, the researcher worked especially hard at establishing two of the four constructs namely, content validity and construct validity that seemed to be the most significant. About content validity, the researcher endeavoured to design research instruments (classroom observations, questionnaires, interviews and exam results) that were expected to enable her to see how the students coped with English, the language of instruction and how they performed in content subjects. In addition, the researcher requested colleagues who were experts in the domain to have a look at the data collection methods and tell her whether the instruments would be relevant to the research subjects and would generate the required data for her study (Bell, 2005). Their comments proved to be very helpful as they allowed the researcher to make the necessary changes to improve her research instruments. With construct validity, the same measuring instruments allowed the researcher to determine the impact the language of instruction had on students' academic performance.

Echoing Zohrabi (2013), Golafshani (2003: 601) maintains that the constructs of validity and reliability are interpreted in another way by qualitative researchers. He explains that whereas reliability is a construct aiming at measuring quality in quantitative research with a goal of providing explanations, quality in qualitative research has the objective of giving insight to the researcher. Golafshani adds that "reliability and validity are conceptualized as trustworthiness, rigor and quality in qualitative paradigm" (p. 604). He claims that reliability and validity in qualitative research is determined by using different instruments to evaluate the phenomenon in the study as well as collecting data from different sources. It is in this vein that the current study, which used both qualitative and quantitative approaches, took into consideration these two

concepts in the selection of data collection methods. As mentioned previously, this was a single-case study that utilised various data collection methods and obtained data from different sources.

The following section discusses ethical considerations that guided the present study.

3.8 Ethical considerations

This study was guided by six ethical guidelines set by the Council of the British Educational Research Association in 2011.

Firstly, the researcher secured ethical clearance from the University of the Western Cape to conduct the research under clearly stipulated conditions.

Secondly, she sought and obtained informed consent from the research subjects. The participants were provided an information sheet that explained in detail what the research consisted of and why their participation in the study was indispensable. The sheet comprised of the following:

- The purpose of the study;
- When and how the study was to be conducted;
- The benefits that the participants might receive as a result of their participation in the research;
- The students'/teachers' voluntary participation and withdrawal; and
- Ethical implications.

The participants were, thus, presented with a consent form to sign and all voluntarily accepted to get involved in the undertaking. It is again worth mentioning that a letter of consent was sent to parents whose children were under eighteen requesting them to let their children participate in the study. The researcher also solicited students whose parents were illiterate to read the letter to them and sign in their place if they agreed. All parents gave their approval.

Thirdly, the researcher informed the participants that even though they committed themselves to taking part in the study, they were free to withdraw any time they felt like it without facing any consequences.

Fourthly, the researcher ensured that no harm was caused to the research participants during the whole period that the research lasted. In other words, she anticipated that no emotional harm would be done to the subjects, and as the study was conducted in the very schools where the students were enrolled, chances of them being physically hurt were almost non-existent.

Fifthly, the privacy of participants was respected. To preserve anonymity, codes were utilised instead of names and data were processed with complete confidentiality.

Lastly, research participants had the right to be communicated the results of the study. The researcher promised she would provide them with a summary of the main findings once she had completed her doctoral thesis.

The next section deals with some limitations of the study.

3.9 Limitations of the study

This study had some limitations because of time and financial constraints. In fact, to explore the impact the language of instruction had on the quality of education, the researcher did not visit content-subject classrooms nor interview content teachers. She focused on English classrooms and interviewed English teachers only. She believed it was of the utmost importance to firstly see what was taking place in the English classrooms, as it is this setting that offers Rwandan students most, if not all, opportunities to develop proficiency in this language and hence be able to cope with their content subjects. If a later study were carried out, the researcher would go to content-subject classrooms and be an eyewitness of how the students would be dealing with content subjects. Nonetheless, for the purpose of the present study, results in content examinations provided sufficient evidence of the students' performance in the language of instruction.

Finally, this was not a longitudinal study. If it had been conducted over a longer period of time, the researcher would have taken time to try novel teaching strategies and see if they made a difference in the learning of the English language in Rwanda. Again, the objective was not to try

new teaching and learning techniques but rather to investigate the effects this language had on students' academic performance, and the data collection methods enabled the researcher to obtain responses to her research questions. The researcher's intention was to capture the situation at the three 9 YBE classes at the three schools at the time of the investigation – a slice in time approach.

The next section provides a brief summary of this chapter.

3.10 Summary

In this chapter I discussed the methodology that was used to conduct the current research. I chose the case study as the basic design that would assist me in obtaining answers to my research questions. I also indicated why the particular participants and settings were selected among many others. I highlighted the approaches and methods that were employed to collect data. I also talked about the concepts of validity and reliability that were considered to ensure quality of the research as well as the ethical considerations that guided the study.

The next chapter discusses the presentation of the data.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

As mentioned in the previous chapter, a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches permitted the researcher in this study to utilise triangulation of data collection methods and, hence, obtain more enriched data than if she had utilised one single research method (Almalki, 2016; Bolton et al., 2009; Creswell, 2014; Ostlund et al., 2011; Santos et al., 2017; Turpin et al., 2015). The present chapter, then, presents and initially discusses raw data collected through classroom observations, interviews with students and teachers, questionnaires for students and analysis of English and content subjects examination results. Guided by sociocultural theory, these techniques helped to obtain responses to the research questions addressed in the study and that I reiterate below:

The main research question is 'What role does English, the language of instruction, play in influencing the quality of education of students in Third Form classes in three 9 YBE schools in the Gisagara District?'

The sub-questions are:

1. What teaching and learning strategies, if any, do English language teachers devise to enable their students to cope with content subjects?
2. What kind of learning/teaching materials and infrastructure, if any, do the schools have that promote the learning of English?
3. What role does English play in students' performance in content subjects?
4. How do students' exam results in English correlate with their results in content subjects?
5. What are the students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as language of instruction?

As specified in the first chapter, five main objectives related to the research questions are set for this study. The researcher wanted to know whether there was deployment of teaching and learning strategies in the English language classrooms that enabled students to develop proficiency in this language of instruction. Next, she needed to find out whether there were appropriate learning materials and infrastructure that could promote the learning of English. Then, she sought to assess the role English played in students' performance in content subjects. The researcher also needed to understand the correlation between the students' results in the English exam and their results in content exams. Finally, she hoped to discern what the students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as a medium of instruction were.

Firstly, data obtained from classroom observations are presented to evaluate whether the learning and teaching strategies used in the English language classrooms promoted students' English proficiency. Classroom observations also allowed the researcher to know if there were teaching and learning materials and infrastructure that could help enhance the learning of English.

Secondly, data from questionnaires to students are also presented in order to have knowledge of what they thought of English as a language of instruction. These data were expected to reveal the teaching and learning techniques the students preferred the English teachers use for boosting their English language proficiency, and the effects they assumed English had on their performance in content subjects.

Thirdly, data collected from interviews with the students are shown. These data also informed the researcher of the students' perceptions of the use of English as a language of instruction and of the teaching and learning strategies they favoured so as to develop proficiency in this language.

Fourthly, data collected from interviews with the English teachers are provided to gain understanding of their perceptions of English as a language of instruction in Rwanda. These data also show the teaching strategies and materials the teachers said they used to assist in improving their students' English skills.

Lastly, data from students' exam results of English and content subjects are presented. These data permitted the researcher to assess the impact of English on students' performance in content

subjects and to establish the correlation between their results in the English exams and in content exams.

4.2 Classroom observations

As stated above, classroom observations allowed the researcher to see if the English teachers (all were men) at the three selected schools devised appropriate teaching and learning strategies for the promotion of their students' English proficiency. They also enabled her to realise if there were learning materials and infrastructure that helped to enhance this learning.

As pointed out in the previous chapter, I carried out my observations three times in each of the three Third Form classes of the selected 9 YBE schools. Before I commenced the observations, I enquired from the school directors (also called head teachers) and from the English teachers how many hours of English the Third Form classes were allotted. I was informed that English was given 5 sessions (periods) per week and that each session lasted 40 minutes. This implied that I could observe each of the English classrooms for 120 (40 X 3) minutes or 2 hours. For the sake of anonymity, the teachers were called T1 (from School 1), T2 (from School 2) and T3 (from School 3). The first thing I noticed when I entered the English language classrooms at School 1 and at School 2 was the seating arrangement. The students were sitting on opposite sides of two rows each with enough space in between to enable the teacher to circulate comfortably while checking on the students' work. There were two blackboards in each of the two classrooms, one at the front near the entrance and the other at the back, so when there was no space left on one board to write on, T1 and T2 could use the other board. Students had no difficulty reading what the teachers were writing on both chalkboards. I found this seating arrangement very advantageous because T1 and T2 could see the entire classroom well, and all the students could follow the teacher and read what was on the blackboard easily.

This was different from the prevailing situation at School 3 where the students were all sitting facing the front of the classroom. Although there was a second board in this classroom, T3 never used it when I was conducting my observations. A possible reason for not making use of the second board might have been that T3 did not write as much as T1 and T2, who spent most of their time transcribing things on the board. Nevertheless, despite this seating arrangement at

School 3, T3 seemed to have better control of his class than did T1 and T2. It was perhaps because T3 was more self-confident of what he was teaching and the students seemed to appreciate and respect him for that.

Another important thing worth mentioning was the atmosphere that reigned in the English language classrooms. It was interesting to note that T1 and T3 helped their students to relax before engaging in the subject matter of the lessons. T1 commented in Kinyarwanda about games or any other events that had taken place the previous days. The students who appeared to be sleepy or who were not paying attention immediately became interested and engaged in animated discussions. It took about three minutes, but all the students were then wide awake and well disposed to begin a new lesson. T3 told his students to stand up and stretch themselves. It also took about three to four minutes. Students seemed to enjoy this break very much and were also enthusiastic to embark on a new lesson. T1 and T3 went on sustaining this friendly atmosphere throughout their lessons. This motivated the students in School 1 and School 3 who actively participated in their lessons.

T2 did not do any warm up exercises nor use any other tactic to wake his students up before he began his lessons. He did not establish an amicable mood in his classroom either. This induced the students at School 2 to somehow fear their teacher and not to be as alert as the students at School 1 and School 3.

I also noticed that, although these were English language classrooms, T2 and T3 occasionally switched to Kinyarwanda, their, as well as the students' mother tongue, to facilitate comprehension. I never heard T1 code-switching between English and Kinyarwanda while he was teaching. However, while the students at the three schools were working in groups, I went around and whenever I got close to them they either kept silent or only the same students kept communicating in English. I heard some students shifting to Kinyarwanda when I was heading towards another group. In fact, most of the class discussed in Kinyarwanda when they thought the teacher and the researcher were not listening. I believed that, possibly, the teachers had discouraged the students from using any other language and had recommended them to stick to English during English language classrooms.

The next section deals with the teaching and learning strategies that the English teachers deployed to mediate the learning of English skills in their classrooms.

4.2.1 Learning and teaching strategies

4.2.1.1 Teacher 1 (T1)

Before introducing a new lesson, T1 told the students to remind him of what they had studied previously and the students were very eager to provide the answers. During my first classroom observations, for example, they answered that they had learnt how to write a composition (or essay). T1, then, asked them what the main parts of a composition were. The students responded that these were the introduction, the body (or development) and the conclusion. After that, he questioned them about the content of each of the parts and they managed to provide the right answers.

I observed that in all lessons, many of the students had their notebooks open and were reading the answers from their notes, which T1 seemed not to notice or pretended not to see. Obviously, when T1 posed questions on lessons taught earlier, his students were keen to respond because most of the replies were at hand. Being busy reading what was in their notebooks, however, sometimes prevented the students from catching what the teacher was saying. T1 also used to provide beginnings of sentences and let the students complete them. One could be misled and think that all the students had mastered their lesson but, again, most of them were reading the answers from their notebooks.

After a brief review of what T1 called hints about how to write a composition, he asked the students, *"When we are composing, do we begin by a paragraph?"* This question was ambiguous to me. I could understand its meaning only after the students had provided the answers. They said that before writing the essay paragraphs, they must first have a title. T1 supplied an example of a possible title himself: *HIV-AIDS prevention*. He did not give his students the opportunity to propose their own titles. Then he wanted to know what this title was composed of. The students replied that it was made of words. T1 then said, *"When writing a composition, we have words, sentences and paragraphs"*. The students joined in completing this

sentence in chorus. In all observations that I carried out at School 1, I noted that T1 incited his students to respond in unison.

I also observed that T1 occasionally corrected students who pronounced words incorrectly during a reading exercise, but at other times, he did not. He also wrote on the board examples of sentences that the students had made and were dictating to him but did not correct the grammatical errors that were in some of them. The following students' examples of clauses, for instance, were left on the chalkboard with mistakes: "*My father is going at market and buy something." / "After we left the children stay crying."*

In one reading exercise, T1 told the students to open their books and named some who immediately started reading the text aloud. After that, the students were requested to answer comprehension questions related to the text. They were not given sufficient time to explore the text and understand it.

Apart from the question-answer technique, T1 sometimes told the students to work in pairs and in groups. However, he did not make sure whether the students were facing any challenges while doing their exercises, so he did not provide any support at this stage. I also observed that when the students finished their group work, T1 named some of them to go and tell other groups what came out of their discussions and after that report to the whole class. Nevertheless, the students simply listened to the reports but were not encouraged to put any questions to their classmates or to engage in further discussions about the topic.

Throughout his lessons, T1 spent most of the time posing questions to students who provided answers. He supplied responses whenever the students failed to answer correctly. Moreover, a good number of his questions were related to theory and not to practice. Not practising what they were learning caused the students to be bored, too. T1 rarely encouraged individual responses, thus his students replied collectively. This implied that it was only some students who could respond. A good number of students kept quiet and the teacher did not pay attention to that. He went on with his teaching. At times, T1 asked the students if they had questions but they did not raise any. Evidently, they had become uninterested because it was the teacher who monopolised the speaking. In other words, T1's lessons were teacher-centred as the teacher-talk technique dominated in his instruction.

4.2.1.2 Teacher 2 (T2)

T2 started his lessons without any preamble. He did not question the students on what they had learnt in the previous lessons nor did he give any introduction to new lessons.

T2 also seemed to ignore the importance of context in the learning of a language. For instance, he asked his students to provide examples of adverbs of time, place and manner and students mentioned some of them. It was difficult to know whether they were able to construct sentences in which they would use these adverbs correctly. T2 wrote all the examples on the blackboard. There were mistakes in the examples the students identified as adverbs of manner, namely, *"usually"* and *"just"*. T2 kept these wrong examples on the board and did not make corrections. I also noted that T2 did not draw his students' attention to the use of capital letters at the beginning of sentences or to the use of punctuation. Some students would even wrongly use capital letters in the middle of sentences, but T2 disregarded the errors.

In one exercise on adverbs of place, the students were requested to make sentences, some of which T2 put on the chalkboard. There were mistakes in some of the sentences but T2 did not rectify them as shown in the following examples: "*the cat sleeps under the table." / "I am going to school every day."* In the first sentence, although a correct adverb of place (= under) was employed, a small letter was used instead of a capital letter at the beginning. In the second, an adverbial of frequency (= every day) was used instead of an adverb of place and the present progressive instead of the present simple.

T2 himself made errors that revealed his lack of proficiency in English when he, for example, told the students: "*If you have finished, rise your hand.*" / One other time, he attempted to correct a student's sentence in which a wrong adverb was used but replaced the incorrect item with a misspelt word as illustrated below:

"Kalisa passes through the road." (Student) / *"Kalisa passes accross the road."* (Teacher)

In some exercises, T2 requested his students to work individually and to exchange copies after they had finished. After that, the students made corrections on the blackboard. They would then read what they had written on the board and T2 took this opportunity to correct spelling or

pronunciation mistakes. He firstly asked his students to make the necessary corrections before he intervened, though. After that, the students marked their friends' copies and gave them back to the owners for corrections.

T2 also provided group work and walked around to see how the students were coping, providing the necessary support. Students were discussing in English but sometimes switched to Kinyarwanda. Nonetheless, not all students were seriously engaged in group discussions. Some were not following at all and displayed signs of boredom though all the English lessons were taken in the morning. One could not advance the probability that they were already tired so early. The reasons must have been the lack of dynamism on the part of the teacher and the fact that the children in a contiguous nursery classroom were continuously making lots of noise, which was distracting the students at School 2. When I made reference to this disturbance, I was informed that the authorities at the school had lent this room for only a short period of time and that they were compelled to live with it.

Similar to the learning at School 1, the learning at School 2 was also teacher-centred as T2 dominated the talk in the classroom and did not provide opportunities for the students to interact using English, the language of instruction. In addition, T2 did not stimulate his students to pose questions on issues they might not have grasped during the English lessons. In fact, I never saw a student raising a hand and asking a question the whole time I was conducting classroom observations at School 2.

4.2.1.3 Teacher 3 (T3)

T3 began his English classes by asking students questions about the earlier lessons or by correcting exercises that related to these lessons. (He used to call his students by their names.) Once, for example, he asked students to read aloud what they had written in their take-home assignment. They had been requested to write sentences in which they used the past continuous tense. T3 named only a few students who read the sentences aloud while their classmates were following carefully. However, no sentences were put on the chalkboard and not all students had the opportunity to read their sentences, which seemed to disappoint some of them.

T3 also assigned his students individual and group work. He would tell the students to sit in groups to share books but to do exercises individually. He then encouraged them to ask their group mates for explanations whenever required. The teacher also occasionally spoke Kinyarwanda to make his students understand better. After the students had completed the individual tasks, T3 told them to exchange their copies and underline mistakes, to mark them according to the answers that were noted on the blackboard, to allot marks and give back the copies. Finally, those who had made mistakes were requested to make the necessary corrections.

T3 also stimulated his students to pose questions for more clarification any time they felt they needed to, contrary to T1 and T2 who never or rarely gave their students such an opportunity. The students then attempted to reply to the questions, and it is only when they failed to respond that T3 provided the correct replies himself. For example, a student wanted to know what "to respond" meant. T3 firstly inquired whether any student could explain and when nobody volunteered he provided the meaning. About group work, T3 also let his students interact freely and collaborate in order to reach the common goal of finding correct answers to proposed exercises or come to a common agreement about a given topic. Unfortunately, group tasks were limited in T3's English classroom. In spite of this concern, however, T3's students were much more engaged than T1's and T2's. Also unlike T1's and T2's instruction that was teacher-centred, T3's classes were learner-centred.

The following section is about the learning materials and infrastructure that were available at School 1, School 2 and School 3.

4.2.2 Teaching/ learning materials and infrastructure

Lack or scarcity of teaching materials and infrastructure to enhance the learning of English was a big challenge faced by all three schools. Although the schools possessed English teacher's guides (English for Rwanda Schools, Senior 3 Teacher's Guide), they had each only about five to six student's books (English for Rwanda Schools, Senior 3 Student's Book). This signified that when it was time for using the books, a group of five or six students sat in a circle and tried to perform tasks from one book. Sitting in such an uncomfortable way prevented most of the

students from seeing well what was in the book, so they could not do their activities properly. Some even lost concentration and started doing something else.

Because of this shortage of student's books, English teachers used to collect them after class and return them to the library. They were never left for the students. In addition, students were not allowed to borrow the books nor take them home for further consultation, lest they could be lost or damaged.

Besides not being lent these student's books of English, students were rarely permitted to borrow and take home any English novels, short stories, or any type of fiction because they were also in short supply. A student who wanted to read could do so when she was still at school and then take the book back to the library before leaving for home. Considering that classes stopped in the evening, it was almost impossible for the students to do any efficient reading as there was no electricity in the classrooms and they also had to hurry back home before it turned dark.

Furthermore, there were only a few dictionaries that could not be lent to the students either. These were monolingual (English-English) dictionaries. Sometimes, the English teacher would bring a dictionary to class and tell the students to consult it whenever they came across a difficult or new word. It was not easy for a class of about thirty students to share one dictionary.

Worse still, because of lack of electricity in the classrooms, teaching materials such as radios, computers, and overhead projectors could not be used in the quest for fostering the learning of English. No school owned a language laboratory either.

4.2.2.1 Description of the English textbook

The English book, *English for Rwanda Schools, Senior 3 Student's Book,* was produced by Mutuye et al. (2017) who were commissioned by the Rwanda Education Board, one of the departments in the Ministry of Education. It contained 10 units that discussed varied themes, namely careers, running a business, folktales, diet and health, human rights, religion, culture and arts, tourism and the environment in Rwanda, the internet and the media, traditional beliefs and practices and prehistory. All the themes dealt with issues associated with everyday lives of Rwandans in particular or Africans in general.

Each unit was divided into four sections with topics that were related to the main theme. Each section itself was comprised of oral comprehension, reading comprehension, vocabulary building, grammar and language practice. These activities had to do with the topic in question. First, the oral comprehension activity consisted of questions that the students had to answer orally. Second, the reading comprehension had a passage that they had to read before they answered comprehension questions. Third, the vocabulary building activity consisted of explaining words and expressions as they were used in the passage and of a fill-in exercise. Fourth, the grammar task introduced new structures that were learnt through the context of the topic. Fifth, the language practice exercise was about writing a composition that also had to do with the topic in each particular unit.

A unit of the English textbook is provided as Appendix 4. Below, I supply a content map of Unit 1 of the book, as a sample to illustrate how all other units are structured.

Content map of unit 1

UNIT 1	**CAREERS**
Number of lessons	18 + Homework and other assignments
Generic competences	• Critical thinking and problem solving • Creativity and innovation • Research • Communication in official languages • Cooperation, interpersonal management and life skills • Lifelong learning Students should be able to: • Communicate information, ideas and feelings appropriately in a range of different social settings and cultural contexts. • Listen attentively and read fluently both for information and for leisure. • Demonstrate an adequate command of vocabulary and language patterns in complex texts to enable them to learn and

	communicate in English in different situations. • Listen to and understand English as it is spoken around them in authentic situations.
Key unit competence	• Use language in the context of the careers.
Oral comprehension	• Talk about different jobs; describe daily routines, job qualifications, and job experiences. • Listen to information about careers, daily routines, job qualifications and job experiences. • Pronounce words related to careers correctly.
Reading comprehension	• Read passages and dialogue about careers and related topics. • Answer comprehension questions in writing. • Learn and use new vocabulary. • Practise good reading skills. • Develop awareness of the importance of different careers.
Grammar	• Learn about and correctly use relative clauses, the simple present tense, conditional clauses and the present perfect continuous tense. • Do grammar exercises correctly. • Construct grammatically-correct sentences.
Language practice: Composition	• Construct correct sentences using the language structures learnt in the unit. • Write a composition based on the theme. • Use punctuation marks correctly. • Spell words correctly. • Use the vocabulary learnt in the compositions. • Proofread and edit their written work.
Classroom organization	• Individual, group, pair and whole class activities.

Resources	• Pictures and photographs • Video and audio recordings • Newspaper and magazine cuttings • Charts • Chalkboard • Resource persons
Activities	• Discussing careers, job qualifications and job experience. • Listening, asking and answering questions. • Reading and writing texts about jobs. • Constructing sentences and doing a variety of oral and written exercises.
Competences practised	• Using English correctly and confidently to talk about jobs. • Constructing correct sentences. • Practising all the language skills.
Assessment	• Exercises at the end of each section to evaluate whether or not the content has been mastered.
Learning outcomes	• Using English fluently and confidently in speech and listening effectively. • Reading and comprehending texts and responding to questions appropriately. • Learning and using new words correctly. • Demonstrating mastery of relative clauses, the simple present tense, conditional clauses and the present perfect continuous tense. • Writing compositions on the theme.

Concerning the generic competences in this unit, the book proposes that students should be able to listen to and understand English as it is spoken around them in authentic situations. However, this is an illusory aim as, in Rwanda, English is spoken only in the classroom and probably in

some offices. Again, the use of video and audio recordings as learning resources, which English teachers could utilise to make their students listen to native speakers or to people with different accents of English, was an utterly impracticable scheme in the visited schools as their classrooms were not supplied with electricity.

4.2.3 Summary of the classroom observations

The classroom observations that I conducted in T1's, T2's and T3's classrooms revealed that the English teachers employed a variety of learning and teaching techniques. All three teachers would often use the question-answer technique and probe answers from their students. Almost all of the questions were short and required only lower-order thinking skills on the part of the students. Moreover, this was a one-way technique because it was the teachers who mostly questioned the learners. The students rarely, or never, put questions to their teachers.

Teacher-talk was another strategy that was utilised by T1 and T2. These English teachers would spend most of their time explaining lessons to their students who listened passively. T1 and T2 also seemed to privilege theory over practice. They would make their students recite things that they could have memorised and rarely furnished occasions for putting them in practice.

Group work was also done in all three classes and the teachers, particularly T2 and T3, tried to supply the needed support. At times, however, group work was not managed effectively to make certain whether all the students were really engaged in the group activities and to assist them in any way. T2 and T3 also provided individual work to stimulate the students to utilise their critical thinking and manage learning independently.

Code-switching was another technique that the English teachers had recourse to now and then. They would sometimes shift to Kinyarwanda and explain parts of the lessons that their students had failed to grasp in English, which the latter seemed to enjoy very much. At times, the teachers also let their students interact in this home language during group discussions and they became more animated.

The observations also disclosed that the schools were suffering from a shortage of teaching and learning resources. Even though there was a teacher's guide of the English textbook for each

teacher, there was a scarcity of the student's books, which was inconveniencing the students. Indeed, these books were utilised in the classroom only and the students were not allowed to borrow them. There were also very few dictionaries, that could be consulted in the classroom only. Furthermore, books other than the English textbooks were also lacking and were lent to the willing students for some hours only.

The learning infrastructure was also deficient at School 1, School 2 and School 3. Even though some offices were furnished with electricity, the classrooms lacked this useful source of power. Teachers could not, therefore, make use of electric devices that could enhance their learners' English proficiency. The schools did not possess language laboratories, either.

The next section presents the data that emerged from the questionnaires.

4.3 Questionnaires for students

Questionnaires were another data collection instrument employed to gather information from the students and so obtain responses to my research questions. The questionnaire in the current study consisted of 13 questions, some of which were closed and others open-ended as stated earlier in the chapter on research methodology. This section, thus, presents the data from the responses supplied by the students at School 1, School 2 and School 3. All the students (N=74) from the three Third Form classes were requested to complete the questionnaire and everybody answered the questions. However, the questionnaire that was distributed to the students had been translated into Kinyarwanda at their request. The students unanimously explained that they would understand the questions better if they were posed in their mother tongue and I agreed. This questionnaire in the Kinyarwanda version is presented as Appendix 1. Below, I provide a sample of the original questionnaire in English and it will also be provided in full later.

A. Answer "Yes" or "No" to the following questions.

1. Do you have any difficulty understanding your lessons in English?

2. Do you think you would understand better if your lessons were taught in Kinyarwanda?

3. Do group discussions in English help you improve your English language skills?

4. Do you actively participate in classroom group discussions in English?

5. Do you feel comfortable when you are using English in classroom group discussions?

6. Do you think learning content subjects (e.g: Mathematics, Entrepreneurship, History, etc) in English could help you improve your English skills?

7. Do you think you would learn English better if your teacher used reading material (or texts) related to your content subjects? (e.g: Mathematics, Entrepreneurship, History, etc.)

8. Does using English as a language of instruction enable you to respond well in subject exams? (e.g: Mathematics, Entrepreneurship, History, etc.)

9. With the English that you have learnt and are still learning, do you think you will satisfactorily succeed in the coming national examinations?

B. Open questions

10. Which language (one) would you prefer to use in classroom group discussions?

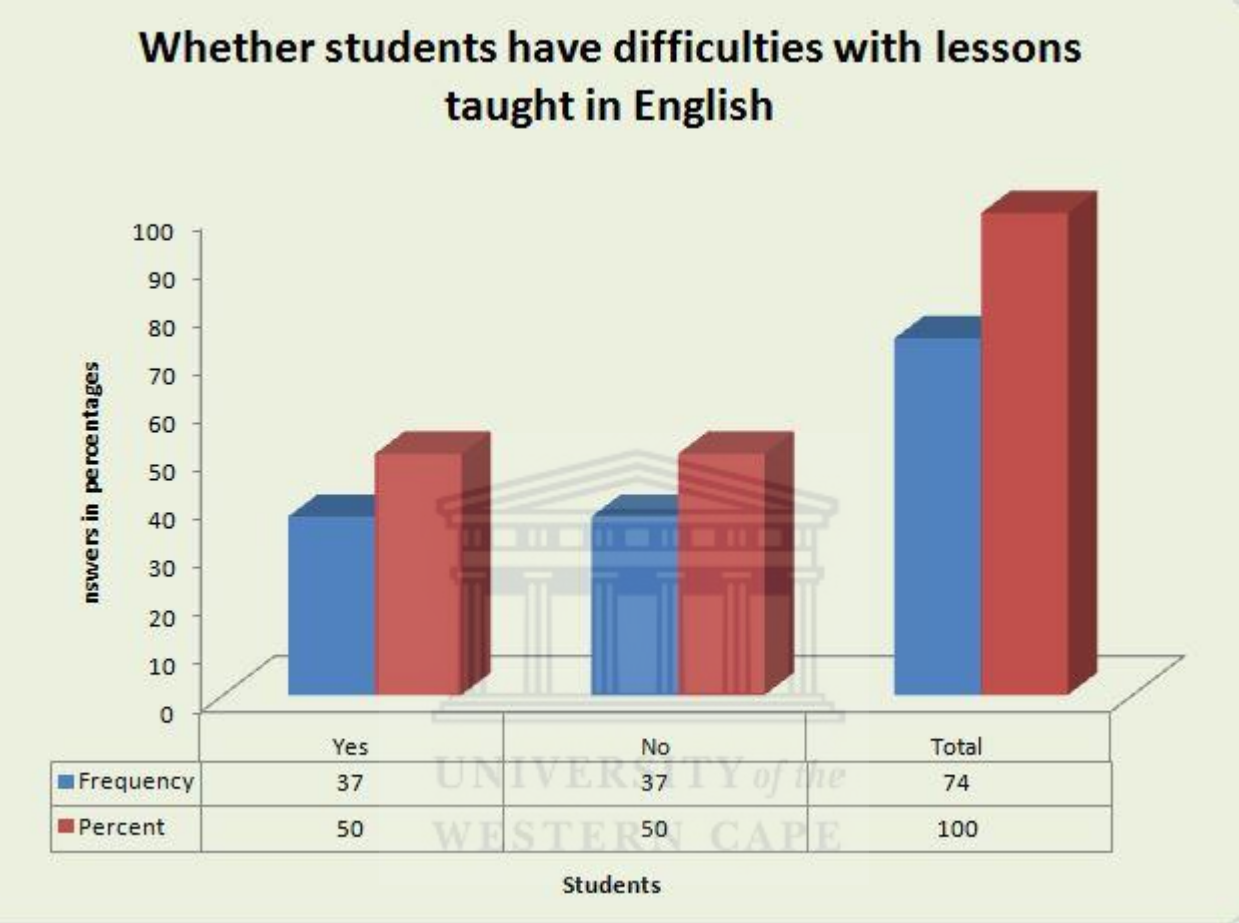
11. Do you perform (succeed) better in English or in content subjects?

12. Which teaching strategies (techniques) would you most like your English teacher to use to enable you to improve your English skills?

13. If you were given the choice, which language would you propose to be the medium of instruction?

The graphs and tables below show the number of students who participated and their responses in percentages.

Figure 4. 1 Whether the students have difficulties understanding lessons taught in English



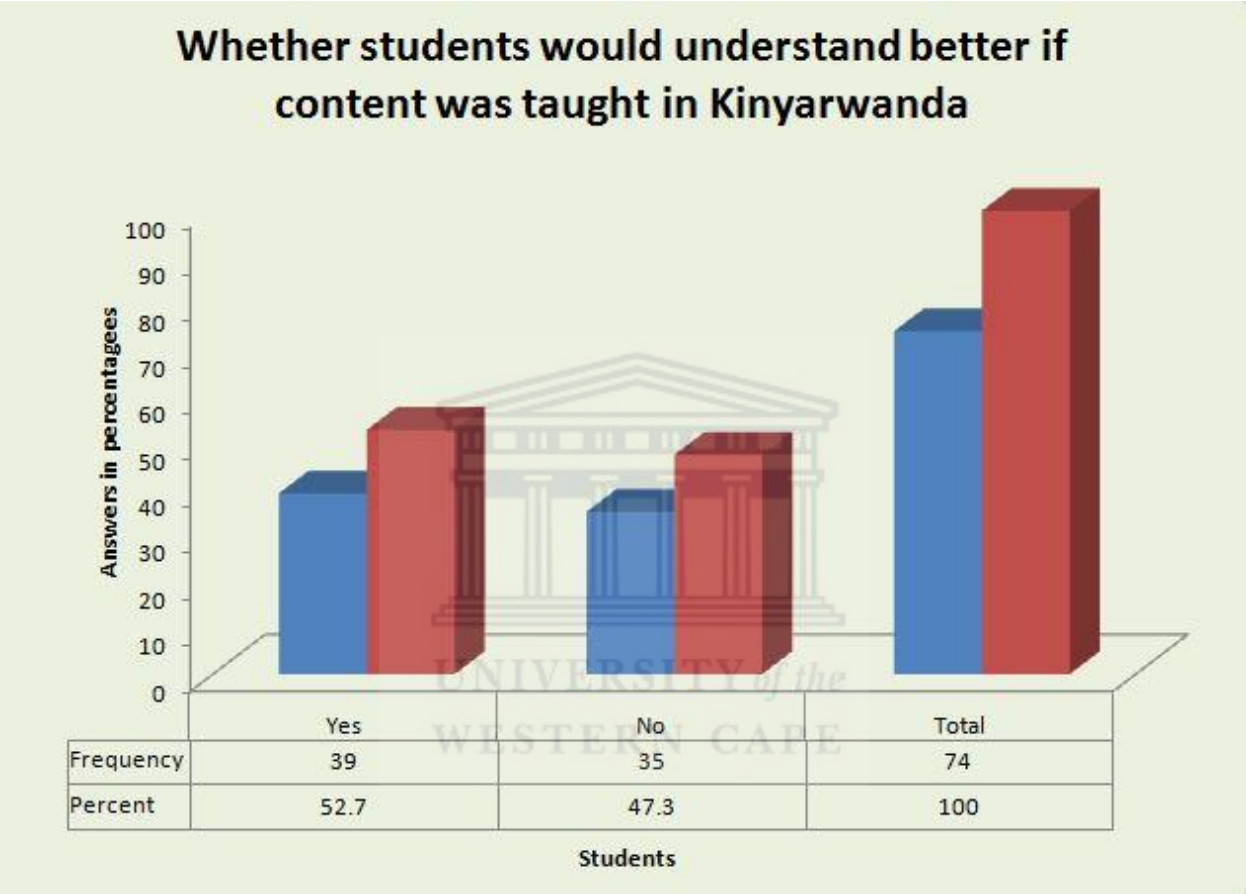
Responses to question 1 indicate the following:

1. 37 (50%) respondents out of 74 declared they had no difficulty understanding lessons taught in English.

2. 37 (50%) students stated they had trouble grasping the content of their courses taught in English.

The number of students (N=37) who presumed that they were at ease with English and so did not encounter any hindrance in achieving at school equalled the number of those (N=37) who confirmed they were challenged.

Figure 4. 2 Whether students would understand better if content subjects were taught in Kinyarwanda



	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	39	35	74
Percent	52.7	47.3	100

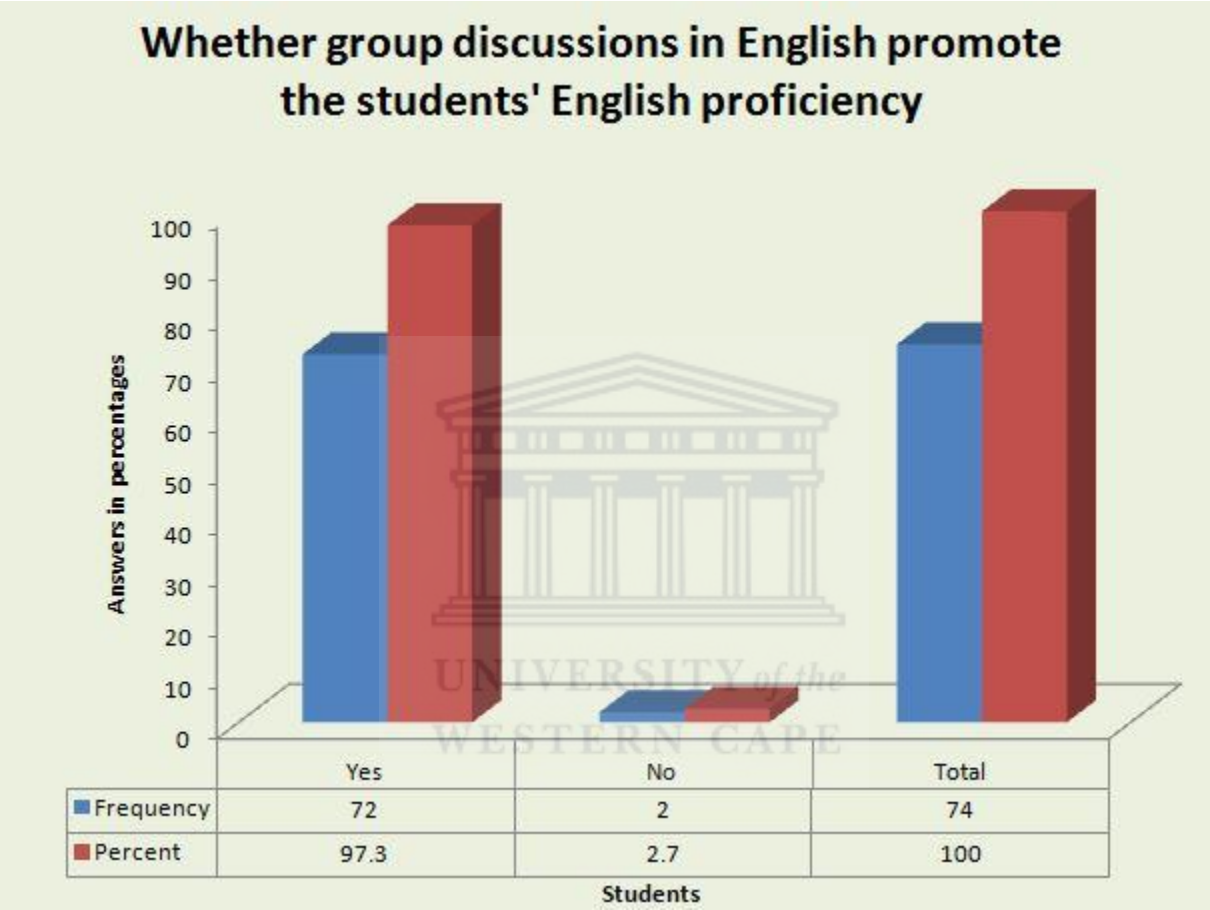
The features emanating from the responses to question 2 are the following:

1. 39 (52.7%) respondents out of 74 claimed they would understand their lessons better if they were instructed through Kinyarwanda.

2. 35 (47.3%) students admitted that learning in Kinyarwanda would not help them comprehend their content subjects better.

The number of students (N=39) who assumed they would understand their subjects better if they were taught in Kinyarwanda slightly outweighs that of students (N = 37) who affirmed that being instructed though the Kinyarwanda medium would not help that much.

Figure 4. 3 Whether group discussions in English help the students improve their English skills



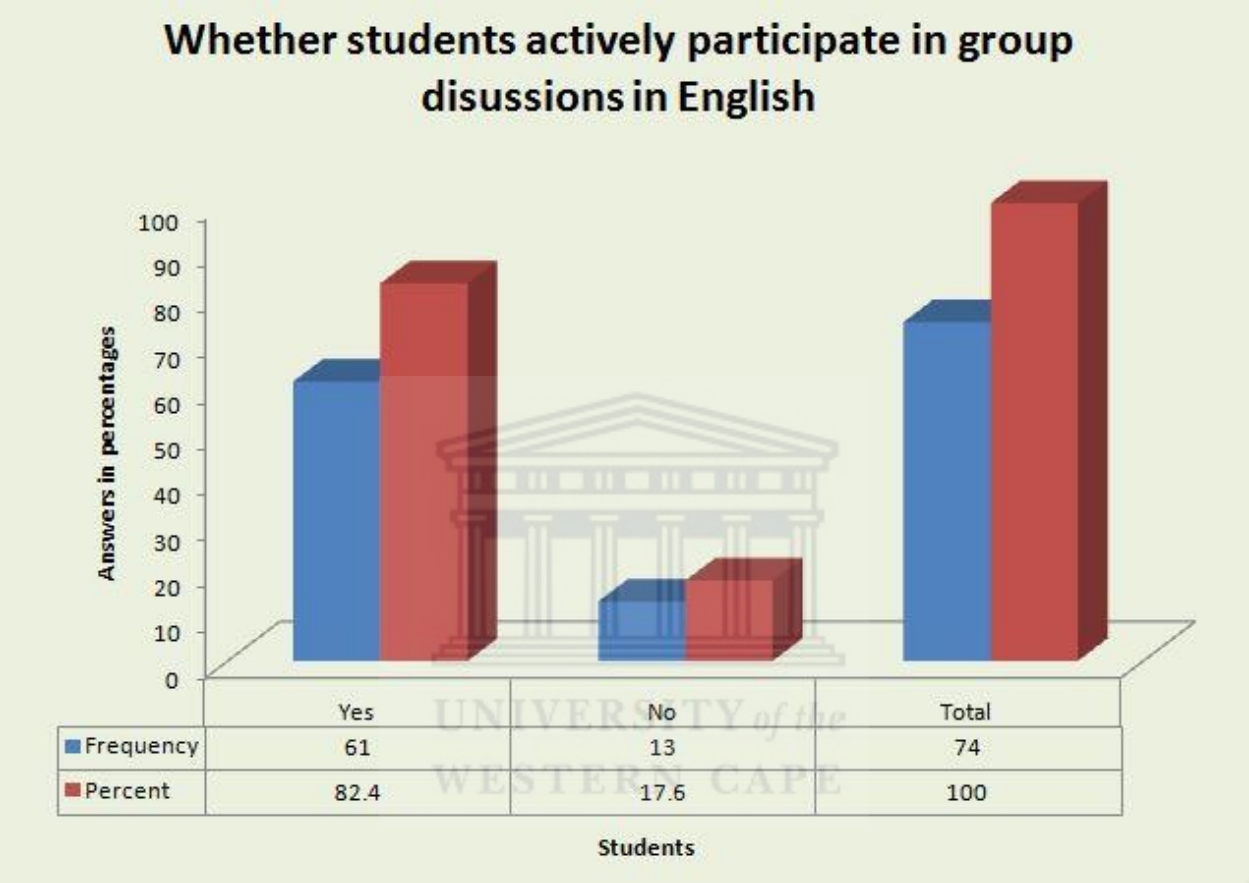
The following are features of the responses to question 3:

1. 72 (97.3%) respondents out of 74 replied that group discussions in English aided them to develop their English skills.

2. Only 2 (2.7%) students affirmed they did not benefit from group discussions at all.

The number of students (N=72) who acknowledged that participating in group discussions promoted their English proficiency by far surpasses those (N=2) who confirmed they gained nothing through group activities conducted in English.

Figure 4. 4 Whether the students actively participate in group discussions held in English



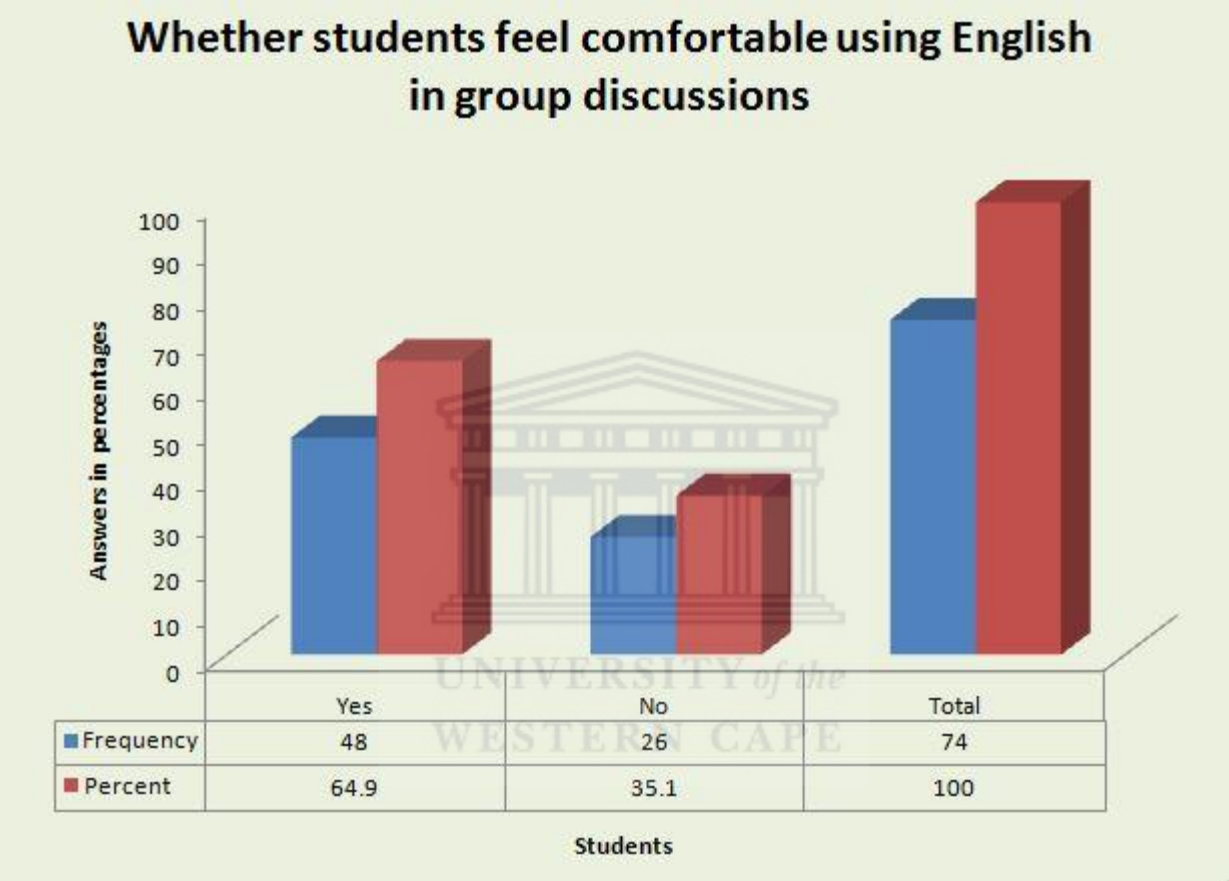
Answers to question 4 provide the features below:

1. 61 (81.4%) respondents out of 74 stated that they actively participated in classroom group discussions in English.

2. 13 (17.6%) students claimed they did not.

3. The number of respondents (N=61) who attested to their active participation in group discussions in their English classrooms is much more significant than that of students (N=13) who confirmed they did not.

Figure 4. 5 Whether the students feel comfortable while using English in classroom group discussions



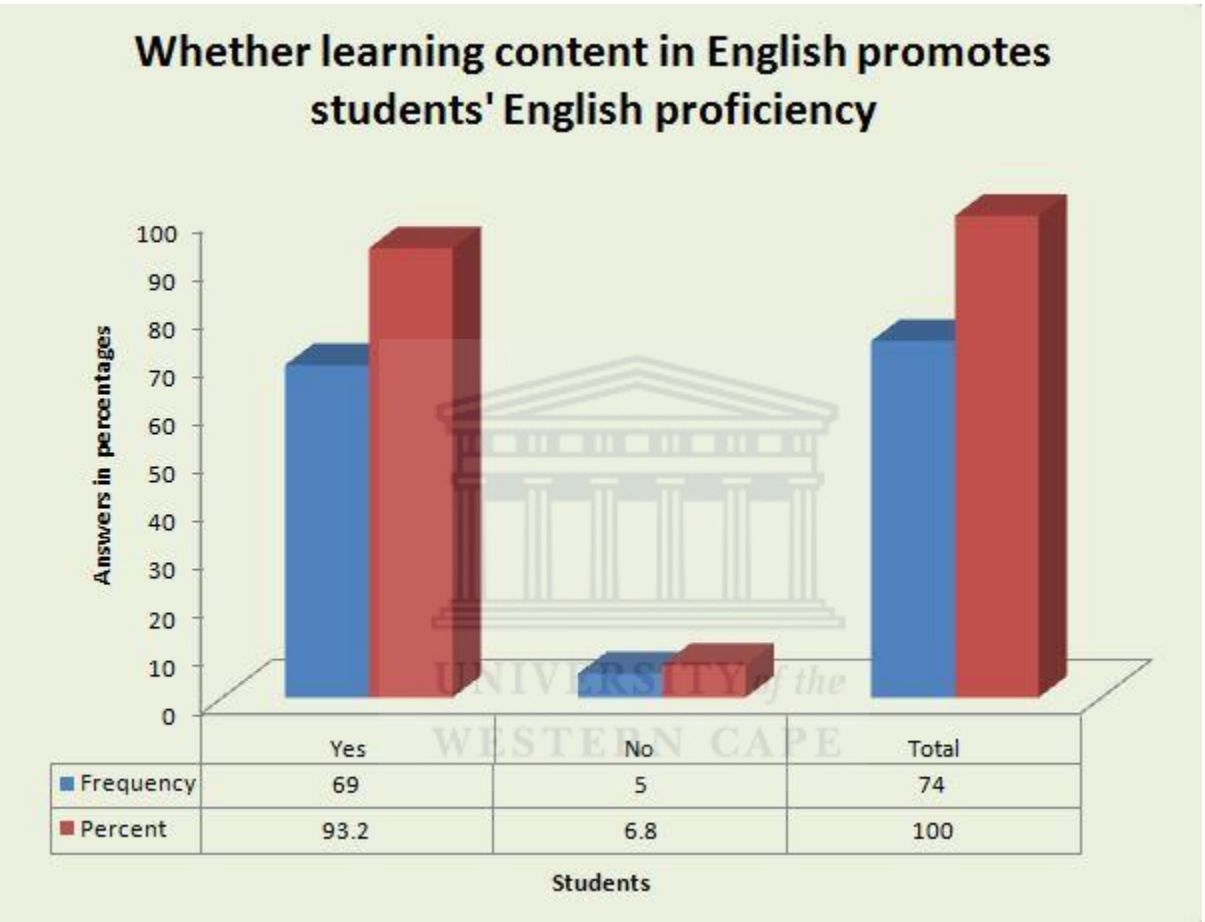
Responses to question 5 provide the following features:

1. 48 (64.9%) out of 74 respondents asserted they felt comfortable while they were using English in group discussions.

2. 26 (35.1%) admitted they were ill at ease during group discussions held in English because they were not sufficiently proficient in this language of instruction.

The number of students (N=48) who admitted they were at ease discussing in English during group work is much larger than those (N=26) who avowed they were uncomfortable because they were not sufficiently skilled in this language.

Figure 4. 6 Whether learning content subjects in English helps develop the students' English skills



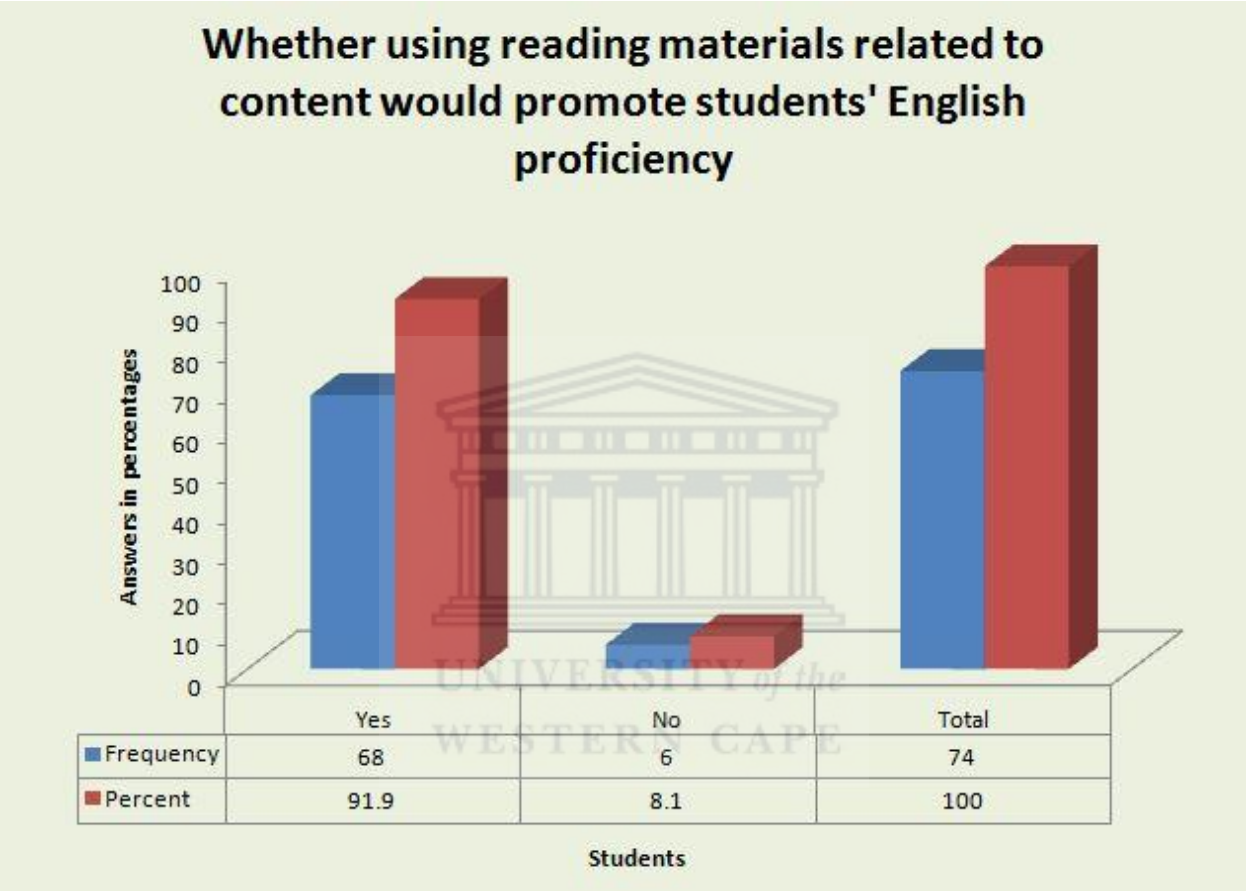
The following are features highlighted in the students' replies to question 6:

1. 69 (93.2%) out of 74 respondents maintained that learning content through English enabled them to develop their English proficiency.

2. 5 (6.8%) students acknowledged they did not notice any growth in terms of English skills.

The number of students (N=69) who recognised that being instructed in English enhanced their English skills is far larger than that of students (N=5) who confessed they did not perceive any growth in terms of English proficiency.

Figure 4. 7 Whether using reading materials related to the students' content subjects would aid them to learn English better



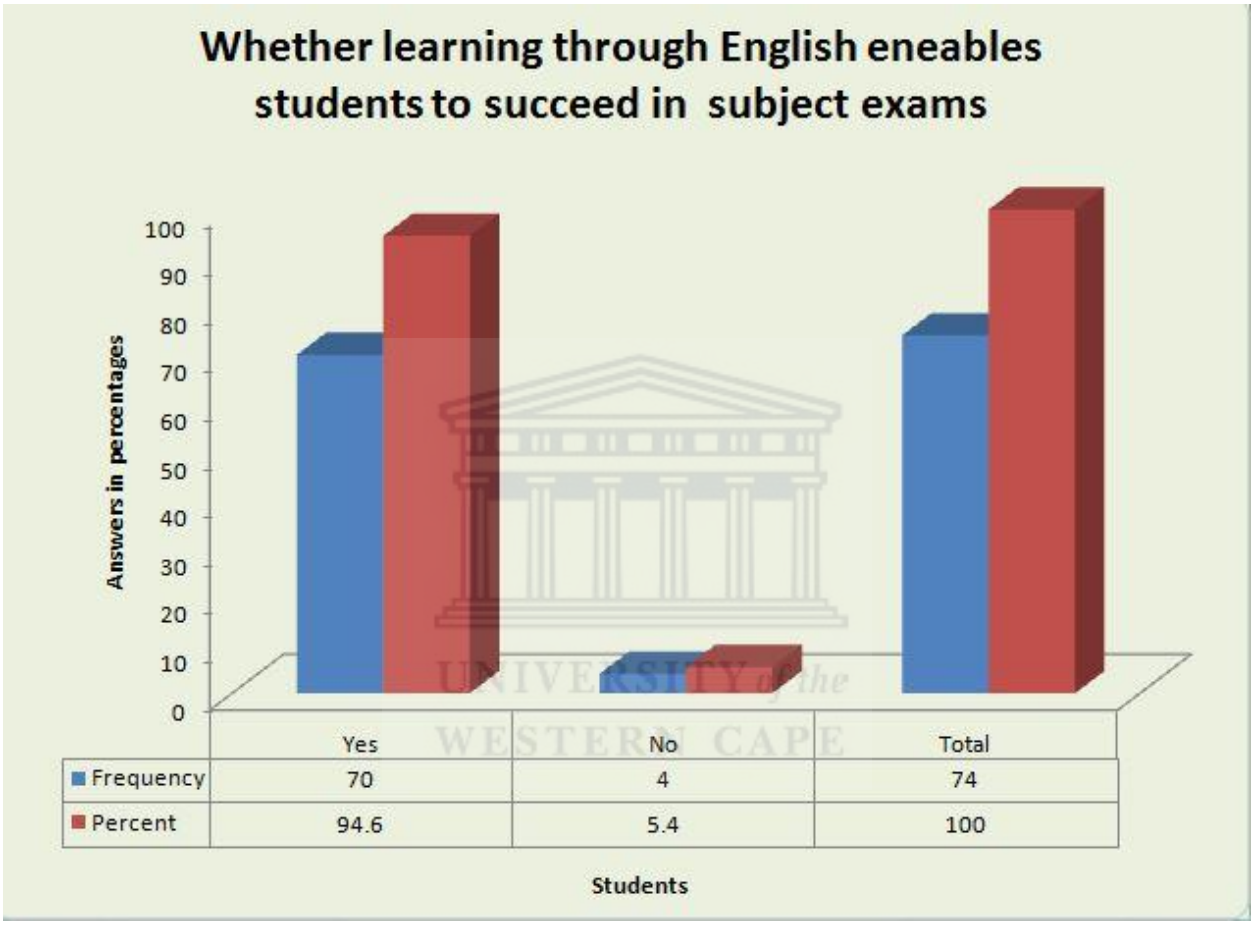
The following features arise from the students' responses to question 7:

1. 68 (91.9%) students out of 74 affirmed that using reading materials related to their content subjects boosted their English skills.

2. 6 (8.1%) respondents confessed that it did not help them.

The students (N=68) who purported that reading materials associated to their content subjects allowed them to develop their English proficiency are many more than those (N=6) who declared that such materials did not improve their proficiency in English.

Figure 4. 8 Whether using English as a language of instruction allows the students to respond well in content subjects exams



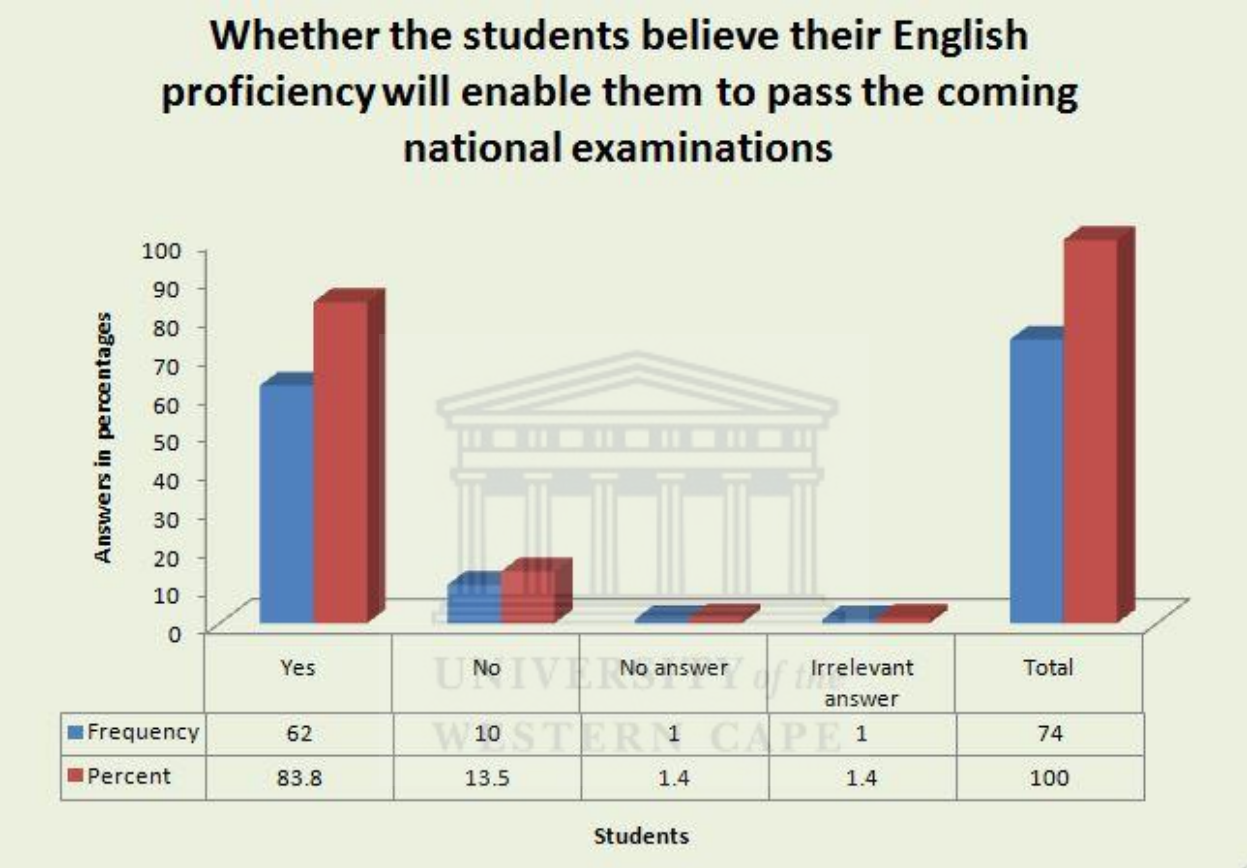
The main features of the respondents' answers to question 8 are the following:

1. 70 (94.6 %) out of 74 students contended that learning in English allowed them to obtain good results in subject exams.

2. Only 4 (5.4%) students stated that being instructed in English prevented them from understanding their subjects so they did not achieve well at school.

The number of students (N=70) who claimed that being instructed in English enabled them to perform academically is a lot larger than that of students (N=4) who stated that this language did not permit them to pass their subject exams.

Figure 4. 9 Whether the students believe they will satisfactorily succeed in the coming national examinations considering their English proficiency



The following features are highlighted in the students' responses to question 9:

1. 62 (83.8%) respondents out of 74 believed that the English proficiency they would have attained by the end of the school year would allow them to succeed in the national examinations set for the Third Forms (9 YBE classes).

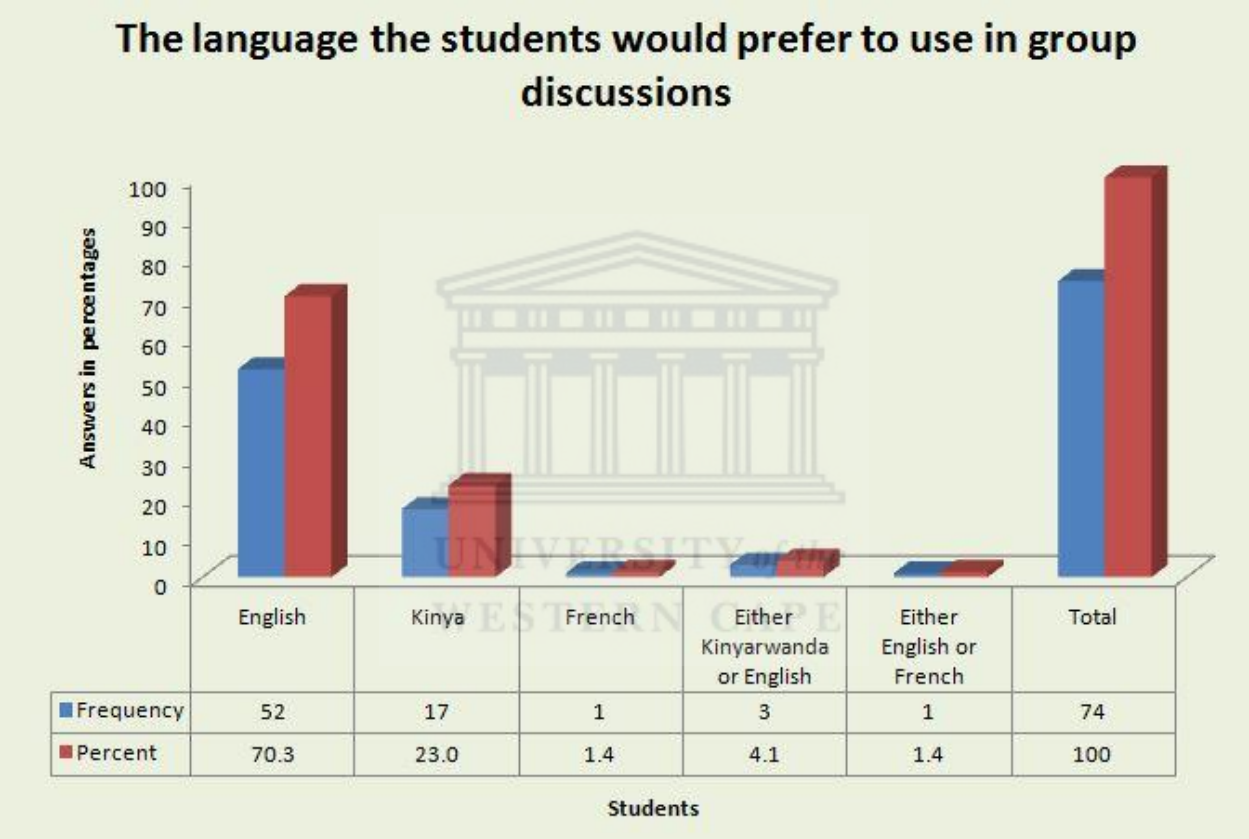
2. 10 (13.5%) respondents expected not to pass because, in their opinion, their English skills would not have improved by the time they sat for the national examinations.

3. 1 (1.4%) student gave no answer.

4. 1 (1.4%) student provided an irrelevant reply.

Most of the students (N=62) were confident they would succeed in the end-of year national examinations. A few students (N=10), however, thought they would not pass as they believed they would not be sufficiently proficient in English to answer their subject exams successfully.

Figure 4. 10 The language the students would prefer to use in classroom group discussions



The features from the students' replies to question 10 are shown below:

1. 52 (70.3%) respondents out of 74 declared they preferred to use English during classroom group discussions.

2. 17 (23%) students opted for Kinyarwanda

3. 1 (1.4%) student chose French.

4. 3 (4.1%) respondents would have liked to use either Kinyarwanda or English.

5. 1 student preferred (1.4%) to speak either English or French.

Most students (N=52) preferred to discuss in English during group work. Fewer students (N=22) would have liked discussions to be carried out either in Kinyarwanda, or in English and Kinyarwanda at the same time or in French.

Table 4. 1 Whether the students succeed better in English or in content subjects

Answers	**Frequency**	**Percent**
English	33	44.6
Content subjects	32	43.2
Succeed neither in English nor in content subjects	3	4.1
Succeed in Kinyarwanda only	1	1.4
Irrelevant answers	5	6.8
Total	**74**	**100**

The following are features displayed in the students' responses to question 11:

1. 33 (44.6%) students out of 74 affirmed they performed better in English than in content subjects.

2. 32 (43.2%) students stated they succeeded better in content subjects.

3. 3 (4.1%) contended that they did not succeed in English or in content subjects.

4. 1 (1.4%) respondent said she succeeded in Kinyarwanda only.

5. 5 (6.8%) respondents provided irrelevant answers.

Slightly more students (N=33) affirmed they succeeded better in English. Others (N=32) claimed they performed better in content subjects. However, the gap between the two groups of students is very small as the number of respondents who claimed they achieved better in English is only slightly larger than those who affirmed they succeeded better in content subjects. Few students

(N=4) contended that they performed badly both in English and content subjects or that they did well in Kinyarwanda only.

Table 4. 2 Teaching strategies that the students would most like their English teachers to use to develop their English proficiency

Answers	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Having regular homework	10	13.5
Mixing English and Kinyarwanda	32	43.2
Teaching vocabulary through reading	7	9.5
Encouraging group discussions	16	21.6
Using English more than any other language	2	2.7
More interactions with the teacher	2	2.7
Debates and presentations	3	4.1
Irrelevant answers	2	2.7
Total	**74**	**100**

The following data emerge from students' replies to question 12:

1. 32 (43.2%) students out of 74 wanted that English and Kinyarwanda be mixed.

2. 16 (21.6 %) students were for group discussions.

3. 10 (13.5%) wished that their English teachers gave them regular homework.

4. 7 (9.5%) respondents believed they could learn English better if vocabulary was taught through reading texts.

5. 3 (4.1%) wanted regular debates and presentations in English.

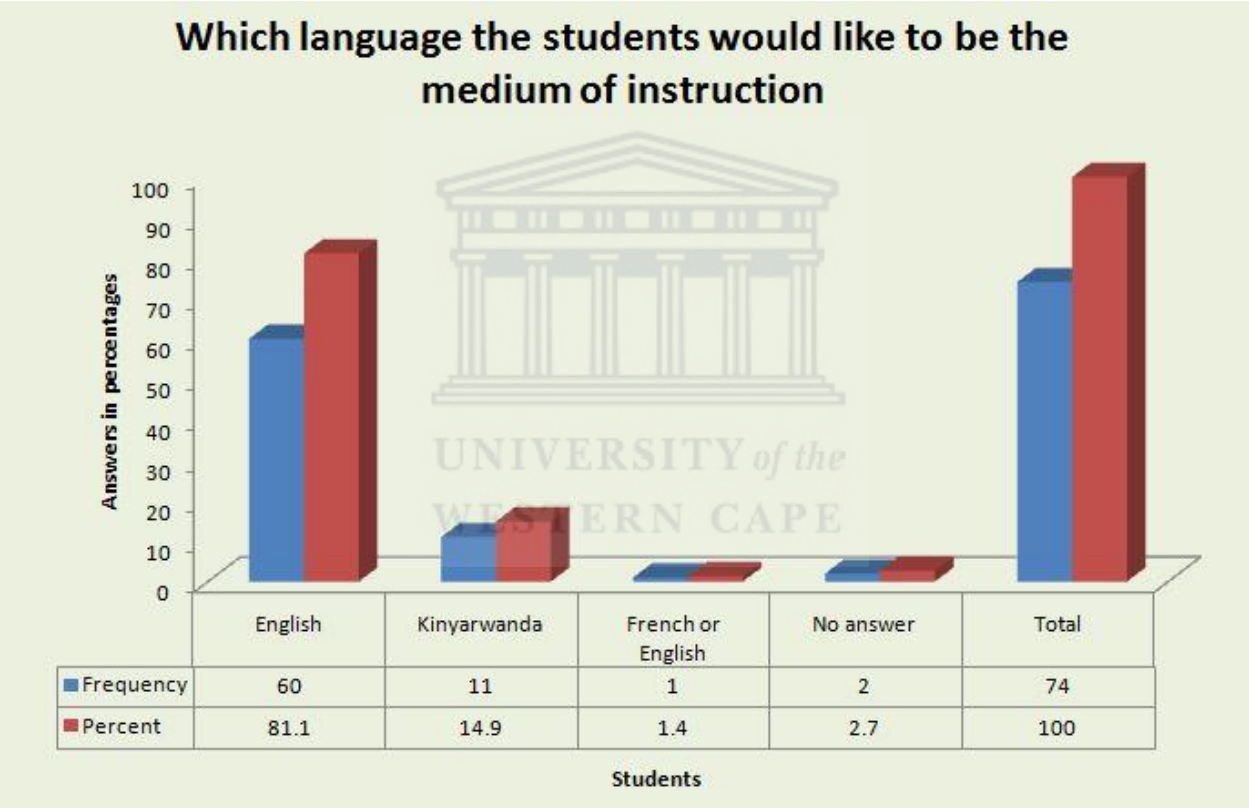
6. 2 (2.7%) more interactions with their English teachers.

7. 1 student (1.4%) wanted that they use English more than any other languages.

8. 2 (2.7%) students supplied irrelevant answers.

Most students (N=32) wanted their English teachers to use code-switching between English and Kinyarwanda as a strategy that would develop their English skills better. A good number of respondents (N=16) also believed that group discussions in English would enhance their proficiency in this language effectively. 24 students enumerated other techniques that also merit consideration such as having regular assignments, using the context of reading texts to increase their English vocabulary, participating in debates, giving oral presentations and engaging in more interactions with their English teachers.

Figure 4. 11 Which language the students would suggest to be medium of instruction if they were given the choice



These are the features highlighted in the students' responses to question 13:

1. 60 (81.1%) respondents out of 74 claimed that they preferred English to be the language of instruction.

2. 11 (14.9%) respondents preferred Kinyarwanda.
3. 1 (1.4%) student stated that she wanted either French or English.
4. 2 (2.7%) students gave irrelevant replies.

Most students (N=60) preferred that English be maintained as the language of instruction, but a few (N=12) wanted to be taught in Kinyarwanda, French or English.

4.3.1 Summary of the responses to the questionnaire

The responses to the questionnaire allowed the researcher to capture various opinions from the 74 respondents. Below, I highlight the replies that were provided by most students to each of the 13 questions.

1. Thirty-nine (52.7%) students wished they could be taught in Kinyarwanda.
2. Seventy-two (97.3%) respondents affirmed that group discussions in English fostered their English proficiency.
3. Sixty-one (82.4%) students attested they participated in classroom group discussions held in English.
4. Forty-eight (64.9%) respondents purported that they did not have problems with speaking English during classroom group discussions.
5. Sixty-nine (93.2%) respondents claimed that being instructed in English boosted their English skills.
6. Sixty-eight (91.9%) students confirmed that reading materials associated to their content subjects enhanced their English skills.
7. Seventy (94.6%) students declared that learning in English enabled them to pass their subject exams.
8. Sixty-two (83.8%) respondents stated that they believed their English proficiency would allow them to succeed in national examinations.

9. Fifty-two (70.3%) students claimed they preferred classroom group discussions in English.

10. Thirty-three (44.6%) students indicated that they succeeded better in English than in content subjects.

11. Thirty-two (43.2) respondents wished that the code-switching technique be used more than other learning techniques.

12. Sixty (81.1%) respondents preferred English to be the medium of instruction.

13. Thirty-seven (50%) respondents did not encounter difficulties while learning in English but an equal number acknowledged they did.

The next section presents data that emerged from interviews.

4.4 Interviews

Interviews were administered with the students and their English teachers at School 1, School 2 and School 3. I firstly present the raw data provided by interviews with the students and then the data from interviews with English teachers.

4.4.1 Interviews with 18 students

Guided by the research questions in this study, interviews with students were conducted to complement the data generated by means of classroom observations and the questionnaire, to learn how the students perceived the use of English as a medium of instruction in Rwanda, and the way in which they would like to learn and be taught this language to achieve proficiency in it.

As I chose to carry out one-to-one semi-structured interviews, nine key questions were designed to orientate the interview in order not to deviate much from the main focus since this type of interview also allows for follow-up questions. The interview questions were translated in Kinyarwanda as the students had requested to allow them to comprehend the questions fully and to express their thoughts easily. They all spoke this mother tongue well. I first present their

answers in Kinyarwanda and then provide an English version. Eighteen students (six students in each class) responded to the same interview questions. As indicated in Chapter 3, the average number of students in the three classes was 25. I employed simple random sampling and selected every 4th student from the class lists whose names were organised in alphabetical order. I thus obtained 6 students from each class, making a total of 18 (6X3) students. The letter S (for student) and a numeral (from 1 to 18) were used to designate the 18 respondents.

Below, I provide the interview questions for students in their English version. The Kinyarwanda version is presented as Appendix 2.

1. What can you say about your proficiency in English?
2. Are there any learning/teaching materials at your school that help you develop your English skills? If yes, what are they?
3. Do you actively participate in classroom group discussions in English? Explain.
4. Which language do you prefer to use during classroom discussions with your classmates? Why?
5. Do group discussions in English with your classmates help you improve your English skills in any way?
   - If yes, say how they help.
   - If no, say why they do not help.
6. How does learning in English affect your performance in content subjects?
7. Which strategies would you like your teachers to use to enable you learn English better? Explain.
8. What do you think about learning through the medium of English in Rwanda?
9. Which language would you like to be medium of instruction in Rwanda? Why?

The first interview question was about the students' English proficiency. The responses provided by the respondents are classified in two groups. One group of students (N=14) claimed they had some competency in English. Some such replies are as follows:

> S9: Icyongereza cyanjye urebye ntabwo kiri hasi nta nubwo kiri hejuru kuko wenda ahari ntabwo naganira ngo ndeke kwumva ibyo uvuga bitewe n'amagambo wakoresha wenda ahari yabayoroheje cyangwa akomeye. Kugira ngo rero mbe nakimenya, ni uko nakora cyane wenda ngasoma ibitabo…. Iyo usoma, kenshi hari amagambo ugenda umenya.

The level of my English is neither low nor high because I may or not understand what I am being told depending on how easy or difficult it is. To know English, thus, I have to work hard; perhaps by reading books…. When you read, there are new words you learn.

S14: Ni byiza kuho ngejeje ubungubu. Ni urugendo rurerure. Gusa turacyakomeje, turacyagerageza. Kandi kubikora ubikunze urushaho kubyumva.
The English I have acquired now is good. Learning a language is a long process. But I am trying to make efforts, and when you are interested in learning something, you succeed.

S17: Ubumenyi bwanjye bw'icyongereza mfite urebye ntabwo bushimishije cyane, ariko na none ntabwo ndi wa wundi umeze nka wa muturage wigumiye mu rugo kuburyo umuntu ashobora kuvuga ikintu runaka nkahava nta kintu numvise.
My English knowledge is not very good, but I am not like somebody who has never gone to school and who cannot understand anything of what they are being communicated.

The above students were conscious that they needed to nurture their English skills in order to become more proficient in this language.

Another group of students (N=4) avowed that their English skills were very poor as underlined in the following two excerpts:

S5: Muri make ntabwo buhagije. Icyo navuga ni uko n' umwarimu na we hari ukuntu yakwongera uko atwigisha nyine akagenda aduha nk'ama "texts" dusoma akaduhaho n'ibibazo tukabisubiza. Gutyo, no ku magambo tutumva ibisobanuro byayo akadusobanurira neza kugira ngo tubashe kuruvuga neza.
In a few words, my English knowledge is not satisfactory. What I think is that the English teacher himself should use various strategies like making us read texts and answer related comprehension questions. He should also explain words we do not understand to enable us to increase our English vocabulary so that we can use it to speak this language well.

S5 would like her English teacher to be more engaged in the learning process by devising adequate teaching strategies to enhance his students' English proficiency. She also believed in the power of reading in promoting language development.

S16: Ubumenyi bwanjye, icyongereza ntabwo ari kinshi yane. Icyongereza mba nzi ni gikeya nyine ikinyarwanda ni cyo cyivanga cyane.
My English skills are low. I know little English, and Kinyarwanda interferes when I am trying to speak this foreign language.

The above implies that a shift from the language of instruction to the home language is a strategy that S16 trusted to render communication possible where it had failed in this second language.

The second question was about teaching and learning materials. All the students (N=18) deplored the shortage of learning and teaching resources at their schools as emphasised in the excerpts below:

> S5: Oya, ntabyo. Ibitabo bike bihari tubikoresha mu ishuri gusa. No kubiduha ni intambara ntabwo bapfa kubirekura. Ibibazo n'ibihari n'iyo uje kubitira tuza twikandagira. Ubaye uje kugitira barakwandika, bamara kukwandika niyo ugititiruye ntibibuke kukuvivura baragukurikirana mpaka. N'iyo uje gutora "result slip" barabanza bakavuga ngo ishyura cya gitabo ntibibuke ko wagitanze. Rero no kuza kubitira turatinya. Nta bitabo dutira kuko tuba dufite ubwoba yuko twazabita.
> **There are few learning resources like books that are mainly used in the classroom. Giving us these books is a big issue. They are not lent easily because they are not sufficient and they fear we may lose them. Moreover, when you return a book, the librarian may forget to report it, so it may cause you lots of problems. For example, you may be refused your result slip until you have paid for the book. That is why we fear to borrow these books.**

> S11: Ibikoresho ni bikeya ntabwo bihagije. Iyo bazanye ibitabo, baravuga ngo mwicarane musome. Igihe intebe imwe iri hano, indi iri hano mwicaye muri abantu nka batandatu, bikarangira umuntu atarebye muri cya gitabo. Nyine ubwo ucyegereye akaba ariwe usoma. Na "dictionnaires" ntabwo zikunze kuboneka.
> **Materials are scarce. When the teacher brings books, he gives us one book to share and read in a group of six students. In addition, the sitting arrangement with desks does not facilitate group activities. Consequently, one may end up not having a glimpse in the book as only people within reach of the book can work. Dictionaries are also rare.**

> S12: Ibitabo ni bikeya ntabwo ari byinshi. Ntabwo wagishaka ngo ukimarane n'iminsi ibiri ngo bakiguhe. Iyo ugiye kugitira baguha nk'iminota mirongo ine ngo ukigarure. Ntabwo wakimarana nk'umunsi wose, ntabwo bakwemerera. N'ibindi bitabo ntabwo wabitira ngo babiguhe.
> **The English textbooks are not many. You cannot borrow a book and be allowed to keep it for two days. The librarian only lets you consult it for about forty minutes and cannot even let you borrow other reading materials.**

The above responses stress the fact that learning resources such as books and dictionaries were lacking, or in short supply, at the schools and that students were therefore not free to borrow them. The scarcity of English textbooks compelled them to share one book in groups of 5 or 6 during classroom activities and not everybody managed to see what was in the book. Materials other than books and dictionaries were not mentioned as if they were never used or the students did not know they existed.

The third interview question had to do with the students' participation in group discussions in English. All the interviewed students (N=18) affirmed they actively participated in classroom group discussions in English as highlighted in the quotations below:

> S9: Yego, ibiganiro byo mu matsinda yo kwigiramo ndabyitabira kandi ndabikunda kuko hari byinshi nungukiramo. N'iyo ubigiyemo nta kintu uzi ubaza umuntu uti ibi bintu babikora gute? Akabikwereka ukabimenya. Na we nyine hagira icyo akubaza ukizi ukamubwira. Biramfasha pe. Rimwe na rimwe bagenzi bawe mukorana mu matsinda bashobora no kugufasha kuruta uko mwarimu yabikora.
> **I participate in group discussions in English and I like them because there are many things I learn from them. When you know nothing, you ask a group member and he/she explains to you and you understand. Similarly, I can help my group mates when I know something they do not know. Sometimes, group mates can also help even better than the teacher.**

> S3: Mu biganiro tuganiramwo ndabyitabira. Hari ubwo dushyira mu Kinyarwanda kubera ko n'iyo haba hari bamwe bumva icyongereza ariko si bose. Urumva nyine niba wenda turi muri "group" nk'umu "group member" ikintu kugishyira mu cyongereza bikamunanira, tubanza kukivugaho mu Kinyarwanda noneho abantu nyine bagerageza mu cyongereza tugashyira mu cyongereza ariko twabanje kubivuga mu Kinyarwanda.
> **I participate in group discussions. At times, we speak Kinyarwanda because not everybody understands English. When we are doing group work and a group member fails to say something in English, we discuss it first in Kinyarwanda and then those who are good at English, like me, translate it.**

From the excerpts above, interactions that occurred in group discussions were very advantageous to the students as they permitted them to collaborate freely and support each other in their endeavours to develop their English skills. Moreover, during group tasks, the students shifted to Kinyarwanda, their mother tongue, to better negotiate meanings because it was the language that they all spoke and understood better.

The fourth question dealt with the language that the students preferred to use in group discussions. Most students (N=15) chose English and furnished varied reasons as expressed below:

> S3: Nahitamo icyongereza kubera yuko icyongereza ni cyo mparanira kuba namenya. Kubera ko ikinyarwanda no mu buzima busanzwe ni cyo mvuga, ari na rwo rurimi rwanjye, ndashaka kumenya urundi rurimi.
> **I would choose English because it is the language I want to know. As I speak Kinyarwanda in my everyday life and it is my mother tongue, I want to learn another language.**

S10: Nahitamo ururimi rw'icyongereza kuko nyine arirwo abantu benshi bakoresha. Kandi ugiye nko hanze y'igihugu, ntabwo wagenda uvuga ikinyarwanda kandi abaho batakizi. Tugomba nyine gushyiramo imbaraga tugakoresha icyo cyongereza kuko n'ubundi n'ahandi hose ari cyo bari gukoresha.
I would choose English because it is the language that many people speak. Even if you went abroad, you would not communicate in Kinyarwanda because foreigners do not understand it. We must make effort to learn and use English because it is the most used international language.

The above excerpts suggest that the students viewed English not only as an artefact that served to mediate their learning but also as a tool of communication that could widen their horizons.

Few respondents (N=3) opted for Kinyarwanda as emphasised in the following:

S16: Ikinyarwanda ni cyo kiza imbere kuko ni cyo mpita numva.
I prefer Kinyarwanda because it is the language I understand more.

S16 implied that Kinyarwanda, her mother tongue, enabled her to express her thoughts effectively as it was the language that she understood much better than any other language.

The fifth question was about whether classroom group discussions promoted the students' English proficiency. All the respondents (N=18) recognised that group discussions helped them to improve their English skills as shown in the following quotations:

S17: Birafasha cyane rwose. Kuko hari igihe wenda muri "group work" nta muntu uba uzi byose. Buriya n'umuhanga hari ikintu na we aba atari kumva akakimenya ariho arakorana n'abandi.
It helps very much as nobody knows everything. Even bright students can learn things when they are working with others.

S14: Yego kubera yuko iyo uri kumwe n'abandi banyeshuli biba ari ibintu byoroshye kwisanzura udatinya gukora amakosa kuko uvuga uti barankosora. Kandi icyo mwavugiye muri "group" ukibuka byoroshye kuruta uko mwarimu yaza akandika ku kibaho.
Yes, because when you are having group discussions, you relax and you do not fear to make mistakes for you know your friends will correct you. In addition, you remember something you discuss in group more easily than what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.

The above quotations indicate that the students acknowledged the usefulness of peer interactions in the development of their English skills. The more knowledgeable students scaffold the less informed but in the end everybody gains something. Furthermore, things learnt in groups are not forgotten easily.

The sixth question was about the impact of English, as the language of instruction, on the students' academic performance. Many respondents (14) asserted that English enabled them to perform academically as highlighted in the excerpts below:

> S8: Urebye icyongereza cyanjye ntabwo ari kibi. Imitsindire imeze neza. Nta kibazo ngira cyo kwumva ibizamini kuko n'ubundi tuba twarabyize muri icyo cyongereza ugasanga biroroshye.
> **My English is not bad. I succeed in my courses. I do not have difficulty with understanding exam questions posed in English because content subjects are taught in this language.**

> S6: Kwiga mu rurimi rw'icyongereza bituma ayandi masomo nyatsinda. Iyo uzi icyongereza biragufasha kuko andi masomo yigishwa mu rurimi rw'icyongereza.
> **Learning in English allows me to succeed in other subjects. When you know English, it helps because the other subjects are taught through this medium.**

These excerpts suggest that proficiency in the medium of instruction is a precondition for learners to succeed in content subjects.

Few learners (N=4) confessed that English affected their school achievement negatively as maintained below:

> S4: Ingaruka? Hari ubwo mba ntari kumva ikibazo ntari kugisobanukirwa ariko nzi igisubizo. Ariko kukivuga cyangwa kucyumva bikaba imbogamizi kubera ururimi.
> **Sometimes, I fail to grasp a question when I may know the answer, and I am unable to respond because of the language problem.**

This quotation from S4 implies that a student may know things but fail to express herself or convey her message effectively simply because she is not competent in the language of instruction.

The seventh question had to do with the teaching strategies that the students preferred and that could enhance their English skills. The respondents proposed different learning techniques as illustrated below:

> S3: Ndifuza ko mwarimu w'icyongereza yazajya aza mw'ishuli nyine tuvuga icyongereza nyine mu masaha y'icyongereza tutavanga n' ikinyarwanda. Mwarimu yajya aduha n'umwanya wenda tukaganira mu cyongereza nk'isaha yose, tukajya tunaganira na we.
> **I would like my English teacher to make us speak only English during English language classes and not keep shifting to Kinyarwanda. He could also save about one hour to let us discuss in English and interact with him.**

S3 believed that using English only, without switching to the home language Kinyarwanda, enabled the students to enhance their proficiency in this language of instruction.

In the following excerpt by S4, group work was believed to allow the students to be exposed to different knowledge from different people and to assist each other in the learning process.

> S4: Gukorera mu matsinda yo kwigiramo ni byo nahitamo. Muri "group" muba muri benshi mufite ubumenyi butandukanye. N'imyumvire yo kwumva ikintu iba itandukanye. Iyo mukoreye hamwe biba byiza murafashanya.
> **I would prefer the group work technique. In a group, you are many and you have got varied knowledge. Furthermore, the way people understand things is different. When you work together, it is good because you help each other.**

S6 thought that mixing the language of instruction and the students' mother tongue was a good strategy the English teacher should use to help them develop skills in this second language.

> S6: Imyigishirize nifuza ni uko mwarimu yajya yigisha noneho nyuma nkamubaza ibyo ntasobanukiwe neza mu kinyarwanda kugirango mbisobanukirwe neza kuruta.
> **The learning technique I would like is that our teacher teaches in English and then explains in Kinyarwanda things that have not been understood.**

The next quotation from S15 implies that reading materials written in the language of instruction is a technique that fosters the students' skills in this language.

> S15: Jyewe ukuntu mbyumva, ni ukuzana ibitabo bigiye bitandukanye dusoma ama "story" mwarimu akajya adushyira imbere tukavuga ibyo twasomyemo.
> **I think that our English teacher should bring a variety of books in class, make us read and then request us to narrate the stories we have read.**

The eighth question was about the students' conceptions of English as the medium of instruction. All the respondents (N=18) maintained that being instructed in English was advantageous to them as depicted in the two quotations below:

> S6: Ni byiza ko twiga mu cyongereza kubera ko bizadufasha. Kuko imirimo yose ntabwo tuzayikora mu Rwanda. Ushobora kwiga ibintu runaka bikaba ngombwa ko ujya kubikoresha hanze. Kugira ngo uzabashe kwisanga muri sosiyete uzaba ugiyemo, byaba byiza ko uba warize icyongereza.
> **It is good that we are taught in English because it will be useful. We will not necessarily get jobs in Rwanda. You can find a job abroad and in order to interact with this society, you must have learnt English.**

S9: Kwiga mu cyongereza ni iterambere. Ni twiga mu kinyarwanda, kandi ikinyarwanda hanze y'igihugu ntaho bakiga, urumva biragoranye. Kandi noneho, u Rwanda ni igihugu kiri mu nzira y'iterambere bivuze ngo ntabwo turagera aho twifuza kugera. Ntabwo turihaza muri byose. Turacyaterwa inkunga n'ibyo bihugu byateye imbere. Biradufasha rero ni ngombwa ngo tugikoreshe.
Learning in English is essential for us Rwandans because it can help us to know this language, so we can easily communicate with our donor countries that we still depend on.

The excerpts above signify that English is a global language and to manage to live in this world, it is a must for Rwandans to learn it. In addition, Rwanda is still dependent on foreign aid, so Rwandans must know English to cooperate with donor countries.

The ninth question dealt with the language the students preferred to be the medium of instruction in Rwanda. Two different views emerged from the respondents' replies. 16 students preferred to be taught in English, and 2 students chose Kinyarwanda. The main reasons the students advanced for justifying their choices are underlined in the excerpts below:

S4: Nahitamo icyongereza. Mu karere duhereryemo, EAC (East African Community), ni rwo mbona rufite imbaraga kurusha izindi. Cyagufasha rero mu myigire cyangwa kw'isoko ry'umurimo.
I would choose English as it enjoys a higher status than other languages in the East African Community where we belong. Knowing English can enable me to follow studies in any of these countries or to compete at the regional job market.

S4 considered English as a language of opportunities in the East African region so Rwandans would gain by learning it.

In the next quotation, S10 also conceived English as a tool that could facilitate communication in the entire world. However, she stressed the fact that the mother tongue should be protected.

S10: Twakwiga mu cyongereza kugirango kandi kizadufashe aho tuzajya hose kandi tumenye urundi rurimi. Ariko kandi tutibagiwe n'ikinyarwanda cyacu. Turi abanyarwanda.
We should be instructed in English to learn an additional language and to be able to communicate with the many people who speak it all around the word. However, we should not undermine Kinyarwanda, our mother tongue.

In the excerpt below, S15 emphasised the fact that students who are not proficient in a second language think first in their mother tongue, as the language that they comprehend, and next translate their ideas in the language of instruction.

S15: Wenda hari ubushobozi u Rwanda rufite, numva jyewe twakwiga mu Kinyarwanda. Ururimi rwacu ni gakondo, ibitekerezo byose utekereje biza mu kinyarwanda ugahita ubishyira mu cyongereza. Gurtyo, kubyumva mu kinyarwanda ugahita ubishyira mu cyongereza ni ibintu biba bisa naho bibangamye.
If there were teaching resources elaborated in Kinyarwanda, I would prefer to be taught in this mother tongue because it is the language that I understand much more than any other languages. Currently, I first think in Kinyarwanda and then translate my thoughts in the English medium, which is challenging to me.

The next section presents data generated by interviews with the English teachers at School 1, School 2 and School 3.

4.4.2 Interviews with English teachers

Interviews with the English teachers were conducted to supplement the raw data provided by classroom observations as one data collection technique alone could not furnish all expected responses. The researcher chose to administer one-to-one semi-structured interviews in order to respect the teachers' autonomy and also offer them opportunities to elaborate on their responses. These interviews specifically aimed to inform the researcher about what the English teachers thought of their students' English proficiency, which techniques they deployed to enable their students to develop skills in this language and their conceptions of the use of English as medium of instruction in Rwanda. Nine interview questions were also put to the teachers.

Below, I provide the interview questions as they were put to the English teachers.

1. What can you say about your students' English proficiency?
2. Which learning/teaching strategies do you devise to enable your students to develop their English skills and so cope with content subjects?
3. Which teaching materials do you use to promote the learning of English?
4. Do you think classroom group discussions in English can help students develop their language skills? Explain.
5. What do you think of teaching English through content?
6. Do you think collaboration between English teachers and content-subject teachers is essential?
- If yes, why is it important?
- If no, why do you think it is not important?
7. What is the impact of English as medium of instruction on your students' performance in content subjects?

8. How do you perceive the use of English as medium of instruction in Rwanda?
9. Which language would you suggest to be the language of instruction in Rwanda? Why?

The first question dealt with their students' English proficiency. All three teachers, T1, T2 and T3, recognised that, although their students' skills were still low, they were happy with the progress they were making and were confident that their proficiency in this language of instruction would be enhanced with time. This assertion is reflected in the following reply:

> T3: I would say the English proficiency for my students is being improved. And, gradually as long as we get the materials, it will be better than it is now.

Although T3 acknowledged that his students' skills in English were developing, he confessed the lack of learning resources at his school. He believed, however, that if these problems were remedied, his students would become more skilled in English.

> T1: Now, it is hard but they are improving somehow. If you look at the beginning up to now, we can say that there is an improvement because they are trying some new vocabularies, they are trying to make correct sentences. Now we can say that there is the best.

T1 was also glad about his students' level of English but wrongly measured their competence in this language against their ability to construct correct sentences and use newly learnt vocabularies.

T2 was confident that his students' English proficiency would keep on improving with time. Below, I quote T2's response:

> I can say that their proficiency is not higher than we expected, but if they try …and it comes little by little. And at the end, when they are ready to sit the national examinations, they have some competences on what they have studied in the whole year.

The second question enquired about the learning strategies the English teachers devised in their classrooms. All three teachers stated they used group work as illustrated in the following quotation:

> T3: The strategy we are using is always group discussion and sometimes pair discussion, work. They gain communication and collaboration in the discussions, in terms of English proficiency. Of course, the group discussion is done in English and the pair work in English, so they improve their communication skills in that way.

The above indicates that the English teachers considered group work as a space where their students could interact and collaborate freely and, hence, support each other to develop their English skills.

T3 also made mention of other teaching techniques that he used to supplement group work and that fostered his students' English proficiency:

> T3: Sometimes, my students work individually. I can put a topic on the blackboard and I tell them to perform individually so that they can do it. They also do oral presentations. I can give them a topic, and, sometimes, and they go to present. And I mark what they have done.

The third question was about the teaching materials. All three teachers denounced the lack of teaching resources at their schools. T1 and T3 expressed this challenge as follows:

> T1: So, that is, it is not an easy question because if you look, in this area we don't have enough materials. That is an arrangement to use those books from REB (Rwanda Education Board). They are very few. They bring samples only. They can bring three or four books and you see that they are very few. And we are borrowing books from other schools.

> T3: Seven students are using one book, so the teaching materials are not enough. We don't even have audio-visual materials.

From the above teachers' quotations, it appears as if the English textbooks were the only teaching resources that the schools possessed, and even these were very scarce. Other learning materials were non-existent.

The fourth question dealt with group discussions and development of the students' English skills. T1, T2 and T3 acknowledged the importance of group discussions. The following excerpts explain this usefulness:

T2: When the students discuss in their groups, it helps them to be able to work together and if some of them have some weakness, they can improve by learning from others who have enough skills.

T3: Yes, they do. If they try, if they do their activity actively, participate actively, it promotes those who are shy because they discuss and everybody has a task in their group discussion. Then it promotes them.

The teachers accorded value to group work as this learning technique enabled their students to assist one another in their learning and also helped them to develop self-confidence.

The fifth question concerned teaching English through content. The three teachers unanimously stated that teaching English through content enhanced their students' English skills. The following serves as an illustration:

T2: It is very helpful for the students. For example, you have the topic area to use, for example you talk about the business and they learn vocabulary used in business, in shopping, something like this.

T3: As we have seen, these days we are reading as many stories as possible, and they are answering the questions of comprehension so it is nice. Now, they are studying grammar in the content of the story. I've seen it is good.

According to what the teachers claimed, teaching English through content was a valuable technique as it provided the context through which their students could learn the specialist vocabularies related to their different fields of study as well as grammatical structures.

The sixth question dealt with collaboration between English teachers and subject-content teachers. T1, T2 and T3 purported that collaboration with subject teachers was a must. T2 and T3 explain it as follows:

T1: Of course. That is why we make what we call departments because English is connected to other subjects. If, for example, I am teaching the unit on environment, it is better if I collaborate with the geography teacher because he knows better in the field.

T3: Yes, it is very important. Because in English, nowadays the texts we are using are related to other subjects. Yes, we collaborate. For example, when I am reading the Biology and I find I am not acquainted to the terms, I go to the Biology teacher.

T1 and T3 recognised that when they collaborated, subject teachers explained to them things they did not understand because they were not specialists in the field. The English teachers understood collaboration as being provided explanations only. However, collaboration also means that subject teachers advise English teachers on which relevant topics to teach and in turn English teachers help content-subject teachers to cope with any English difficulties they might encounter in their teaching.

The seventh question was related to the impact of English, as medium of instruction, on the students' academic performance. The English teachers furnished opposite opinions on the effect that English had on their students' success in content subjects. T2 and T3 admitted that English had a positive impact but explained their views differently as shown below:

> T2: The students are progressing not only at the national level but also at the international level because all those subjects are conceived at the international level and this widens the improvement and the extension of knowledge through all over the world.

T2's explication was rather vague and did not demonstrate the effect that English had on his students' academic performance.

> T3: It is positive impact simply because, in other subjects, their presentation is done well through the language they have learnt from other subjects and the English they have as the very subject.

In the above, T3 suggested that English affected his students' learning positively. He maintained that the students' English developed during both English and subject classrooms and that this allowed them to attain positive school achievements.

T1 suggested that English did not have a good effect on his students' performance as it did not facilitate them to succeed well.

> T1: It is somehow not good. It is not very well because some teachers of other courses, other subjects, sometimes they are shouting, or they are telling me, "Oh, what do you teach to your students?" They say that when they look at what they have written, "See, is it you the English teacher? They must have good English."

The eighth question dealt with the teachers' perceptions of English as a medium of instruction in Rwanda. All three teachers perceived it was essential that English be used as the language of instruction as depicted in the following excerpts:

> T1: Now, it is becoming better. At first, it was challenging but now we are adapting. And in adaptation, we are finding that it is good because it helps learners to know not only one language and we know they are improving because their minds are opening.

T1 held that learning in English allowed the students to know another language besides Kinyarwanda and this was an asset for they could communicate in this target language.

As for T3, he considered English as a means of income generation and a communication tool that could aid Rwandans to compete in the EAC market.

> T3: It is important to use English to expand our source of income. Just because we are in the EAC (East African Community), we are using that language mostly. That's why we will be able to go to the East African market place.

The ninth question had to do with the language that the English teachers preferred to be the medium of instruction. The teachers gave different opinions. T2 and T3 preferred English whereas T1 liked French. The quotations below illustrate the teachers' views:

> T3: Of course, English. We have seen that we will benefit from the East African market. All over the world, we've seen that many countries in the world are now using English. That's why we have to see where we can connect globally, not only around ourselves in our neighbours but we can go away in England, America and elsewhere.

For T3, English is an international language that can facilitate cooperation between people all over the world.

T1 below argued that French was more suitable than English to serve in the area of education.

> T1: I would suggest French. I think French could be a language of instruction because if you look at English, English must be a language of business. Because when you are teaching in French, immediately you see that you are in the domain of education, for me. But English somehow, it is considered as a language of those rich men who are doing business. Then, I would suggest French.

However, T1's arguments are not convincing because any language can serve as a language of instruction or of business. I suspect that the reason behind his choice was that, perhaps, as many other Rwandans, he knew French better than English and did not feel comfortable teaching in the latter language. During my classroom observations, I observed that T1 often made errors and would repeat them.

4.4.3 Summary of the interviews

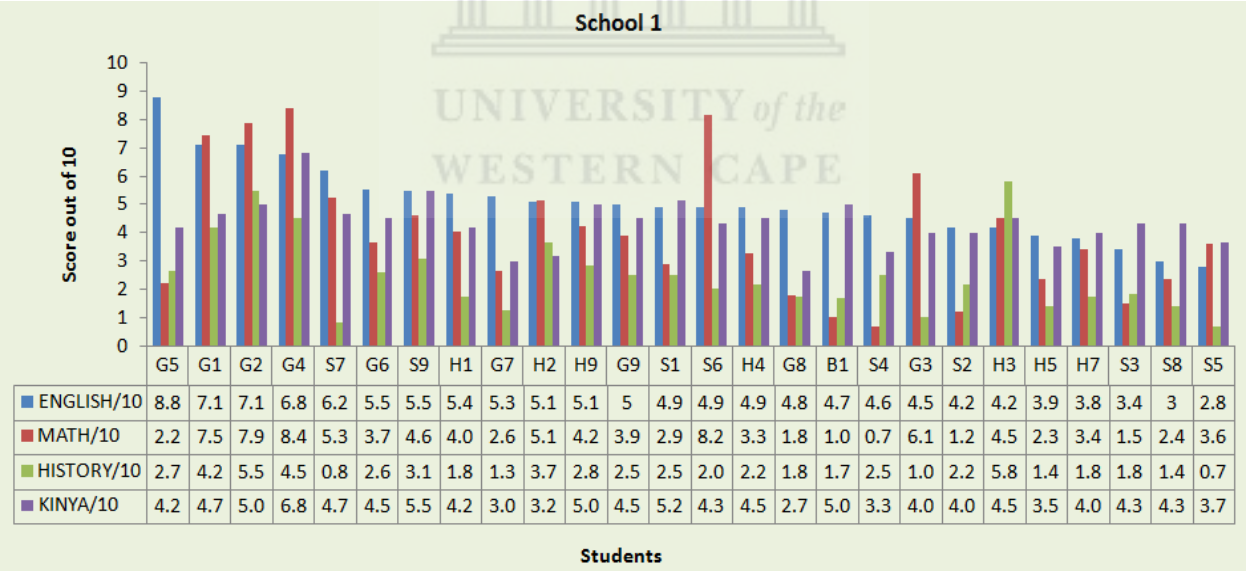
This section presented the data that were revealed through interviews with the students and with the English teachers. First, many students declared they had good English skills. The English teachers were also happy with the improvement their students were making. Second, among the learning strategies that enhanced the English skills, group work was mentioned by a large number of students as well as their teachers. Third, the shortage of learning and teaching resources at the schools was denounced by both the students and the teachers. Fourth, all the students contended that they actively participated in group discussions in English and preferred to use English. A few, however, wanted to use Kinyarwanda because they felt more comfortable in using their language. The students and their teachers also acknowledged that peer discussions promoted the learning of English. Fifth, many students claimed English had a positive impact on their performance in content subjects. T1 and T3 also asserted that the effect was positive. Sixth, the students perceived that it was important that English be used as the language of instruction in Rwanda because it could offer them a lot of opportunities. Nevertheless, when questioned on which language they preferred, a few students stated it was Kinyarwanda. T2 and T3 also preferred that English be the medium of instruction, but T1 chose French. Seventh, the students and their teachers found that teaching English through content was very interesting and boosted proficiency in English. Eighth, the English teachers maintained they gained a lot from collaborating with subject teachers.

The next section presents the data from the students' exam results.

4.5 Students' results

In addition to classroom observations, questionnaires and interviews, data were also collected through students' exam results of the second term of 2018. The following graphs indicate the students' performance in English (in descending order), Mathematics, History and Kinyarwanda. I have included Kinyarwanda to observe if there was correlation in performance between the results in the language of instruction and in the students' mother tongue. Research has demonstrated that a learner's proficiency in the language of instruction may positively influence second language development (Benson, 2014; Civan & Coskun, 2016; Desai, 2016; Qorro, 2006). The scores were originally out of 100, but the researcher converted them out of 10 to facilitate the presentation. Moreover, for the sake of confidentiality, letters drawn from the school names and numerals were used instead of utilising the students' names. I first present the results of each individual class separately but will later compare the students' successes and failures from the three classes.

Figure 4. 12 School 1 students' results



	G5	G1	G2	G4	S7	G6	S9	H1	G7	H2	H9	G9	S1	S6	H4	G8	B1	S4	G3	S2	H3	H5	H7	S3	S8	S5
ENGLISH/10	8.8	7.1	7.1	6.8	6.2	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.1	5.1	5	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.2	4.2	3.9	3.8	3.4	3	2.8
MATH/10	2.2	7.5	7.9	8.4	5.3	3.7	4.6	4.0	2.6	5.1	4.2	3.9	2.9	8.2	3.3	1.8	1.0	0.7	6.1	1.2	4.5	2.3	3.4	1.5	2.4	3.6
HISTORY/10	2.7	4.2	5.5	4.5	0.8	2.6	3.1	1.8	1.3	3.7	2.8	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.2	1.8	1.7	2.5	1.0	2.2	5.8	1.4	1.8	1.8	1.4	0.7
KINYA/10	4.2	4.7	5.0	6.8	4.7	4.5	5.5	4.2	3.0	3.2	5.0	4.5	5.2	4.3	4.5	2.7	5.0	3.3	4.0	4.0	4.5	3.5	4.0	4.3	4.3	3.7

The graph provides the following information:

1. 12 students out of 26 obtained half of the marks in English. Their score ranged between 8.8 and 5 out of 10 marks. 14 students, more than half of the class, failed English. They had between 4.9 and 2.8 marks.

2. 7 students out of 26 succeeded in Mathematics as they scored between 8.4 and 5.1 marks. 19 students failed. They scored between 4.6 and 0.7 marks.

3. Only 2 students out of 26 succeeded in History with 5.8 and 5.5 marks. 24 students did not pass. They had between 4.5 and 0.7 marks.

4. Only 6 students out of 26 had half of the marks in Kinyarwanda. They scored between 6.8 and 5.0 marks. 20 students failed. Their marks varied between 4.7 and 2.7.

5. Only 1 student (G2) succeeded in all four courses. She did well in English (7.1 marks) and better in Mathematics (7.9 marks) but not very satisfactorily in History (5.5 marks) and Kinyarwanda (5 marks).

6. 9 students (H4, G8, S4, S2, H5, H7, S3, S8 and S5) failed all the courses.

7. Of the 7 students (G4, S6, G2, G1, G3, S7 and H2) who passed in Mathematics, only 5 (G4, G2, G1, S7 and H2) succeeded in English.

8. Of the 2 (S3 and G2) students who obtained half of the marks in History, only 1 (G2) passed in English.

9. Of the 6 students (G4, S9, S1, G2, H9 and B1) who succeeded in Kinyarwanda, only 4 (G4, S9, G2 and H9) passed in English.

10. It was English that had the highest mark of all the courses, 8.8 out of 10. In Mathematics, the highest mark was 8.4; in History, 5.8; and in Kinyarwanda, 6.8.

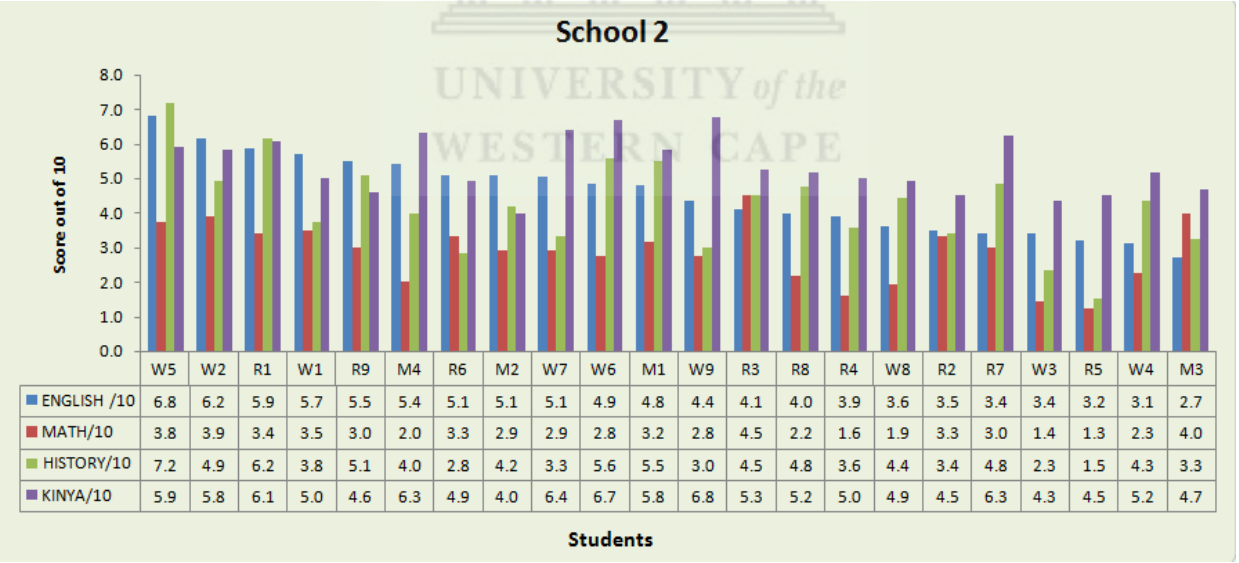
11. Mathematics and History had the lowest mark of 0.7 each. The lowest mark in English was 2.8 and in Kinyarwanda, 2.7.

12. The average mark in English was 5.1; in Mathematics, 3.9; in History, 2.5 and in Kinyarwanda, 4.3.

Three features of the results indicate that School 1 students did better in English than in other courses although less than half (N=12) of the class scored between 5 and over in this language. First, more students succeeded in English than in other courses. Second, the average mark was higher in English than in other subjects. Third, English had the least low mark of all the subjects.

It cannot, however, be argued that English, as the language of instruction, had a positive impact on performance in Mathematics and History as only a few students passed in these subjects. In other words, the medium of instruction that should have promoted learning had, conversely, an adverse effect on the quality of education of the Third Form students at School 1 of the Gisagara District. The correlation between the students' results in Kinyarwanda and their score in English cannot be established either as not all students who passed in Kinyarwanda succeeded in English. Yet, research has demonstrated that competence in the home language exerts a favourable effect on the development of second language cognitive skills (Cummins, 2005; Jiang, 2011; Lasagabaster, 2001; MacSwan et al., 2017). There does not appear to be a correlation between the Third Form students' competence in English and their performance in Kinyarwanda.

Figure 4. 13 School 2 students' results



	W5	W2	R1	W1	R9	M4	R6	M2	W7	W6	M1	W9	R3	R8	R4	W8	R2	R7	W3	R5	W4	M3
ENGLISH /10	6.8	6.2	5.9	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.1	5.1	5.1	4.9	4.8	4.4	4.1	4.0	3.9	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.2	3.1	2.7
MATH/10	3.8	3.9	3.4	3.5	3.0	2.0	3.3	2.9	2.9	2.8	3.2	2.8	4.5	2.2	1.6	1.9	3.3	3.0	1.4	1.3	2.3	4.0
HISTORY/10	7.2	4.9	6.2	3.8	5.1	4.0	2.8	4.2	3.3	5.6	5.5	3.0	4.5	4.8	3.6	4.4	3.4	4.8	2.3	1.5	4.3	3.3
KINYA/10	5.9	5.8	6.1	5.0	4.6	6.3	4.9	4.0	6.4	6.7	5.8	6.8	5.3	5.2	5.0	4.9	4.5	6.3	4.3	4.5	5.2	4.7

The above graph shows the following features:

1. Only 9 students out of 22 succeeded in English. They scored between 6.8 and 5.1 marks. 13 students failed and obtained between 4.9 and 2.7 marks.

2. All of the 22 students failed Mathematics with marks ranging from 4.5 to 1.3.

3. Only 5 students had half of the marks in History. They had between 7.2 and 5.1 marks. 17 students failed and had marks varying between 4.9 and 1.5.

4. 14 students succeeded in Kinyarwanda and scored between 6.8 and 5.0 marks. 8 students did not pass as their marks varied between 4.9 and 4.0.

5. No student succeeded in all 4 courses.

6. 5 students (W8, R2, W3, R5 and M3) failed all the subjects.

7. Of the 5 students (W5, R1, W6, M1 and R9) who succeeded in History, only 3 (W5, R1 and R9) obtained half of the marks in English.

8. Of the 14 students who passed in Kinyarwanda only 6 succeeded in English.

9. Kinyarwanda had the highest average mark of all the courses, 5.4 out of 10. The highest average in English was 4.5, in Mathematics, 2.9 and in History, 4.2.

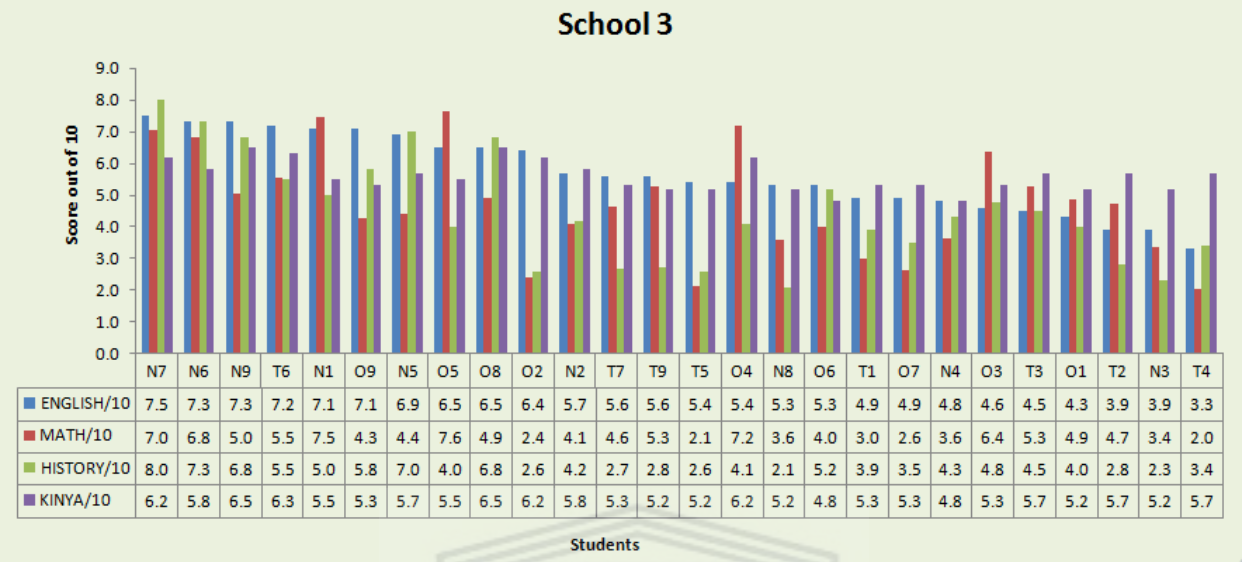
10. Mathematics had the lowest mark of all courses, 1.3 out of 10. In English, the lowest mark was 2.7; in History, 1.5 and in Kinyarwanda, 4.0.

The results above show that students' proficiency in English was generally very low and that it had a negative impact on their performance in the content subjects, namely in Mathematics and History.

There are also features proving that the students at School 2 performed better in Kinyarwanda than in English, Mathematics and History. Firstly, a larger number of students succeeded in Kinyarwanda than in the other courses. In addition, it was more than half of the class who passed in this home language. Secondly, Kinyarwanda scored the highest mark of all. Thirdly, Kinyarwanda had the least low mark. Again, no correlation can be established between performance in Kinyarwanda, the mother tongue, and English, the language of instruction. In fact, not all the students who succeeded in Kinyarwanda passed in English.

Figure 4. 14 School 3 students' results

The graph below presents the marks obtained by students at School 3.



	N7	N6	N9	T6	N1	O9	N5	O5	O8	O2	N2	T7	T9	T5	O4	N8	O6	T1	O7	N4	O3	T3	O1	T2	N3	T4
ENGLISH/10	7.5	7.3	7.3	7.2	7.1	7.1	6.9	6.5	6.5	6.4	5.7	5.6	5.6	5.4	5.4	5.3	5.3	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.6	4.5	4.3	3.9	3.9	3.3
MATH/10	7.0	6.8	5.0	5.5	7.5	4.3	4.4	7.6	4.9	2.4	4.1	4.6	5.3	2.1	7.2	3.6	4.0	3.0	2.6	3.6	6.4	5.3	4.9	4.7	3.4	2.0
HISTORY/10	8.0	7.3	6.8	5.5	5.0	5.8	7.0	4.0	6.8	2.6	4.2	2.7	2.8	2.6	4.1	2.1	5.2	3.9	3.5	4.3	4.8	4.5	4.0	2.8	2.3	3.4
KINYA/10	6.2	5.8	6.5	6.3	5.5	5.3	5.7	5.5	6.5	6.2	5.8	5.3	5.2	5.2	6.2	5.2	4.8	5.3	5.3	4.8	5.3	5.7	5.2	5.7	5.2	5.7

This graph displays the following information:

1. 17 students out of 26 succeeded in English within the range of 7.5 and 5.3 marks. 9 students failed the course. Their marks varied between 4.9 and 3.3.
2. 10 students had half of the marks in Mathematics and scored between 7.6 and 5 marks. 16 students failed with marks varying between 4.9 and 2.
3. 9 students succeeded in History. They scored between 8 and 5 marks. 17 students failed as they obtained between 4.8 and 2.1 marks.
4. 24 students succeeded in Kinyarwanda. They had between 6.5 and 5.2 marks. Only 2 students failed the course. They scored 4.8 marks each.
5. 5 students (N7, N6, N9, T6 and N1) succeeded in all courses at School 3.
6. Only 1 student (N4) failed all the subjects.
7. Of the 10 students who had half of the mark in Mathematics, 8 of them succeeded in English.

8. All of the 9 students who passed in History scored over the pass mark of 5 in English.
9. Of the 24 students who passed in Kinyarwanda, 16 succeeded in English.
10. History had the highest mark of 8.0. The highest mark in English was 7.5; in Mathematics, 7.6 and in Kinyarwanda, 6.5.
11. Mathematics scored the lowest mark of all the subjects, 2.0. The lowest mark in English was 3.3; in History, 2.1 and in Kinyarwanda, 4.8.
12. The average mark in English was 5.7; in Mathematics, 4.7; in History, 4.5 and in Kinyarwanda, 5.6.

The results above highlight that many students did well in English. More than half of the class obtained the pass mark in English and this course also scored the highest average. However, this performance in the language of instruction is not reflected in the students' results in Mathematics and History, as less than half of the class succeeded in each of the two subjects.

Another important feature is that more students succeeded in Kinyarwanda than in other subjects and that Kinyarwanda had the least low mark of all. There is correlation between the students' performance in English and their results in Kinyarwanda. In fact, many of the students who passed in Kinyarwanda also succeeded in English.

After briefly discussing the academic performance of the students at School 1, School 2 and School 3, I recapitulate, in tables, their successes as well as the average mark in each of the subjects.

Table 4. 3 Number of students who succeeded at each of the three schools

Subject	**Succeeded at School 1**	**Succeeded at School 2**	**Succeeded at School 3**
English	46.2%	40.9%	65.4%
Mathematics	26.9%	0%	38.5%
History	7.7%	22.7%	34.6%

Kinyarwanda	23.1%	63.6%	92.3%

The table above shows that more students at School 3 succeeded in all subjects than at School 1 and School 2.

Table 4. 4 Total number of students who succeeded at all three schools

Subject	**Succeeded at School 1 (out of 26 students)**	**Succeeded at School 2 (out of 22 students)**	**Succeeded at School 3 (out of 26 students)**	**Total number of students who succeeded at School 1, School 2, and School 3**
English	12	9	17	**38/74 = 51.4%**
Mathematics	7	0	10	**17/74 = 23%**
History	2	5	9	**16/74 = 21.6%**
Kinyarwanda	6	14	24	**44/74 = 59.5%**

The table above indicates that most students (59.5%) succeeded in Kinyarwanda, then in English (51.4%). Few students (23%) succeeded in Mathematics and even fewer (21.6%) in History.

Table 4. 5 Average mark in English, Mathematics, History, and Kinyarwanda out of 10

Subject	**School 1 Average mark**	**School 2 Average mark**	**School 3 Average mark**
English	5.1	4.5	5.7
Mathematics	3.9	2.9	4.7
History	2.5	4.2	4.5

Kinyarwanda	4.3	5.4	5.6

This table also indicates that School 3 had the highest averages in all subjects.

4.5.1 Summary of the features from the students' results

The results indicate that many students at School 1 and School 2 performed poorly in English and that this had a negative impact on their performance in content subjects. Indeed, a large number of students from both schools failed in Mathematics and History. Even at School 3 where there were more successes in English, the students did not do better in these two subjects. Paradoxically, these 9 YBE schools stopped teaching English altogether at the end of Third Form, whereas this language remained the medium of instruction at all levels of education in Rwanda. In secondary advanced level, that is, in Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Forms, the students dealt with subjects other than English and it is this language load they acquired from Primary 4 to secondary Third Form that they took to university or higher learning institutions once they completed their secondary studies.

The fact that the students fared better in English than in content subjects does not necessarily imply that they did well in this course. Indeed, only 38 students out of 74 obtained half of the mark. On the other hand, comparing the English exams (see Appendix 3) and subject exams (see Appendix 4 and 5), one can ascertain that the English tests were less challenging than the subject tests, and that the latter were beyond the students' level of comprehension. (I could obtain subject exams from only Schools 1 and 3; School 2 did not cooperate and provided the English exam only.) Moreover, although the subject exams were well set and related to the Third Form content, I presume that the students had difficulties understanding and answering the exam questions because of their lack of proficiency in English. Nevertheless, there might have been other reasons for the students' failure in content subjects. These could be determined through investigating subject classrooms. The latter, however, was not the focus of the current study, so I presume that researching them would provide more insight about the causes of students' low performance.

Another important feature is that most students seemed not to encounter difficulties in their home language Kinyarwanda especially at School 2 and at School 3. However, it cannot be stated that there is a correlation in School 2 students' performance in Kinyarwanda and their results in English as many of the students who passed in Kinyarwanda failed in English. In addition, no obvious correlation exists between the results of School 1 students in Kinyarwanda and in English as the number of those who succeeded in both subjects is too small to rely on. However, correlation could be established between School 3 students' results in these two languages as many students who succeeded in Kinyarwanda also scored half or more marks in English.

The results also indicate that the students at School 3 did better in all four courses than the students at School 1 and School 2 because more students succeeded in English, Mathematics, History and Kinyarwanda and the school also scored the highest averages in all four subjects.

4.6 Summary of the chapter

In this chapter, I presented the data that were collected through conducting classroom observations, interviews with the students and their English teachers, questionnaires for students and the students' results in English and in content subjects. These data served to provide responses to the research questions in the study. Thus, they allowed the researcher to observe (1) which learning strategies, if any, the English teachers devised to enable their students to develop proficiency in English, (2) which learning resources and school infrastructure, if any, were used to foster the learning of English, (3) what role English played in students' performance in content subjects, (4) what the correlation between performance in English and performance in content subjects was, and (5) what were the students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as the medium of instruction in Rwanda.

The following chapter analyses more fully the data presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses and discusses the raw data presented in Chapter 4. The data analysis is guided by the research question, the research aims and the theoretical framework underlying the study, namely, Sociocultural Theory, Language across the Curriculum (LAC) approach and Content-Based Instruction (CBI) associated with second language learning.

Kawulich (2004) defines data analysis as "the process of reducing large amounts of collected data to make sense of them". De Vos et al. (2002: 354) contend that data analysis is "the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data". This chapter aims to organise the qualitative and quantitative research data presented in the previous chapter by discussing the emerging themes and findings.

Flick (2013: 5) describes qualitative data analysis as "the classification and interpretation of linguistic (or visual) material to make statements about implicit and explicit dimensions and structures of meaning-making in the material and what is represented in it". He holds that data analysis is a key stage in qualitative research since it generates the research results. Qualitative researchers have, therefore, to describe, classify and interpret the data collected through interviews or observations in order to reach the expected research outcomes (De Vos et al., 2002; Flick, 2013; Kawulich, 2004; Lacey & Luff, 2007).

Kawulich (2004) and Lacey and Luff (2007) claim that there are no set ways to analyse qualitative data. They explain that the specific approach that the researcher decides to adopt should mainly be influenced by the research question, the research aims, the theoretical framework that informed the study, as well as the suitability of this technique for giving meaning to the data. As indicated above, the present study has taken all these aspects into account.

Regarding quantitative data analysis, Lacey and Luff (2007: 6) claim "quantitative research techniques generate a mass of numbers that need to be summarised, described and analysed." De

Vos et al. (2002: 223) purport that "basically, data analysis entails that the analyst breaks data into constituent parts to obtain answers to research questions and to test research hypotheses". They continue to say that these data need to be interpreted and so explained to make sense.

The data analysis in the current study is both qualitative and quantitative, so it describes, analyses, interprets and explains the data generated by classroom observations, interviews with the students and their English teachers, questionnaires administered to the students and analysis of their results. It is based on the main research question that sought to determine the role English, the medium of instruction in Rwanda, played in the quality of education of 9 YBE (Secondary Third Form) students. The analysis is also founded on the research aims of the study. The first aim aspired to know what learning strategies the English teachers used to enable the students to develop their English skills. The second aim was to observe what learning materials and infrastructure the schools had that enhanced the learning of English. The third aim sought to investigate what role English played in students' performance in content subjects. The fourth aim was to determine what the correlation between results in English and in content subjects was. The fifth aim was to find out what the students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as a language of instruction in Rwanda were.

The data analysis is also informed by Sociocultural Theory which makes the case that second language learning occurs when the learner engages in interactions wherein she is scaffolded by a more knowledgeable individual (Aimin, 2013; Lantolf, 1994; Lantolf & Beckett, 2009; Menezes, 2013; Nath, 2010; Walqui, 2006). In the English classrooms, teachers are regarded as being much more proficient in English than their students, so they are supposed to provide the needed support for the students to enhance their English skills. Mbatha (2018: 77) states that the English teachers' responsibility consists of supplying the required assistance for fostering their students' learning. She adds that the student can, thus, develop language proficiency through engaging in meaningful interactions.

The LAC approach promotes the view that teaching the second language through content, and especially students' content subjects, fosters proficiency in this language. In fact, students become motivated since the content is related to their chosen field of study, so they construct knowledge in their academic subjects and at the same time unconsciously develop competence in

the medium of instruction. "Learners learn much better by concentrating on learning the content of an academic discipline through the foreign language, instead of focusing on the language per se" (Sadtono, 2012: 1). Ngan (2011: 93) holds that when learners are motivated and interested, they become involved in demanding tasks that foster the learning of the language of instruction.

CBI also espouses the position that "language is used to explore content, and language growth emerges as students need to comprehend or produce language relating to content" (Ngan, 2011: 92). Cenoz (2015: 10) claims that content is a medium through which second language skills are strengthened. For Peng (2017: 118), the philosophy underlying this approach runs counter to the conception that the language of instruction is used for the sole aim of empowering learners to follow their lessons or to succeed in the content-subject exams. He hypothesises that carrying out this type of instruction allows learners to be more interested in the medium of instruction and to develop communicative skills in this target language.

In a similar vein, Krashen (1982: 66) maintains that input should put stress on meaning and not on form. He goes on to say that "the best input is so interesting and relevant that the acquirer may even 'forget' that the message is encoded in a foreign language." Guangyong and Liying (2000: 4) also assert that comprehensible input is required to enable the learner to utilise the target language in authentic life situations. For the sake of analysis, similar data related to the five sub-research questions that were generated by the different collection techniques were grouped together. Data from sub-questions 3 and 4 were also classified together as the two questions are closely related. This chapter, thus, consists of four sections on themes connected to the sub-questions that I reiterate below:

1. What teaching and learning strategies, if any, do English language teachers devise to enable their students to cope with content subjects?
2. What kind of learning/teaching materials and infrastructure, if any, do the schools have that promote the learning of English?
3. What role does English play in students' performance in content subjects?
4. How do the students' exam results in English correlate with their results in content

subjects?

5. What are the students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as language of instruction?

The following section analyses the techniques that the English teachers at School 1, School 2 and School 3 deployed to bolster their students' English proficiency.

5.2 Teaching strategies

Teachers' strategies are techniques or procedures that teachers employ in their classrooms in order to render learning effective. Naturally, these techniques ought to be appropriate to the specific types of lessons taught for this objective to be attained (San Jose & Galang, 2015; Thamarana & Narayana, 2015). Thus, in the English language classroom, teachers must know which strategies to use to address their students' language needs effectively. As Cohen (2014) posits, teaching strategies play a significant role in facilitating learning and particularly in enabling students to develop proficiency in the language of instruction. Thomson (2012: 3) also recognises that teachers' strategies play a significant role in supporting learning, particularly that of students whose medium of instruction is not their mother tongue.

However, students may have different needs, so a teaching technique that works with one student may fail with another student. It is, therefore, the English teacher's duty to first identify her students' individual needs and then design appropriate teaching techniques to satisfy these needs (Hong, 2008; Oxford, 2003; San Jose & Galang, 2015; Thamarana & Narayana, 2015). English teachers hence need to be trained on how to utilise different strategies to adequately assist their students in the learning process.

Classroom observations allowed me to note the learning strategies that the English teachers at School 1, School 2 and School 3 used in the classroom to promote their students' English skills. Interviews with teachers also disclosed the teaching techniques they claimed to be using. Moreover, the questionnaires and interviews administered to the students indicated the learning

techniques that they preferred. These data provide a response to the first research sub-question: What teaching and learning strategies, if any, do English language teachers devise to enable their students to cope with content subjects? I discuss these teaching techniques below.

5.2.1 Question-answer technique

Posing questions is an essential strategy in the teaching and learning process. It allows teachers to obtain feedback from their students and enables the latter to use their critical thinking (Ma, 2008; Whitver, 2017). As Jones (2005) and Scarino and Liddicoat (2009) put it, this may occur only if the right types of questions are asked.

The question-answer technique predominated in all three classes. The teachers asked their students questions and the latter were expected to provide responses. These questions aimed "to elicit recall or information from the students" (Scarino & Liddicoat, 2009: 42). Even though this technique was presumed to test the students' knowledge and offer them opportunities to practise and develop language skills in the language of instruction, it did not seem to benefit them a lot.

For instance, in T1's classroom, when the students were not reading the replies from their notes, they often failed to respond and it was the teacher who supplied the answers himself. Moreover, T1's questions demonstrated mainly lower-order thinking, requiring only very short responses, so the students answered with one word or one phrase and very rarely in complete sentences. These types of questions do not motivate students to think critically. The students feel no necessity to make an effort to construct long and correct sentences in the language of instruction or to elaborate on their replies, an activity which would call for higher-order thinking skills and would enhance their proficiency in the target language. In addition, even though T1 sometimes requested his students to ask questions when they did not grasp what was being taught, they rarely did. This could simply mean that the students either understood their lessons well, or that they were bored with the classes, or that they were unable to express themselves in English effectively. However, T1 seemed not to be overly concerned and simply went on with his lessons.

Earlier, I observed that when T1 put questions to the students he rarely named individual learners to reply. His students responded in chorus and if he managed to hear the correct answer, T1

appeared not to notice that some of them were not participating so he proceeded with his teaching. Replying in unison could not indicate to the teacher which students had grasped the material learnt and who did not. Such practice may not promote the reasoning skills of students who do not make effort to answer because they know that, after all, some of their classmates will respond.

Similarly, T2 asked questions that called for short responses and never urged his students to react even when there were things they did not understand properly in his lessons. T2's students, hence, kept quiet for most of the time and spoke only when the teacher addressed them. As Arslan (2006: 81) puts it, "questioning is naturally a two-sided affair". Scarino and Liddicoat (2009: 42) agree, that, "in an interactive classroom, questions need to be distributed across participants in a way which allows for collaborative exploration of ideas". Almeida (2012: 635) also explicates that learners' questions exert a crucial function in enabling them to construct knowledge. In fact, students do not learn by only receiving input from their teachers, but also by contributing their output to the learning activity. Some of the students in T2's classroom even decried the fact that their teachers intimidated them so they dreaded to speak or question him as is voiced in the following quotation:

> S4: Hari ukuntu iyo uba uvuze nabi ibintu cyangwa ubikoze nabi, ubyishe, ugasanga umwarimu abaye nk'ugukankamira ukaba urikanze. Noneho n'ikindi gihe wajya kuvuga kugirango anagukosore ya makosa ukagira ubwoba.
> **We fear to speak because the teacher sometimes scolds us when we have said or done something incorrectly.**

This kind of situation, where it is only the teacher who poses questions, does not motivate students who feel excluded from taking part in the learning process. It can, thus, be assumed that such practices could not mediate T1's and T2's students' learning of English.

Conversely, T3 would ask his students questions that required complete sentences and which induced them to use their higher-order thinking skills. Arslan (2006: 84) maintains that high-level cognitive questions "reveal the most about whether or not a student has truly grasped a concept" and these skills enable learners to utilise their intelligence to "solve, to analyse and to evaluate". T3 also incited his students to ask questions whenever they felt challenged which they

did. These were occasions to encourage them to practise and foster English, the language of instruction.

The next section discusses teacher-talk, another technique that the English teachers used.

5.2.2 Teacher-talk

Teacher-talk is an old teaching strategy that considers the teacher as the only person possessing knowledge in the classroom. Her role was to impart this knowledge to her learners who docilely sat in the classroom and lent an ear to her monologue. In other words, traditional approaches were teacher-centred and did not give enough room to students to have a say in their learning process. Students were expected to sit passively and swallow the information fed to them. "In teacher-centered learning, teachers are information providers or evaluators to monitor students to get the right answers, yet students are viewed as learners who passively receive information" (Emaliana, 2017: 60). Ahmed (2013: 22) also concurs that, "in a traditional classroom, students become passive learners, or rather just recipients of teachers' knowledge and wisdom. They have no control over their own learning".

Classroom observations enabled me to notice that T1 and T2 were faithful to this traditional method and that their classrooms were teacher-centred. Indeed, both T1 and T2 spent most of their time talking and did not encourage interactions between the students and between them and their students. However, according to sociocultural theories, interactions between the novice (the student in this case) and the expert (the teacher) play an essential role in promoting the student's second language development. "Through the assistance of a more capable person, a child is able to learn skills or aspects of a skill that go beyond the child's actual development" (Aimin, 2013: 163). In T1's and T2's classrooms the students were denied this opportunity.

Although the contributive role of input to learning is indisputable, input alone cannot be conducive to learning. Birkner (2016), Erturk (2010) and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2011) assert that it is a combination of input and output that can trigger learning. Birkner explains that:

> Comprehensible input is a determining factor for a learner to assimilate language that can be on hold for some time until it finally emerges. This emergence can occur or be accelerated when learners engage in productive tasks such as writing and speaking and

> even though this will not produce correct grammatical sentences at once, the constant exposure to language added to a frequent practice of it will finally do the trick (Birkner, 2016: 21).

However, in addition to input and output, classroom interactions in the target language are also a requirement for this learning process to take place. Interactions allow the abler persons to scaffold the less-informed ones. In his study, Zhang (2009) observed that wide exposure to meaningful input in English, interactions in this target language and output from the students had a beneficial impact on the development of oral fluency in this language. The importance of interactions and output, besides input, is also acknowledged by Wang (2010: 181) who suggests that in a learner-centred classroom, "teachers should stimulate learners' interests and provide as many opportunities as possible for language learners to produce the target language by implementing various classroom interaction tasks".

The lack of interactions in T1's and T2's classrooms was denounced by some students during interviews. They needed more interaction with their teachers because they believed they would learn more, as their teachers were more knowledgeable than them. The following excerpt by S7 reveals this thirst for collaboration:

> Jye numva mwarimu aje kwigisha yakwisanzura cyane mu banyeshuli bigatuma tuvugana na mwarimu kenshi. Kuko mwarimu ntabwo dusabana cyane. Si ukumutinya ariko iyo utangiye kuvuga, aba yumva ngo uriho uramusakuriza. Ni yo mbogamizi dufite twebwe. Bituma tutakimenya cyane ngo tunihutire kukimenya.
> **I believe that the teacher should create a friendly atmosphere in the classroom, which can greatly motivate us to learn English.**

Motivation also plays a crucial role in promoting learning. As Hong (2008: 66) contends, "motivation affects how hard students are willing to work on a task, how much they will persevere when they are challenged, and how much satisfaction they feel when they accomplish a learning task". As T1's and T2's classrooms were teacher-fronted and their students' motivation was not stimulated, it can be presupposed that the learning process was hindered.

What happens in a teacher-centred classroom is different from what takes place in a learner-centred environment where the students are made responsible for their own learning and so actively participate in this process. "A learner-centred classroom is a milieu that creates and fosters independent students who are aware of their learning processes and who, through this

awareness, are able to control their learning" (Hong, 2008: 64). In addition, the teacher-centred approach motivates the students to use their critical thinking and enhances their problem-solving skills (Ahmed, 2013; Garrett, 2008), which reinforces learning. Emaliana (2017: 61) holds that a learner-centred classroom is an environment where the teacher takes into consideration his learners' needs as a class and also as distinct persons. She adds that the teacher has to behave as a guide and assist her students in their learning.

T3's classroom was learner-centred. T3 endeavoured to create opportunities to interact with his students and, thus, enabled them to practise their English skills. T3's effort in designing activities that boosted his students' English proficiency was recognised by the latter as is confirmed by S17 below:

> "Teacher" wacu, na we turamwemera akunda gukora ibintu byiza kandi bishobora kugufasha. Ashobora kuzana utu "novels" mukadusoma. Ubundi mugakora "summary" y'ako ga "story" mukaza kugasobanura. Cyangwa tukihimbira "story" yacu tukajya imbere tukayisoma. Za "dialogues" ajya atubwira akaduha "work"; mugakora muri babiri "dialogue" muyivuga mu cyongereza. Ama "debates" n'ibindi ….
> **We appreciate our teacher because he uses various teaching strategies to help us learn better. For instance, he may request us to read a novel and summarise the story in it, to invent our own story and narrate it before the class, to write dialogues in pairs or to engage in a debate.**

Debates and dialogues enable students to develop their language skills and especially their speaking skills. Stories have also proven to enhance language proficiency (Aimin, 2013: 166), so teachers should motivate students to read short stories which they can summarise and narrate and even encourage them to invent stories of their own. As Desai and Parker (2018: 213) claim, "stories can expand children's linguistic repertoires and assist them in becoming articulate young people". Besides, stories can rouse learners' imagination and critical thinking (Hancock, 2018: 41).

The English teachers also devised group activities in their classrooms. The following section, thus, talks about the group work strategy.

5.2.3 Group work

Morris (2016: 1) defines group work as "a student-centered way of teaching that emphasizes collaboration, cooperation and teamwork". She purports that group work permits learners to

engage in meaningful interactions wherein they use the medium of instruction to support one another's learning. Chiriac and Frykedal (2011) hold that students learn better when they engage in peer activities. They elaborate that "by interacting, students learn to inquire, share ideas, clarify differences and construct new understandings" (Chiriac & Frykedal, 2011: 2). The benefits of group work interactions are also recognised by O'Neill (2008: 75) who asserts that "reduced opportunity for social and peer-supported learning can be a key factor in inhibiting both student retention and social learning".

In learner-centred classrooms, group work allows students to share their knowledge in a relaxed atmosphere and the teacher intervenes only when assistance is required. If the students are actively engaged in peer interactions and collaborate in achieving a common goal, their learning is fostered. Group work will be effective only if the tasks are meaningful and if all learners are fully implicated in the learning process (Burke, 2011: 87).

Nevertheless, even though teachers give room to the students to work independently, their input is essential for the improvement of their students' second language skills. After all, teachers are assumed to be better informed than their students so must aid them to acquire new knowledge that will boost the already acquired language skills and develop their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). "Development in the ZPD is achieved through the cooperation of experts and novices or the cooperation of peers" (Aimin, 2013: 164).

Burke (2011: 87) claims that group work may present advantages as well as drawbacks. Concerning advantages, she explains that when learners are collaborating, they obtain diverse information from more than one individual, their creativity is stimulated and they easily recall what they have learnt. Furthermore, learners' self-confidence increases as they realise they can contribute to their own learning. She affirms that group work may be unfavourable if a particular learner overshadows others in the discussions, or if some learners let others do the tasks in their place. As Dobao (2012: 55) posits, during group work, some learners may act "as observers of other learners' collaborative problem-solving".

During my classroom observations, I observed that all three English teachers saved time for the group tasks. T2 and T3 managed the group activities effectively as they let their students interact freely and provided support only when it was necessary. Furthermore, both teachers were

vigilant and made sure that all the students were engaged in the group activities and that it was not only some students who dominated the discussions. Nonetheless, T2 and T3 did not request their students to share what came out of the group discussions with the rest of the class. The students would have benefitted more if they had learnt about other groups' learning experiences.

As for T1, he would let his students do the tasks by themselves without offering any support. He could not be certain that all the students were involved in the group activities or know if everybody understood what the activities consisted of. It cannot, therefore, be supposed that T1's students were engaged in meaningful interactions that could promote the learning of the medium of instruction. "For group work to be effective, students need to understand the purpose and the goals of the group task and the criteria for success" (Morris, 2016: 2). Burke (2011: 89) adds that it is the teacher's role to provide learning contexts that stimulate students to be deeply involved in their learning and, hence, actively collaborate with their peers.

Contrary to T2 and T3, T1 requested some students to go to the front and present their group work. However, the students listened to the presentations passively and were not encouraged to pose questions or provide comments.

During interviews, T1, T2 and T3 also contended that they often made their students work in groups as this technique allowed for peer interactions, where the students discussed comfortably, and those who had difficulties were scaffolded by their better-performing friends. Below, T1 and T3 emphasised the importance they accorded to group work:

> T1: We have so many techniques that we use but among them, first of all, we use what we call group discussion and team work. Then, that helps them to cooperate and collaborate somehow and help each other. There are other techniques relating to those, to group work, but if we look, the technique that can help most is group work.

> T3: The strategy we are using is always group discussion and sometimes pair discussion, work. They gain communication and collaboration in these discussions, in terms of English proficiency.

The teachers' assertion was backed up by a large number of students who recognised the advantages gained through collaboration with their classmates. Indeed, 72 students out of 74 who responded to the questionnaire and all of the 18 students who participated in the interviews affirmed that they learnt new skills from their friends during group discussions. 61 students out

of 74 also asserted that they actively participated in group discussions in English. However, this number went down when they were requested to say whether they felt comfortable using English during classroom group discussions. Only 48 students out of 74 confirmed they were at ease. These responses from the students show the importance they conferred to peer interactions but also, that their proficiency in English still needed to be nurtured.

The English teachers needed to carefully design authentic and meaningful activities to motivate their students to be actively involved in the learning process. This venture would probably boost their proficiency in the medium of instruction (Morris, 2016: 2). "The primary responsibility to promote meaningful and effective discourse in the classroom lies with the teacher" (Bhushan et al., 2017: 85).

The section below highlights the importance of individual tasks for learning.

5.2.4 Individual work

Recently, there has been adverse publicity surrounding the use of individual work in the classroom because, according to some scholars, this technique is not known to promote learning (Dobao, 2012; Prince, 2004). As discussed above, contemporary applied linguists' stand on the benefits of collaborative learning is irrefutable. Burke (2011), Chiriac and Frykedal (2011), Dobao (2012) and Morris (2016) claim that through peer interactions, learners can mediate each other's learning and manage to construct new knowledge in the target language. Hence, they counsel language teachers to plan group work systematically so as to attain this objective.

Dobao (2012) admits that, even though not every student may actively participate in group work, collaborative learning has proven to produce positive learning outcomes. In her study in second language classrooms, she compared writing tasks performed in groups, pairs and carried out by individual students. Her findings indicated that the tasks completed in groups and pairs were "linguistically more accurate" than those performed individually (Dobao, 2012: 55).

Although less importance, if any, has been attached to individual work and its potential contribution to enhancing learning, it would be thoughtless not to acknowledge some of its usefulness. Working individually allows students to feel responsible for their own learning and to

develop self-confidence when they realise they are able to do things on their own. This strategy allows students to work independently from their classmates and motivates them to use their higher-order thinking skills to achieve their tasks. Individual work, thus, also enables students to develop their ZPD as the skills they have already acquired are reinforced and will develop more once they interact with more informed people, i.e., teachers or better-performing peers.

Individual work also allows the teacher to assess her students' language needs and, hence, identify individual strengths and weaknesses. Individual listening, speaking, reading and writing activities easily reveal the challenges faced by individual students as well as their acquired skills, a function which group tasks may not facilitate. Subsequently, the teacher will build on the students' strengths and help them overcome their weaknesses.

While I was carrying out classroom observations, I noticed that T2 and T3 also gave their students individual activities. For example, T2 wrote sentences on the chalkboard and then requested his students to fill the gaps from a list of adverbs provided. They had to try the exercise individually and then exchange their copies while they completed the sentences on the board. Next, they underlined possible mistakes in their friends' work and then gave the copies back to the owners for correction. Another example is when T3 asked his students to complete sentences with gaps from their textbook individually. After they had finished the task, they corrected the sentences with the teacher's help and then those who had made errors corrected them. Nevertheless, it was difficult to make sure if T3's students were really working individually or if every student was actively engaged in the activity because they were sharing one book in groups of five or six students. Besides, some of the students were physically not able to read well what was in the book because they were sitting in a circle, which obscured their vision.

T1 did not provide any individual work except when he appointed two students to go to the front and present group work. He denied his students the chance to test themselves and see what they could achieve without anybody's help. He also missed the opportunity to identify some of his students' needs.

I share the stance that group work should occupy a primary place in English language classrooms to provide occasions to the students to engage in constructive interactions and hence mediate

their own learning. However, the importance of individual work in learning should not be undermined as it enables students to test themselves and teachers to know how they can assist each individual student to develop their English skills. In addition, it is of the utmost importance that students learn and manage to do the learning by themselves because, when it comes to tests or exams, they are not assessed in groups but rather individually.

The next section deals with code-switching and its relevance to second language learning.

5.2.5 Code-switching

Code-switching is a learning technique in which students, whose language of instruction is a second language they are not yet proficient in, shift to the home language (L1) for better understanding of the content in their lessons. Moore (2002) considers that speaking more than one language constitutes an asset because learners draw the necessary skills stored in their linguistic repertoire to make sense of the learning input and to also produce meaningful output. "Switches display communicative patterns in which all the communicative resources of a bilingual repertoire are available and profitable" (Moore, 2002: 290). Makulloluwa (2013: 594) opines that L1 "not only makes the input more comprehensible but also minimizes communication breakdowns while making the classroom atmosphere less threatening". She adds that using L1, thus, can contribute to creating supporting classroom conditions that promote second language learning.

In the same vein, Modupeola (2013: 93) maintains that teachers have recourse to code-switching to facilitate their students' communicative interactions and to foster their comprehension of the learning concepts. He specifies that code-switching motivates students to learn because they can understand what their teacher is communicating to them. He adds that comprehending what they are being taught decreases their stress and they are more relaxed in their learning, which aids them to be more focused and partake in classroom tasks more effectively.

Cognitive competence in L1 is also presumed to facilitate L2 acquisition. "A switch to L1, whether initiated by the teacher or the student, is likely to arouse the degree of attention paid to discourse content and/or form, and will usually involve feed-back, as well as open a new sequence of negotiation and production in L2" (Moore, 2002: 281-282). McSwan et al.'s (2017:

234) viewpoint is that learners would gain academically if the language programme promoted proficiency in L1 whilst learning the additional language. Bhushan et al. (2017), Lasagabaster (2001) and Ortner (2003) posit that when a learner has good listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in a given language, these skills will transfer to the target language. Hancock (2018: 46) supports this view by saying that, even though the L1 and L2 are distinct, they "share a common underlying proficiency, which allows concepts and skills to be transferred from one language to another".

During my classroom observations, I noted that the teachers, especially T2 and T3, resorted to code-switching between English and Kinyarwanda in their English language classrooms. The English teachers also acknowledged having recourse to this strategy during interviews. In fact, even though the teachers were dealing with English classes, they sometimes mixed this language with Kinyarwanda, the students' (and their) mother tongue, to make the students understand better what they failed to grasp in this foreign language. At times, the teachers also resorted to code-switching when they themselves felt inadequate in expressing themselves in English, but they did not admit this.

The students were also mixing both languages to negotiate meaning in their group discussions. Almost half of the students, 32 out of 74 students, who answered the questionnaire and many amongst those who responded to interviews, said that mixing English and Kinyarwanda helped them to understand the content of their lessons. The following student's excerpt stresses this use of code-switching during group work:

> S7: Akenshi rwose ntitukirarire muri "group" ntabwo dukunda gukoresha icyongereza cyane. Ntituragera aho tukivuga nk'abakizi.
> **We do not speak English much during group discussions because we are not yet fluent in this language.**

This suggests that the students were not very proficient in English so had difficulties understanding lessons taught in this medium of instruction. Nevertheless, they comprehended better when lessons were explained in their home language, Kinyarwanda

Code-switching is recommended if students are encountering challenges while learning in a language of instruction other than their home language. This strategy becomes effective when the students share the same mother tongue or home language. The 9 YBE students in the present study also had very limited proficiency in English, the medium of instruction, which was hampering their learning. As they shared the same home language, Kinyarwanda, it was easy for them and their teachers (who were also Rwandans) to code-switch between English and Kinyarwanda in order to facilitate understanding. However, one may confirm that these students' knowledge of Kinyarwanda did not promote their learning of English. Considering the scores obtained, it could not be advanced that the students had acquired cognitive skills in Kinyarwanda that could transfer to English. Indeed, only 44 out of 74 students scored half of the mark in Kinyarwanda and the average mark in this mother tongue was low in the three classes (43 % at School 1, 54% at school 2 and 56% at School 3). Moreover, not all the students who fared well in Kinyarwanda succeeded in English. This implies that the students' knowledge of Kinyarwanda did not have much influence on the learning of English. I assume that they needed to gain greater competency in Kinyarwanda first to be able to develop their English skills.

Nevertheless, despite the learning benefits of code-switching, the instructor must be on the lookout while using this strategy for students may choose the easy way and interact in their mother tongue only. "The extent to which and for what purposes L1 should be used has to be pre-determined" (Makulloluwa, 2013: 595). Mokgwathi (2011: 394) sustains that, in spite of the positive function of code-switching in the language classroom, this learning technique can also have negative consequences. He elucidates that when learners are allowed to switch to their mother tongue any time they feel like it, they may develop a complacent attitude to the use of English, which may hinder their acquisition of the target language.

In the English classrooms in Rwanda, and particularly in the Third Form classrooms at School 1, School 2 and School 3, students should deploy all their learning strategies and spend most of their time using English if they want to acquire proficiency in this medium of instruction. As Modupeola (2013: 94) points out "in the English learning environment, the application of the code-switching strategy should be minimal to ensure that teaching and learning of the target language is given the prominence it requires". If the learning objective is acquiring proficiency in the language of instruction, as is the case with the English classrooms in this study, and the

students speak their home language more often than they do the target language, this aim will not be reached.

Translanguaging is another pedagogical practice that multilingual classrooms may use to allow students to make meaning of what is being taught in the second language. While code-switching implies the use of the target language and the students' home language within and between sentences, translanguaging supports the enhancement of language proficiency through the simultaneous use of both languages (Mazzafero, 2018; Treffers-Daller, 2018; Wei, 208). Within the translanguaging practice, the teacher plans learning activities in which both languages are used systematically. For instance, students may discuss a topic in one language, and then write about it in another language. Treffers-Daller (2018) and Wei (2018) hold that translanguaging does not only promote the development of the second language, but it also sustains home-school collaboration. In fact, parents can be actively involved in their children's learning as some of the school activities are set in the home language.

The researcher did not observe any translanguaging while she was carrying out classroom observations, nor did the data emerging from the questionnaires and interviews reveal any such practice. Nevertheless, she believes that translanguaging would be very helpful in Rwanda and would assist in solving many language-related problems encountered by students. Indeed, if learning was conducted concurrently in English and Kinyarwanda, the quality of instruction would be greatly improved.

5.2.6 Teaching English through content

LAC and CBI approaches recommend that language be taught through content and especially content relevant to the students' fields of study (Leitner, 2003; Schleppegrell et al., 2004; Yao, 2015). Both methods enable students to assimilate content and simultaneously develop competence in the medium of instruction. "To achieve advanced literacy and disciplinary knowledge, students need to be able to understand how language construes meaning in content-area texts and how the important meanings and concepts of school subjects are realized in language" (Schleppegrell et al., 2004: 68).

Peng (2017) purports that learning language through texts related to students' specific subjects may be stimulating for them and, thus, enhance their language proficiency. In their study on medical science students at Gonabad University in Iran, Amiri and Fatemi (2014) also noted that students who were taught language via content performed better than their friends who were instructed through the Grammar Translation Method. They explain that the students were more involved in their learning because the tasks were relevant and engaging. Amiri and Fatemi add that meaningful learning activities stimulate "both problem-solving and critical thinking, resulting in more achievement in linguistic and content areas, as well as higher language learning orientations" (Amiri & Fatemi, 2014: 2163). Ngan (2011: 96) also noticed that when students were taught language through content, "their motivation was aroused and they felt that they learnt something rather than the language per se".

However, one of the necessary conditions for teaching language through content to be effective is that the language teacher be competent in the medium of instruction and be well informed about the content subject (Peng, 2017: 117). Schleppegrell et al. (2004: 88) maintain that "advanced literacy development for learners requires that teachers understand the specific textual demands of a discipline so that they can help students gain control of the language through which the discipline presents information and argues about interpretations".

As many language teachers may not be knowledgeable of the content subjects, they should seek assistance from the content-subject teachers who are the specialists in the specific fields (Peng, 2017: 118). In addition, as students' language proficiency must be the concern of both language teachers and content-subject teachers, the latter need to be competent in the language of instruction to be able to deliver their lessons and to assist their students with any language problems they may encounter.

Concerning the English textbook used in the Third Form classes, I noticed that it presented language skills through the context of authentic materials that depicted real-life situations and were fascinating to the students. Each unit had its specific topic. Then, a reading passage connected to the topic was provided and vocabulary and grammar were learnt through the context of these texts. In addition, listening, speaking and writing skills were enhanced by

dealing with sub-topics associated with the main topic of the unit. Unit 1 of the English textbook is presented as Appendix 5 to illustrate how the units are organised in the book.

As mentioned previously, T1 and T2 stated that they utilised only the material supplied in the textbook to develop their students' English skills. However, I gather that this was not practical considering the scarcity of students' books at the schools. Varied teaching resources were required to deeply exploit all the English skills so as to allow the students to develop these skills more. As for T3, he claimed that he used additional material in his classroom. He would, for example, use a story to teach the different language skills and it helped his students a lot. Children, and even adults, are fond of stories, so using the context of a story makes them interested in what they are being told and they learn it easily.

However, although all three English teachers declared that they collaborated with subject teachers, I do not believe it was collaboration as such. They argued that when they came across a difficult word or expression related to one of the taught subjects at the school, they requested their content-subject colleagues to explain it to them. According to LAC, there is collaboration if subject teachers help English teachers, for instance, to select which texts to exploit. Total collaboration also implies that English teachers in their turn advise content subject teachers on how to cope with English language difficulties they encounter in their classrooms, which was not the case here.

The next section discusses the learning and teaching resources that were available at the three schools.

5.3 Learning materials and infrastructure

As pointed out earlier in the chapter on the literature review, the use of appropriate learning resources is known to reinforce students' learning (Amadioha, 2009; Effiong & Igiri, 2015; Shabiralyani et al., 2015). Ngan (2011) and Watkins et al. (2007) aver that well-selected and authentic learning materials motivate learners who become more engaged in the learning process. This evidence is corroborated by Nwike and Catherine's (2013) study, whose findings revealed that learners, who were instructed with teaching materials, outperformed their

counterparts who were taught without any instructional aids. Busljeta (2013: 56) adds that the use of instructional materials in learning "makes the process more attractive, interesting and modern, and, most importantly, it aids the teacher in the organization and quality of conducting the said process, whilst aiding the students in the process of enhancing their intellectual and emotional capacities". Amadioha (2009) and Nwike and Catherine (2013) also claim that instructional materials stimulate students' interest in what they are learning as they can make use of their senses (sight, hearing and touch) to learn. If teaching materials are so essential for learning, schools should avail a library of various teaching aids and train teachers on how to manipulate them to suit course purposes and to address students' individual needs.

Learning and teaching infrastructure is another factor that can affect learning positively or negatively. Indeed, the availability and adequate use of learning and teaching infrastructure enhances learning while lack of this resource may lead to students' poor academic performance (Khumalo & Mji, 2014). In his study on students in Ruiri Location in Kenya, Parnwell (2015) found out that inadequate infrastructure was the main cause of failure of students in national examinations.

From the above, one may assert that if learning materials are lacking and no appropriate infrastructure is available, learning is obviously impeded. The following data respond to research question 2: What kind of learning/teaching materials and infrastructure, if any, do the schools have that promote the learning of English?

Shortage of learning materials was a common handicap in the teaching and learning of English at School 1, School 2 and School 3, which was also denounced by a good number of students. Apart from the teaching guides, which were easily available for the English teachers to use, the student books were very scarce at all three schools. As pointed out before, these books were explored in the classroom only and about 4 to 5 students had to share one book. This meant that the students rarely worked individually even when they were requested to do so. For example, T2 and T3 sometimes asked their students to do exercises from the book individually while they were sitting in groups sharing the books. This bothered the students because they could not read what was written in the book easily and the teacher was not even certain that they were doing the activities on their own or merely copying from their friends. If the teacher was not watchful

enough, what was intended to be individual work could end up becoming group work and the objective set would not have been achieved.

Nevertheless, the English book was well conceived and well organised and if it were well exploited and supplemented with additional learning resources, it could aid the students develop their English skills. Furthermore, as made mention of in the previous chapter, the themes that were dealt with in the book were appealing to the students because they narrated Rwandans' or Africans' daily stories, which was motivating to them.

Many aspects of the language were tackled, specifically oral comprehension (listening and speaking), reading comprehension, vocabulary building, grammar and writing. I realised though that listening was not emphasised in the book and the English teachers seemed satisfied with what they had at hand. I assume that more listening comprehension exercises could enhance their learners' listening skills more efficiently. Handy resources can be found anywhere and can be used as additional learning materials instead of relying on the English textbook only. Peng (2017: 117) proposes that language teachers should not be slaves of the textbook but rather use a variety of authentic materials such as "newspapers, magazines, TV shows, radio programs, films and the like" for better learning. He counsels language teachers to develop a bank of teaching resources ready for use any time required.

Besides, more reading materials were also required to inculcate the culture of reading in the students for multiple reasons. For instance, the students would need to do lots of reading to cope with their university studies once admitted. Reading would also enable them to be updated and kept informed of what was happening all around the world like new inventions, discoveries, modern technologies, to name but a few. The students could also read for their own pleasure and entertainment in their leisure time.

According to Mbatha (2018: 71), "reading is the essence of all formal education and students access education primarily through reading". Reading has also proven to foster learners' literacy development (Hancock, 2018). Hancock extrapolates that "more practice in reading also leads to improvements in writing abilities as children internalize essential skills of spelling, syntax and punctuation and absorb the conventions of expression, narrative and story structure" (Mbatha,

2018: 42). Mbatha (2018) also declares that learners who are exposed to minimal reading resources have difficulties acquiring literacy.

Apart from the insufficiency of English textbooks, the school libraries at School 1, School 2 and School 3 suffered from a scarcity of reading materials such as novels, short stories, fiction, and other material. Students who were lent these materials were requested to read them at school and return them to the library before they went home. These were day students and as classes stopped at 4:30, they hurried home before it was dark. In addition, there was no electrical power in the classrooms, so even a student who was willing would not have read much because the classrooms were not lit. Lack of electricity also prevented the teachers from using materials such as overhead projectors, computers and radios, which are known to foster learning.

Dictionaries are tools that promote language learning, too. A good dictionary provides not only the function(s) of a word but also its meaning(s) in different contexts, its phonetic representation and pronunciation, and possibly verb phrases and idioms in which this word may be used. Tulgar (2017: 51) advances the following:

> As indispensable sources to promote individual learning or self-directed learning, dictionaries are of great significance to enable language learners to develop such language skills or knowledge as phonetics, pronunciation, word roots, grammar and register besides providing the meaning of the searched word.

Ahangari and Dogolsara (2015) and Peters (2007) also contend that using a dictionary promotes vocabulary acquisition. As for Xu (2010: 522), he purports that using a dictionary appropriately and consistently boosts vocabulary and reading skills acquisition. Sanchez-Lafuente (2013: 99) maintains that dictionary use allows learners to learn independently and so manage to address some of their language challenges without the teacher's assistance. The fact that School 1, School 2 and School 3 did not own enough dictionaries for the students to consult, therefore, constituted a barrier to English language learning.

Nonetheless, dictionaries can be more of a hindrance than a help if used inadequately, so students should be trained on how to use these learning tools appropriately (Tulgar, 2017: 56). Sanchez-Lafuente (2013: 99) also asserts that using dictionaries inappropriately can have an adverse impact on learning. Similarly, Nkomo (2016, 2017) recognises that dictionaries can be

helpful learning resources if they are appropriately conceived for their users and if the latter have developed the required skills to effectively make use of them.

The selected schools did not have language laboratories either. This type of infrastructure is very useful especially in the learning of a second or foreign language, let alone a language of instruction that is not the students' home language. Bera (2017: 134) affirms that a "language laboratory serves as a platform for learning where learners can practice and develop their language skills through interactive lessons and communicative mode of teaching based on language learning software". Mohammed (2017: 86) also acknowledges the essential role that language labs can play in L2 learning if they are used efficaciously. He explains that effective use of language labs may enhance students' listening and speaking skills.

In a few words, the sole learning and teaching materials that T1, T2 and T3 made use of were only the few English textbooks, the blackboard, chalk and few dictionaries. Furthermore, the learning infrastructure that the schools possessed were the classrooms, which were not provided with electricity and had poor libraries, equipped with scarce reading materials. It is, therefore, hard to imagine how a learner attending school in a poor and rural area such as the Gisagara District could easily develop English proficiency considering that the minimum learning conditions were not met.

As stated earlier, the secondary Third Form class was the last year of secondary school in which the learners at School 1, School 2 and School 3 studied English as a subject. Learning opportunities had, thus, to be maximised to enable these students to acquire as much English proficiency as possible. Availability and adequate use of teaching and learning resources are among the preconditions for this acquisition to happen.

The next section discusses the impact that the language of instruction may have on students' school success.

5.4 Impact of English on performance in content subjects

Qorro (2006: 3) defines the language of instruction as "a vehicle through which education is delivered". She posits that the medium of instruction is an important tool that teachers use to

impart knowledge to their students and that allows students to engage in meaningful interactions and so support each other's learning. Desai (2016: 344) also argues that:

> Language plays a crucial role in learning as it is through language that children develop ideas or concepts of the world around them; it is through language that children make sense of the input they receive in the classroom from the teacher and the written texts; and it is through language that children express their understanding of what they have learnt from this input.

The language of instruction may, therefore, affect learners' academic success positively or negatively (Marsh, 2006; Owu-Ewie & Eshun, 2015). Desai (2016), Kinyaduka and Kiwara (2013), Qorro (2006) and Trudell (2016) specify that for learning to occur, teachers and students need to be proficient in the medium of instruction. Referring to situations where the medium of instruction is not the mother tongue of learners and teachers, Qorro (2006: 8) claims that "the language of instruction puts limitations on teachers and students to an extent that classroom activities such as critical thinking, critical sense, independence, openness, problem solving and the like become impossible". She states that it is when instructors and learners are able to operate in the medium of instruction effectively that quality of education is attained.

However, Desai (2016: 346) adds that students' and teachers' competence in the language of instruction alone is not sufficient to guarantee learning. She explains that availability of the required teaching and learning materials and infrastructure is also a prerequisite for this learning to occur. As for Benson (2014: 4), she maintains that "instruction in a language learners do not understand prevents them from making the sound-symbol-meaning connections needed for literacy and learning, and it devalues their identity".

It goes without saying, then, that, when students are proficient in the medium of instruction, they will obviously perform academically. Naturally, they also need to be taught by qualified teachers and adequate learning resources must be available. Conversely, if the students are not proficient in this language, they will hardly achieve at school. In this study, English as the medium of instruction was a tool that was expected to mediate learning. The data below answer research sub-questions 3 and 4: What role does English play in students' performance in content subjects? / How do students' exam results in English correlate with their results in content subjects?

While responding to question 1 of the questionnaire, 37 out of 74 students disclosed that they encountered difficulties in lessons taught in English. To question 2, thirty-nine students avowed that they would understand their content subjects better if they were taught in their mother tongue, Kinyarwanda. However, to question 11, thirty-three students affirmed they succeeded better in English than in content subjects and 32 students claimed they performed better in content subjects.

When questioned on their proficiency in English (in question 1), only 2 students out of the 18 that were interviewed affirmed they were proficient in English. To interview question six, only 7 out of 18 students stated that English had a positive impact on their performance in content subjects. Although interviewed students (N=18) were not many, the number (N=16) of those who declared they had low skills in English or that English negatively affected their performance in content subjects was significant. This lack of students' English proficiency is corroborated by the fact that they unanimously requested the researcher to translate the questionnaire in Kinyarwanda and to conduct the interviews in this mother tongue to be able to express themselves effectively.

The data from the students' results indicate that most of them did not perform academically. In fact, very few students did well in Mathematics and History. Only 17 out 74 students from the three classes succeeded in Mathematics, 16 in History whilst 38 were successful in English.

Considering the schools separately, 26.9% students succeeded in Mathematics at School 1; 0% at School 2 and 38.5% at School 3. In History, 7.7% students fared well at School 1, 22.7% at School 2 and 34.6% at School 3. In English, 46.2% students passed at School 1, 40.9% at School 2 and 65.4% at School 3. As stated previously, the lack of proficiency in English might not have been the only cause of the students' underperformance in content subjects. Other hindering factors could have been identified if time and means had been on the researcher's side, so she could conduct her study in both English and content-subject classrooms.

However, data from interviews with the English teachers revealed that they were generally pleased with the progress their students were making in English. T1 and T3 even confirmed that English was affecting their students' academic performance positively. Nevertheless, there was inconsistency in what T1 asserted. He claimed that he was satisfied with his students' level of

proficiency and that he was confident they would obtain good results in the national examinations. Yet, on another occasion, he confessed that English was negatively affecting his students' performance in content subjects and that subject teachers kept complaining to him about the students' low proficiency in English. T2 himself admitted that his students did badly in content subjects because of poor English skills. T3, nevertheless, maintained that his students' English proficiency would be more enhanced if his school had more learning materials and infrastructure.

What emerges from the students' and teachers' data is that, although more students (N=38) did better in English than in Mathematics (N=17) and History (N=16) at all three schools, many students were struggling to cope with this medium of instruction. The fact that a large number of students did badly in Mathematics and in History suggests that English was not mediating the students' learning. Generally, students fare well when they are instructed in a language that they understand, but if they are not fully proficient in this medium, their academic performance may be affected negatively. Moreover, even though the English teachers were generally pleased with their students' level of English, they acknowledged that appropriate strategies needed to be devised to boost their students' English skills.

The data also show that correlation between the students' performance in English and their results in Mathematics and History could not be established, as not all students who succeeded in English passed in these content subjects. At School 1, twelve students (G5, G1, G2, G4, S7, G6, S9, H1, G7, H2, H9, and G9) out of twenty-six obtained half of the mark in English. Only five students (G1, G2, G4, S7 and H2) among these succeeded in Mathematics and one student (G2) in History. At School 2, nine students (W5, W2, R1, W1, R9, M4, R6, M2, and W7) out of twenty-two passed in English, no students (0) among them succeeded in Mathematics and only three students (W5, R1, and R9) scored half of the mark in History. Of the seventeen students (N7, N6, N9, T6, N1, O9, N5, O5, O8, O2, N2, T7, T9, T5, O4, N8, and O6) out of twenty-six who passed in English at School 3, only eight (N7, N6, N9, T6, N1, O5, T9, and O4) succeeded in Mathematics and nine (N7, N6, N9, T6, N1, O9, N5, O8, and O6) passed in History.

The data also disclosed that the students at School 3 performed better in all subjects than the students at the other schools. I suppose that these students' better performance in English was,

perhaps, due to the fact that T3 was more proficient in English than T1 and T2 and that he managed his classroom better than the other two teachers. T3's higher level of competency in English can also be seen in the way exams for second trimester 2018 were prepared (see Appendix 3). All three exams have more or less the same content, but T1's and T2's exams are full of mistakes and instructions to the students are sometimes unclear. The few mistakes that appear in T3's exam are comparatively unimportant, and it is better set and more challenging than are T1's and T2's. However, the researcher cannot furnish any possible scientific explanation regarding these students' better achievement in the content subjects since her investigation was limited to the English classrooms only.

Furthermore, the students' poor performance in Mathematics and History does not necessarily insinuate that they were incapable of assimilating their lessons. If they had been instructed in a language they understood well, they might have obtained better results in these content subjects. As Desai (2016: 350) proposes, we should assess students on what they can accomplish in their home language before we pass judgement on their performance in English. Benson (2014: 7) concurs that evaluating learners in a language they are not proficient in does not indicate whether the challenge resides in the language of instruction or in grasping the content of their lessons.

What also came out of the data is that no obvious correlation could be established between the students' marks in Kinyarwanda and their scores in English at the three schools. At School 1, only 6 students out of 26 did well in Kinyarwanda but 12 succeeded in English. Moreover, of the six students (G2, G4, S9, H9, S1, and B1) who passed in Kinyarwanda, only four (G2, G4, S9, and H9) had half of the mark in English. At School 2, fourteen students (W5, W2, R1, W1, M4, W7, W6, M1, W9, R3, R8, R4, R7, and W4) out of 22 fared well in Kinyarwanda and only six (W5, W2, R1, W1, M4, and W7) in English. Nevertheless, all 6 students who passed in English also passed in Kinyarwanda. At School 3, it is 24 students out of 26 who did well in Kinyarwanda and 17 in English. Of the 24 students (N7, N6, N9, T6, N1, O9, N5, O5, O8, O2, N2, T7, T9, T5, O4, N8, T1, O7, O3, T3, O1, T2, N3, and T4) who obtained half of the mark in Kinyarwanda, only sixteen (N7, N6, N9, T6, N1, O9, N5, O5, O8, O2, N2, T7, T9, T5, O4, and N8) succeeded in English.

Although research has demonstrated that proficiency in L1 enhances proficiency in L2, proficiency in Kinyarwanda did not seem to foster the learning of English at the three schools. It can be argued that the students at School 1, School 2 and School 3 may not have developed academic cognitive skills (CALP) in Kinyarwanda to be able to transfer them to English, the second language, which is most probable considering that they stopped being taught in Kinyarwanda at the end of Primary 3. In Rwanda, the language of instruction shifts from Kinyarwanda to English in Primary 4. Sibomana and Uwambayinema (2016: 34-35) stipulate that this early shift to English medium will likely hinder acquisition of basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) in Kinyarwanda, which will restrain acquisition of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in both the mother tongue and English. In other words, if a Rwandan student whose home language is Kinyarwanda is not able to communicate in this language effectively, she will have difficulties acquiring another language and learning through its medium. One may assume, therefore, that many students at the three selected schools failed their subjects because they had not acquired CALP in English, the medium of instruction, nor in Kinyarwanda, their mother tongue.

The following section analyses the students' and the English teachers' perceptions of English as a medium of instruction in Rwanda.

5.5 Students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as language of instruction

English has nowadays become a widespread language of communication and has been adopted by many countries all over the world because of interests particular to each individual country. Alexander (1999) and Crystal (2003) maintain that English has become a global language, and that it gets this status when it plays a special role that is acknowledged in a country. Crystal adds that in particular fields, English even seems to have become the only language of communication. Nunan (2003), on his side, states that English is presently considered as the language through which science and technology are conveyed and that science-related papers are shifting from native languages to this foreign language. For Harumi (2002: 37), "English is a major language of international trading, commerce, broadcasting, communication, safety, travelling, transportation, sports events, and academic conferences, and so on". Marsh (2006: 29)

holds that English "is viewed as an essential level for success in the globalising economies, and thus it carries the mantle of 'the language of power'". Bruthiaux (2002: 129) goes as far as saying that "the worldwide dominance of English is such that only catastrophic upheaval could seemingly threaten it in the near future".

Marsh (2002) confirms that people decide to use English for two reasons. "For some, it is part of a steadily developing socio-economic conspiracy. For others, it relates to the need to have a single common utilitarian language" (Marsh, 2002: 29). Rwanda is among those countries which view English as an asset to attaining progress in multiple domains (Sibomana & Uwambayinema, 2016). Despite being spoken by only a small number of Rwandans, English enjoys a very high status in the country. Indeed, following the globalisation trend that advocated English hegemony, English was proclaimed the sole medium of instruction after Primary 3 in the year 2008. English is also as widely used as Kinyarwanda in official matters. In addition, knowing English is something that some people in Rwanda boast of, to the extent that those who are not knowledgeable in this language feel somehow discriminated against. It has even become a regrettable habit for some Rwandans, and even some authorities, to awkwardly code-switch or code-mix from Kinyarwanda to English to pretend and make people believe they belong to this narrow circle of the elite who can speak English. "Today, any smart person (including high government officials) must show that they know English even when addressing people who are not conversant with English" (Sibomana & Uwambayinema, 2016: 30).

This regrettable behaviour is influenced by the fact that English plays multiple roles in today's Rwanda. For instance, one must know English to cope with one's studies, to be able to write a good job application letter, to successfully answer questions once you have been called for a job interview (no other language is used in interviews), to correctly process documents written in English at work, to name but a few examples. As Nomlomo (2007: 28-29) contends, prestigious languages determine people's appointment in jobs and constitute a handicap for those who are not proficient in them as they cannot stand the competition in the job market.

Kinyarwanda is used in local administration for official matters. It is also used as medium of instruction in schools from Primary 1 to Primary 3. It also remains a fact that some Rwandans who are proficient in Kinyarwanda prefer using English in some official places. One common

reason behind this choice is the false belief that English is more valuable than Kinyarwanda and can provide some social, political, technological and economic opportunities that Kinyarwanda cannot offer. This is, however, unfortunate for children raised in such settings as they are denied opportunities to develop competence in their mother tongue and cannot enjoy the many psychological, socio-cultural and cognitive developmental benefits gained through its use (Nomlomo, 2007).

French, which used to be the main language of instruction before 2008 and which is spoken by 91% of Rwandans (NISR, 2002), has given way to English and enjoys a less-privileged status than English nowadays. Indeed, French is no more used in official matters and nobody seems to care. Furthermore, even if the current language in education policy states that French has to be taught as a subject in schools and that students must write examinations in it, people are reticent and, in practice, the policy is not being implemented. French is only taught in some private schools that have opted to keep bilingual instruction in English-French. This paradoxical status accorded to French causes many Rwandans who speak French, and not English, to feel left behind in the developmental process of their nation as there are no official contexts in which this language can be practised. Worse still, a large number of francophone school teachers and university lecturers are more than frustrated to teach in English, a language they are not proficient in. Actually, people have experienced an abrupt shift from French medium of instruction to English and were not given enough time and opportunities to develop skills in the latter language.

The following data provide answers to research sub-question 5: What are the students and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as language of instruction?

The students and their teachers from the selected schools also view English as a language of numerous opportunities. As stated in the previous chapter, data from interviews with the students and the questionnaire indicate that all the students that were interviewed, and most of those who answered the questionnaires, as well as their teachers were happy that English was the medium of instruction in Rwanda. Below are some additional reasons for liking English that emerged from interviews with the students:

S4: Ni byiza kuba tubyiga mu cyongereza kuko burya iyo ururimi ari urwawe, ndavuga

ikinyarwanda, babishyize mu kinyarwanda, sinzi, ku bwanjye ndabona bitaba ari byiza kwiga mu kinyarwanda.
It is a good thing that we are taught in English rather than in our home language Kinyarwanda.

I believe that learning in one's mother tongue is not the real problem here. Rather, S4 is one of the Rwandans who values English more than Kinyarwanda.

S11 below thinks that knowledge of English can enable people to attain progress. I am convinced that any language can lead to progress if is used for good purposes.

S11: Ururimi rw'icyongereza …, abantu barushyizeho barakoze cyane. Kuko bararebye basanga igihugu cyacu ntaho kiragera. Bararebye rero basanga icyongereza kukigisha ni cyo cyazadufasha kugira ngo natwe tuzazamuke tugere ahakomeye.
Deciding on English medium was a very nice thing because knowing this language can lead to greater development.

It is the way people perceive a language that engenders its status. If Rwandans considered that Kinyarwanda, a mother tongue that is spoken by more than 90% of the Rwandan population, was an asset, it would be more valued and utilised for multiple national purposes and so would enable the country to develop faster than it does now.

The section below provides a summary of the chapter.

5.6 Summary of the chapter

This chapter analysed the data that emerged from classroom observations, questionnaires administered to the students, interviews with the students, interviews with the English teachers and the students' results in English and in content subjects so as to obtain responses to the research sub-questions in the current study. The analysis dealt with (1) the teaching strategies the English teachers deployed in their English classrooms, (2) the learning materials and infrastructure available at the schools, (3) the impact English had on performance in content subjects, (4) the correlation between the students' results in English and in the content subjects and (5) the students' and teachers' perceptions of English as the medium of instruction in Rwanda.

Firstly, in the English language classrooms at School 1, School 2 and School 3, the teachers resorted to four teaching and learning strategies such as question-answer, teacher talk, group work and individual work techniques. All three teachers used the question-answer strategy to elicit answers from students. Nevertheless, the type of questions T1 and T2 asked called for lower-order thinking skills only on the part of their students. This practice could not stimulate their students' critical thinking or problem-solving skills. T1 and T2 did not encourage their students to pose questions, denying them opportunities to practise the language of instruction. Conversely, T3's questions displayed higher-order thinking and he motivated his students to ask questions, which I believe promoted their English proficiency.

Teacher-talk was another strategy that was utilised by T1 and T2. This technique favoured teacher-centred classrooms in which the students were not offered sufficient opportunities to take part in the learning process. T3's classroom was, however, learner-centred and his students were more enthusiastic to learn. T1, T2 and T3 also had recourse to group work to allow their students to engage in peer interactions and so scaffold each other's learning. Nevertheless, T1 did not manage group work well and did not offer any support to his students.

Next, T2 and T3 gave their students individual work. This enabled them to be aware of their students' needs so as to address them. Individual work also permitted the students to learn to work independently. T1's students were not assigned individual work so did not benefit from the advantages offered through using this strategy.

Code-switching between English and Kinyarwanda was another technique that was used. As most of the students were not competent in English, the language of instruction, Kinyarwanda, their mother tongue and the language they understood well, was resorted to now and then, to facilitate their comprehension of the material learnt.

The last strategy that was used in the classroom was teaching English through content. The English textbook, the main teaching material, which was utilised in the English classrooms, provided relevant content through which English was taught and learnt. Nevertheless, more materials are needed to complement this book.

Secondly, the schools suffered from a shortage of teaching and learning materials and infrastructure. The students' books and dictionaries were too few to satisfy all the students. In addition, the school libraries were poorly equipped and did not provide the students with enough reading materials. And although the schools were supplied with electrical power, the classrooms were not lit for electricity was not installed yet. This prevented the use of electric devices that could enhance the learning of English. Language laboratories were also non-existent.

Thirdly, the data indicates that English did not mediate the learning of the Third Form students at School 1, School 2 and School 3. Indeed, the students performed poorly in English, which negatively affected their performance in content subjects, hence, the quality of education in general. Moreover, there was no correlation between the students' results in English and their results in the content subjects (Mathematics and History). What emerged from the data also was that no correlation could be established between the students' results in Kinyarwanda, their mother tongue, and their results in English, the medium of instruction, except at School 3. It could not, thus, be supposed that these students had acquired CALP in Kinyarwanda or that the language skills acquired in the mother tongue had transferred to English.

Fourthly, the teachers and the students perceived that English deserved its status of language of instruction in Rwanda. They estimated that English was a global language so Rwandans had to know it so as to integrate in today's world and to achieve social and economic development.

In the following chapter I provide a summary of the study and pinpoint its relevance to the language in education policy and improvement of the quality of education in Rwanda. I then discuss the limitations of the study and suggest recommendations with reference to the teaching and learning of English, a second language and the language of instruction in Rwanda.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The current study explored the role that English, the language of instruction in Rwanda, played in the quality of education of students in Third Form classrooms in three 9 YBE schools of the rural district of Gisagara. To achieve this goal, the researcher addressed the following main research question: What role does English, the language of instruction, play in influencing the quality of education of students in Third Forms classes in three 9 YBE schools in the Gisagara District. The sub-questions aimed to investigate (1) what teaching and learning strategies, if any, the English language teachers devised to enable their students to successfully deal with content subjects, (2) what kind of learning and teaching materials and infrastructure, if any, the schools had that enhanced the learning of English, (3) what role English played in students' performance in content subjects, (4) how the students' results in English correlated with their results in content subjects, and (5) what the students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as the medium of instruction in Rwanda were.

To obtain responses to these questions, various data collection methods were utilised. Firstly, classroom observations permitted the researcher to observe the learning strategies as well as the available learning materials and infrastructure that were used to promote the learning of English. Secondly, questionnaires administered to the students disclosed their perceptions of English as the medium of instruction, the teaching techniques they preferred that their English teachers use to improve their English skills and what effect they believed English had on their performance in content subjects. Thirdly, interviews that were carried out with students also revealed the ways they perceived English as the language of instruction in Rwanda. Besides, these interviews highlighted the teaching and learning strategies they assumed would improve their English proficiency. Fourthly, interviews with the English teachers informed the researcher of their perceptions of English as the medium of instruction in Rwanda. They also specified the teaching strategies and learning materials and infrastructure the teachers claimed they used in order to

boost their students' English proficiency. Fifthly, the students' results in English and their results in content subjects enabled the researcher to assess the impact English had on performance in content subjects and to determine whether there was any correlation between these results.

In this chapter, I outline the pre-eminent research findings, make recommendations based on these findings and acknowledge the limitations of the study. I also underline the significance of the present study for the amelioration of the language-in-education policy in Rwanda, particularly for the teaching and learning of English in rural and poverty-stricken areas like the Gisagara District.

6.2 Summary of the findings

Taking into account what emerged from the data analysis regarding the impact of English on the quality of education of 9 YBE students in three selected schools in the Gisagara District, I recapitulate the main findings of the study below. First, I present the findings related to the teaching strategies. Then, I highlight the findings pertaining to the learning materials and infrastructure. Next, I summarise the findings associated with the impact of the language of instruction, English, on the students' academic performance. After that, I encapsulate the findings of the correlation between the students' results in English and their results in content subjects. Last, I sum up the findings relating to the students' and teachers' perceptions of English as the medium of instruction in Rwanda.

6.2.1 Teaching strategies

Good teaching methods are essential for students' academic achievement (Guirguis & Pankowski, 2017; Muema, Mulwa & Mailu, 2018). During my classroom observations, I noted that the English teachers devised various techniques in their classrooms to deal with the teaching and learning of English. Below, I briefly revisit these strategies.

6.2.1.1 Question-answer technique

I observed that T1 and T2 used to pose questions of lower-order types. Such kinds of questions prevented their students from developing critical thinking and problem-solving skills.

Furthermore, it was solely the teachers who dominated classroom talk and did not motivate their students to ask questions. This caused the students to not actively participate in their own learning, and the teachers were therefore not in a position to know whether their lessons were assimilated or not. Such classroom practices could not promote the students' acquisition of English proficiency. In fact, T1's and T2's students performed poorly in English.

On the other hand, T3's questions prompted his students to make use of higher-order thinking skills, which enhanced their English skills. These teaching procedures, thus, induced T3's students to achieve well in English and to fare better than T1's and T2's students.

6.2.1.2 Teacher talk

Classroom observations also allowed me to notice that T1's and T2's classrooms were teacher-centred. In this old teaching approach, teachers esteemed that they were the only knowledgeable people and that learners had to attentively lend an ear to what they were imparting to them without intervening. This is the very situation that prevailed in the English classrooms at School 1 and School 2. The English teachers monopolised the talk and did not create enough opportunities for their students to have a say in the learning process. Indeed, peer interactions as well as interactions between the students and the teachers were rare. Thus, the students were denied the chance of benefitting from the support of their better-achieving classmates. The students did not take enough advantage of the interactions between them and their teachers because these learning techniques were not valued.

This lack of interaction compelled the students to be exposed to their teachers' input only and so prevented them from contributing their output to the learning process. Input alone is not sufficient to facilitate learning. Teachers' input and students' output are both a prerequisite for students to develop proficiency in the language of instruction (Swain, 1985; Swain, 1995). As aforementioned, T3's classroom was student-centred. He created occasions where interactions between the students and with the teacher occurred, which stirred up the students' eagerness to learn.

6.2.1.3 Group work

Group work is a learning strategy that renders possible interactions between students and between students and their teachers, and wherein the students are given the opportunity to negotiate meanings through using the language of instruction. Group activities also provide contexts in which the less competent students are scaffolded by their more knowledgeable group mates. Moreover, these group tasks require that teachers offer assistance whenever necessary, hence, mediating the learning. With such learning support, students' mental functions that are underlying in their ZPD will develop and it will also promote their proficiency in the medium of instruction. Furthermore, during group tasks, students are motivated to learn because they are made accountable for their own learning.

All three English teachers at School 1, School 2 and School 3 used the group work technique to develop their students' English proficiency. All three teachers, 72 students out of the 74 who answered the questionnaire and all 18 students who were interviewed affirmed that group work enhanced the learning of English. T2 and T3 made their students participate in the group tasks actively and provided support wherever it was needed. Unfortunately, the students were not given the opportunity to share the individual groups' experiences.

As for T1, he did not manage the classroom group activities well. He did not supply any help and made no effort to ensure whether his students were truly engaged in the assigned group tasks or whether all students were actively participating. T1 sent some students to the front to present their group work, but he did not stimulate the class to react.

6.2.1.4 Individual work

Although the merits of group work are undeniable, individual activities should also be valued. Teachers should assign individual work to their students once in a while to allow them to furnish effort and test their learning abilities. Individual work trains students to achieve tasks by themselves and to realise that they can manage to do and learn things without relying too much on other people's support. This self-confidence is significant for success in their exams.

T2 and T3 gave individual work to their students. T2 devised activities that called for his students' personal commitment. Nevertheless, it was difficult for T3 to know whether his students were really involved in individual work as they did the activities from the very few English textbooks that they shared in groups of about 4 to 6 students. Some students complied with the instructions given by the teacher and did the tasks while others were idling away, perhaps because they could not read what was in the books clearly. While I was carrying out classroom observations, I did not see T1 giving individual work to his students.

6.2.1.5 Code-switching

People code switch between languages to accommodate gaps in their own knowledge of the target language so make shifts between this medium and the language they understand and speak well. This latter language must naturally be familiar to all parties that are engaged in interaction.

Code-switching was also resorted to by the students and teachers in the English language classrooms at School 2 and School 3. The students were not proficient in English, so the teachers occasionally allowed them to shift from this language of instruction to their mother tongue, Kinyarwanda, to ease communication. Equally, these English teachers sometimes switched to Kinyarwanda to facilitate comprehension of their lessons. The use of Kinyarwanda, a language that all students understood and felt comfortable in, created an atmosphere that was conducive to learning. Indeed, the students became self-assured and were motivated to contribute to their own learning by actively participating in assigned classroom activities.

Even though shifting to Kinyarwanda enabled the students to better comprehend the concepts they failed to grasp in English, it could not be advanced that this mother tongue had any favourable influence on the learning of the medium of instruction. Indeed, as shown in the previous chapter on data analysis, no correlation could be determined between the students' results in Kinyarwanda and their results in English. In fact, of the 44 out of 74 students who succeeded in Kinyarwanda, only 26 (four at School 1, six at School 2 and sixteen at School 3) passed English. As research has demonstrated, when learners have acquired CALP in the home language, these skills will most likely transfer to the second or additional language (Ellis, 2008; Ionescu, 2014; Romero & Manjarres, 2017; Shatz, 2018; Sultana, 2018). It can be presumed,

thus, that most of the students had not yet developed their CALP in Kinyarwanda, which constituted a hindrance to the enhancement of their CALP in English.

T1 did not encourage his students to speak Kinyarwanda in his classroom although they also encountered difficulties in English. In fact, the data generated by the students' results reveal that only 12 out of 26 students at School 1 scored half of the mark in English. This means that more than half of the students did not understand their subjects well when they were being taught in English.

6.2.1.6 Teaching English through content

Language across the curriculum (LAC) and content-based instruction (CBI) approaches suggest that language should be taught in context and not in isolation. For the particular case of students, the content pertaining to their fields of study provides the best context through which they can learn an additional language (Banegas, 2011; Haynes & Zacarian, 2010; Hismanoglu, 2005). The different language skills can thus be dealt with efficiently through exploring authentic texts associated with the different content subjects. This would not only promote students' proficiency in the language of instruction but also their acquisition of the specialist vocabularies connected to their domains. As a matter of fact, the students would be stimulated to learn because the content would be appealing to them.

In my study, I observed that the English textbook provided some meaningful and relevant contexts for the learning of English. The book contained varied passages most of which described Rwandans' daily activities, events, customs, etc. Some narrated African stories or were pertinent to some of the students' subjects. Some such examples are: describing daily routines, discussing gender equality, talking about religion in Rwanda, recounting a marriage ceremony, talking about tourism in Rwanda, discussing the use of the media, and describing the achievements of African civilisations. However, what was given in the English textbook was not sufficient to develop the students' English competence but rather served as a useful guideline for the English teachers to create additional learning materials.

T1 and T2 declared that they used only the texts provided in the English textbook and were content with that. As for T3, he asserted that he brought to class extra reading texts related to the students' different content subjects to make them read a lot and acquire this good habit.

Nevertheless, the provision of appropriate content alone is not enough to foster students' skills in the medium of instruction. It is of paramount importance that teachers be proficient in this language to effectively impart knowledge to their students. I noticed that T1 and T2 were not competent in English, which may have been the main cause of their students' poor performance in the school subjects that were delivered in this foreign language. T3, however, was proficient in English and his students scored better marks than the students in the other classes in all subjects.

The LAC method also advocates collaboration between language teachers and subject teachers. T1, T2 and T3 claimed that while using reading materials drawn from the students' fields of study, they came across difficult terminologies, so they requested their content-subject colleagues to clarify things for them. They also affirmed that they counselled their colleagues on how to deal with English language difficulties in their classroom. However, the findings from the study informed the researcher that this collaboration was simply circumstantial because the English and content teachers did not collaborate or assist one another on a regular basis.

6.2.2 Teaching and learning materials and infrastructure

As indicated in the earlier chapters, instructional materials and the learning infrastructure are among the factors that play an essential role in the learning process. When instructional materials are chosen appropriately and utilised correctly, and when adequate infrastructure is available, learning is reinforced (Adalikwu & Iorkpilgh, 2013; Barrett et al., 2019; Gershberg, 2014; Wambua & Murungi, 2018).

The three researched 9 YBE schools experienced a shortage of teaching and learning materials that could foster the acquisition of English. Actually, the English textbooks were so few that the students had to share them in big groups. In addition, the students were never allowed to borrow these books. They were utilised in the classroom only and in the presence of the English teachers and when English classes ended, the books were collected and returned to the school library.

Apart from the scarcity of English textbooks, the libraries did not own any other English resources that could be lent to the students to be read in their leisure time. However, reading is known to greatly contribute to language acquisition (Chio, 2009; Daskalovska, 2014; Dickiinson et al., 2012; Leung, 2002; Miller, 2009). Accordingly, the unavailability of reading materials at the three schools contributed to hampering the students' development of English proficiency.

The dictionary is also a learning tool, which, if properly used, may support language learning. Dictionaries were also very scarce in the libraries at School 1, School 2 and School 3. The English teachers used to take one (English monolingual) dictionary to the classroom for all the students (about 22 to 26 students) to consult, which was not realistic.

Learning infrastructure is another factor that is indispensable for promoting learning. The visited schools lacked adequate infrastructure that could sustain the learning of English. Electricity was not installed in the classrooms, so the teachers could not use any electrical appliances that could support their teaching. The students could also not stay late at school and do any academic activities because the classrooms were not lit in the evenings. This was an unfortunate and critical situation because most of these students came from poor families whose homes too were not supplied with electric power. I wondered when they found time to do their assignments or to revise their lessons. The schools did not possess language labs, either, so the students lacked opportunities for practising and developing their English skills.

The above shows that School 1, School 2 and School 3 faced big challenges that were obstructions to their providing good instruction to the students. The school authorities were powerless as they were not able to address these difficulties.

6.2.3 Impact of English on performance in content subjects

The language of instruction is a medium through which instruction is dispensed. Research (Albakri, 2017; Komba & Bosco, 2015; Tamtam, 2013) has demonstrated that students learn better if they are instructed in a language they understand well. However, in order for teaching and learning to be effective, both teachers and students must be proficient in the language of instruction. Otherwise, instead of facilitating their comprehension of content subjects, the medium of instruction will rather exert a negative effect on their school achievement.

In Rwanda, it is English, a foreign language, which plays this crucial role at all levels of education. English is, therefore, supposed to facilitate the teaching and learning of other school subjects. However, many Rwandan teachers are not sufficiently proficient in English, and students who are taught by such teachers hardly develop skills in this foreign language and, in the long run, fail at school.

As evidenced by the research findings in this study, the English teachers, particularly T1 and T2, did not have enough English competence to be able to scaffold their students' learning of this target language. The analysis of data also indicates that the students were not very proficient in English and that they did not achieve well in content subjects. Indeed, only 38 out of 74 students succeeded in English while 17 passed in Mathematics and 16 in History. This lack of positive correlation between the students' results in English and their results in content subjects is an indication that English impacted negatively on the students' assimilation of these subjects. From the above, it can be supposed that the English teachers did not play the assumed mediating role in their students' learning, and that English was not an appropriate tool to mediate the learning of content subjects. In a word, the students' and teachers' low proficiency in English was one of the primary factors that hampered the students' performance in content subjects.

In Rwanda, learning is also hampered by the context in which English is expected to be acquired, where English is hardly heard outside of the classroom, whilst Kinyarwanda is predominantly spoken. The only setting left for the students to develop their English skills, hence, is the school environment. Unfortunately, as explained above, not all requisite conditions are fulfilled in the three visited schools for this learning to occur. As Desai argues, "In such a context, where people have to learn that additional language in an environment where it is not used often, pupils are likely to encounter difficulties with learning English, let alone using it as a medium" (Desai, 2016: 347).

6.2.4 Students' and teachers' perceptions of the use of English as language of instruction

English has been adopted in many nations of the world for the belief that its use can boost development in different spheres of a country's society (Hussain, Ahmed & Zafar, 2009;

Rajwani, 2012; Roux, 2014; Sivaranjani & Ajitha, 2016). In Rwanda, the same view prevails and English has been given a higher status than any other spoken language in the country.

In 2008, English was proclaimed to be the only medium of instruction in schools in Rwanda. English was also declared one of the official languages besides French and Kinyarwanda. Despite general recognition of this trilingual policy, English is used more frequently in official matters than Kinyarwanda and French. For example, official correspondence is mostly written in English while Kinyarwanda is occasionally used and French very seldom. Another instance concerns job application letters that must be written in English or job interviews that are conducted in this same language.

This very important status accorded to English in Rwanda and the popular conviction that it is a communication channel through which development can easily be attained stimulates Rwandans to strive to learn this language. The findings in this study also indicate that the English teachers and their students shared the common mindset that knowledge of English could offer them opportunities that Kinyarwanda or any other language could not. They consequently considered that deciding on English as a medium was a wisely-thought choice on the part of the Rwandan government.

The perception that English can offer many more advantages than other languages spoken in Rwanda, plus the fact that it is the language of instruction, undermines the importance of Kinyarwanda and so restrains students from acquiring proficiency in this mother tongue. In lower primary, Kinyarwanda is the language of instruction and the medium switches to English from Primary 4. This early shift prevents students from acquiring cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) in Kinyarwanda, necessary for coping with their studies. According to research (Madrinan, 2014; Yadav, 2014), if the students have not learnt these skills in their home language, it will be difficult for them to acquire the same skills in a second or additional language, as no transfer of skills may be possible.

As indicated earlier, proficiency in one's home language may positively influence the acquisition of skills in an additional language. This signifies that if a Rwandan student has developed CALP in Kinyarwanda, these skills will transfer to English, a second language and the medium of instruction. However, the analysis of data reveals that correlation between the students' results in

English and their results in Kinyarwanda could not be established. In fact, among the 44 out of 74 students who succeeded in Kinyarwanda, only 26 had half of the mark in English. From the current study's findings, it can be argued that the students in the 9 YBE at School 1, School 2 and School 3 had not yet acquired CALP in Kinyarwanda, so this mother tongue could not influence the acquisition of English skills positively.

The above research findings indicate that the quality of education in the selected Third Form classrooms in the three 9 YBE schools of the Gisagara District was compromised by a number of serious challenges. Firstly, the English teachers mainly used teacher-centred strategies that denied the students opportunities to wholly become engaged in their learning process. In addition, the learning strategies that could have enhanced the students' English proficiency were inadequately utilised so did not yield the expected results. Secondly, the three schools suffered from a deficiency of appropriate teaching and learning resources and infrastructure that could facilitate the teachers and their students to deal with English skills efficiently. Thirdly, English had an adverse impact on the students' performance in content subjects as most students and their English teachers (namely T1 and T2) were not proficient in this medium of instruction. Fourthly, the students and their teachers' wrong perception of the supremacy of English over other languages caused the former to devalue Kinyarwanda and fail to develop proficiency in this mother tongue. Nevertheless, according to research, it is only when learners have developed CALP in their home language that these skills can be transmitted to the second or additional language. It goes without saying then that the students' knowledge in Kinyarwanda would therefore have minimal effect on the development of their English skills.

The above conclusions require that recommendations be made to aid students to acquire cognitive academic language proficiency in English and so deal with their content subjects successfully.

6.3 Recommendations

This study was conducted with the aim of determining the influence that English, a second language and the language of instruction in Rwanda, had on the quality of education of Third Form students in three selected 9 YBE schools of the Gisagara District. The findings emerging

from the research data reveal that, instead of being a channel through which knowledge was to be conveyed smoothly, English was rather a hindrance to the students' comprehension of their content subjects. In fact, the necessary conditions for the students acquiring proficiency in this medium of instruction were not met, which reduced their capacity of performing academically. Below, I make some recommendations based on the research questions that may provide solutions to dealing with the causes of this impediment.

6.3.1 Teaching and learning strategies

The research findings disclosed that the learning techniques used in the English classrooms did not allow the students to develop their English skills sufficiently. For learning to be mediated, English teachers should be trained on how to choose appropriate learning strategies and on how to use the various techniques to suit their students' individual needs. It is also these students' needs that should guide the teachers in their selection of classroom tasks.

In addition, teachers should not dominate classroom talk but rather give enough room to their students to collaborate with their classmates while providing them with the needed assistance. The students at School 1 and School 2 ought to have been provided with more space to freely engage in interactions in the language of instruction with their peers so as to construct meanings and scaffold each other's learning. When students are working with each other, they feel free to speak in the target language and are not ashamed of making mistakes. Therefore, the brightest students can support the weakest ones, which facilitates the latter's acquisition of this language.

However, even though the students were occasionally made to work in groups, the class did not share what came out of the group discussions. The students would have benefitted from the group activities more if each group had presented its own report to the class. This would have incited them to engage in constructive discussions in the language of instruction.

The English teachers should also have helped their students to develop self-confidence so that they could venture to pose questions and to express their opinions on different topics in English. Self-reliance is an essential attribute that may influence the learning process favourably.

Code-switching is another learning technique that is known to promote the learning of a second or foreign language. This strategy also stirs the students' self-confidence because they are aware that they are free to shift from the target language to the home language if they get stuck. Teachers should not consider code-switching as a bad habit that might restrain the learning of English, but rather as an advantageous tool to foster this learning. T1, T2 and T3 ought, then, to have allowed their students to code-switch between English and Kinyarwanda to facilitate their understanding of concepts they may not have acquired in this medium of instruction. However, it would be detrimental to the learning of English if the students abused this strategy by spending most of their time communicating in their mother tongue during classroom activities.

As discussed earlier, translanguaging, a process in which students are encouraged to develop proficiency in more than one language, would also be very advantageous to Rwandan students. English and Kinyarwanda can be utilised alternately to develop skills in both languages so as to multiply communication occasions. In other words, both English and Kinyarwanda would be used as languages of instruction to enhance learning as the students would gain both content and language skills in the two languages.

English should also be taught through a variety of texts connected with the students' content subjects. In this case, students would be encouraged to learn because they would be dealing with things they like pertaining to their chosen fields of study.

6.3.2 Teaching and learning materials and infrastructure

Learning materials and infrastructure are indispensable tools that schools must avail to facilitate their students' learning. However, the research findings in this study disclosed that School 1, School 2 and School 3, which were located in a rural and poor district, lacked the basic materials and infrastructure that could promote the learning of English. In addition, the researched students mainly came from needy families whose parents were illiterate and could in no way assist their children with school subjects.

The Rwandan Government should therefore invest much more money in providing these rural schools with the necessary assets to give their students equal learning opportunities as the students studying in urban schools. The government ought also to allocate incentives to teachers

in rural schools to attract competent teachers who usually apply to urban schools for they are seduced by the good wages they are paid there. Although this policy would seem to be costly at first sight, it would prove rewarding in the end. As Desai (2012: 225) puts it "…the question needs to be asked whether it is more cost effective to have pupils moving through the school system without understanding much of what they are learning …". In fact, if appropriate learning resources are available and, if instruction is provided by qualified teachers, the students would undoubtedly become proficient in the language of instruction and, hence, cope with their academic subjects.

In addition, it is the English teachers' duty to devise additional learning materials to compensate for the lack of English reading resources in their school libraries. For instance, T1, T2 and T3 could seek and store a bank of reading materials that would have been at hand any time the need arose. The English teachers also needed to work closely with their colleagues and content teachers who would have aided them to select appropriate and field-related texts to explore in the English classrooms.

6.3.3 The language of instruction as a mediating tool for learning

The language of instruction plays a primary role in the students' performance in their school subjects. If the students are proficient in this medium, they are likely to succeed in their subject exams. However, the reverse effect can be expected if the students are not competent in this target language. This was the case with most of the students at the three visited schools. They were not proficient in English so did not perform well in their content subjects. The students' failure to develop English skills was exacerbated by their teachers' (T1 and T2) inadequate proficiency in this language of instruction.

Most of the Rwandan English teachers presently in the system are among the ones who were trained in the Francophone system and who were made to teach in English whereas they had not mastered this language. Others are young people who completed their studies in Teacher Training Centres (T.T.C), upper secondary schools that train students to teach. The latter are also not skilled in English, since they were taught predominantly by the same teachers whose medium of instruction used to be French.

One of the other conditions for Rwandan students to develop proficiency in English is that they be taught by teachers who are proficient in this language from Primary 1 onwards. For this to occur, the Rwandan government should give the Language Education Department and any other language-related departments the credit they deserve, as was the case in the past before Science and Technology-related subjects became the country's priorities and were privileged at the expense of these others. Nowadays, it is students who take subjects relevant to Science and Technology who have a very good chance to be eligible for government bursaries. Indeed, the requirements for these students to get sponsored are not as hard as those for students who have applied in Social Science-related subjects, and specifically in languages. The latter need to score far higher grades than the former to be granted the scholarship. This pre-eminence given to Science and Technology has discouraged students from applying for the other disciplines for fear of being deprived of the grants, thus, occasioning the scarcity of teachers qualifying to teach languages.

In addition, taking into account the current situation where many teachers are not competent in English, the Rwandan government should also devote a special budget for empowering these teachers to develop proficiency in English and to be trained on how to impart these skills to their students. Accordingly, once Rwandan children are instructed by teachers, who are really skilled in English from lower primary, their English proficiency would improve.

6.3.4 The role of Kinyarwanda in mediating learning and influence on the development of English proficiency

Students learn better when they are taught in a language they understand and speak fluently. This also applies to Rwandan students whose mother tongue is Kinyarwanda. Nonetheless, the language-in-education policy in Rwanda stipulates that Rwandan students be instructed through the medium of Kinyarwanda from Primary 1 to Primary 3 and learn English as a subject. From Primary 4 onwards the language of instruction switches to English while Kinyarwanda is taught as a subject. According to Cummins (1979), it requires about seven to eight years to develop CALP in a second or additional language and so be able to function in this language academically. How can one, thus, expect these Rwandan children to learn and perform successfully in English whilst they have not been given sufficient time to develop these more

than necessary skills? At this stage, they could at most have acquired basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) if they were lucky enough to be instructed by teachers who were qualified in English. As pointed out previously, a good number of English teachers in Rwanda are not competent in this language of instruction, so the probability is that most Rwandan students reach Primary 4 without even possessing these conversational skills. As revealed by the present study, it can also not be advanced that the students at School 1, School 2 and School 3 may have acquired CALP in Kinyarwanda considering that they did not score good marks in their mother tongue.

In agreement with Cummins's (1979) theory of second language learning, Rwandan students should be instructed in Kinyarwanda and learn English as a subject until the end of primary school, which lasts six years, and shift to English medium at the beginning of secondary school. Referring to Desai's (2012: 223) research, this period before the foreign language starts to be used as the language of instruction, and during which the students are taught in their home language, could be utilised valuably to boost the students' CALP in Kinyarwanda. When students are instructed in a language they master, they easily assimilate the concepts in their lessons. Furthermore, if the students have acquired CALP in their home language, Kinyarwanda here, these skills will easily be transmitted to the second language (English), hence, CALP in the latter language will also be promoted.

For if students have to be taught in a language they know well, and if L1 can enhance L2 acquisition, Kinyarwanda should be accorded a bigger place in the language-in-education policy in Rwanda than is the case at present.

6.4 Limitations of the study and further research

Similar to any other case study, I must acknowledge that the present research has a number of limitations. In fact, this study was restricted in time and scope and so its research findings cannot be generalizable to other contexts. Another limitation is that the research was carried out in the Gisagara District only. If it had been conducted in different areas of Rwanda, it would have, perhaps, provided a different set of outcomes. Moreover, it is only the students' results of the second term that were analysed. If the study had been carried out for a longer period of time, for

instance, for the whole school year, more research data would have been gathered and, thus, much more information could have been obtained. Nevertheless, these limitations were not dependent upon the researcher but were imposed by the researched schools which claimed they had a heavy workload to be covered so could not allocate more time to her enquiry. Furthermore, only three schools of the same district were investigated because they presented unique characteristics that were not found anywhere else at the time. Conducting the study in more schools with more or less similar characteristics as those of the visited schools would generate more valid and more reliable data that would likely corroborate the reality evidenced by the current research findings.

Another shortcoming resides in the fact that the classroom observations were carried out in English language classrooms only and that the only teachers that were interviewed were those who taught this language. Further research should investigate content subject classrooms to observe how the students coped with the other courses that were taught through English. The same study should also determine if the subject teachers were proficient enough in English to effectively impart knowledge to their students and in which ways, if any, they assisted their students to deal with English language difficulties. I deem it important that subject teachers should also be concerned about their students' competence in the medium of instruction and do something about it.

A last limitation was that the students' poor results in content subjects could not indicate to the researcher whether they failed because their lessons were difficult or because they were instructed in a language they did not understand. As Desai (2012: 228) contends, there is "a need for more comparisons between what pupils can do in their own language and what they are able to do in a second language like English". A further study would, thus, develop the same course in English and in Kinyarwanda for two groups of Third Form students in 9 YBE schools. The experimental group would be taught in Kinyarwanda and the control group in English. At the end of the course the students' performance in school subjects would be compared. Although this undertaking may prove costly and time-consuming, it is worth the trial. In fact, investment in time and money would be required to design appropriate tasks and materials in Kinyarwanda as from Primary 4, all learning materials used to teach content subjects are available only in English.

6.5 Conclusion

The present study sought to investigate the effect that English, a foreign language and the language of instruction in Rwanda, had on the quality of education. The research was carried out in Third Form classrooms in three 9 YBE schools of the Gisagara District. The results showed that the quality of education was lacking in these schools for a number of reasons. First, the English teachers did not use appropriate strategies and the few techniques that could prove good were inadequately employed. Second, there was a scarcity of learning resources and infrastructure that could have improved the acquisition of English skills. Third, even though proficiency in the home language was believed to positively influence the learning of a second language, the students were not motivated to develop their CALP in Kinyarwanda. In fact, the Rwandan language-in-education policy conferred a much higher status to English than to other languages spoken in the country, and the general perception was that knowledge of this foreign language could help people become socially and financially successful in today's society. These above-mentioned challenges did not stimulate the students' fostering of their proficiency in Kinyarwanda, which impacted negatively on their performance in content subjects.

The data also revealed that the present study had limitations as no generalisations could be made on the basis of a single case. Nevertheless, I gather that if the same studies were conducted in other schools having almost the same features as School 1, School 2 and School 3, similar results might be obtained.

Recommendations based on the research findings were made so as to improve the teaching and learning of English in Rwanda and especially in poor rural areas like the Gisagara District. Suggestions for further research were also made to explore areas that the current study did not cover for the aforesaid reasons.

For the quality of education to be attained, the Rwandan language-in-education policy needs to be revised. Students have to be instructed in a language they speak and understand well in order to develop critical-thinking and problem-solving skills and, thus, contribute to finding solutions to problems facing their society. This language is no other than Kinyarwanda, their home

language. It would, then, be worth investing in time and money to elaborate learning materials in Kinyarwanda and to train teachers on how to teach in this mother tongue.

Kinyarwanda should also be treasured as the most important asset defining Rwandans' identity. It is in this way that Rwandan children would be encouraged to boost their skills in this home language and be proud of knowing it.

Learning additional languages also constitutes an advantage not to be ignored. Our world has become a tiny place, and for various purposes people keep travelling from one country to another where different languages are spoken. However, the introduction of a foreign medium should occur only when the students have acquired CALP in this target language.

Finally, this study could be useful to policy makers in Rwanda, English teachers and Rwandan students in general. It could help policy makers to improve the language-in-education policy so as to ensure quality of education in Rwanda. The recommendations made in the study could also aid teachers to ameliorate their ways of teaching by adopting appropriate teaching strategies. The present study could also allow Rwandan students to acquire better learning techniques to strengthen their English skills and so perform better in their school subjects.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abdi, A., Laei, S. & Ahmadyan, H. (2013). The effect of teaching strategy based on multiple intelligences on students' academic achievement in science course. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 1 (4), 281-284.

Adalikwu, S.A. & Iorkpilgh, I.T. (2013). The influence of instructional materials on academic performance of senior secondary school students in Chemistry in Cross River State. *Global Journal of Educational Research*, 12, 39-45.

Adebule, S.O. & Ayoola, O.O. (2016). Impact of instructional materials on students' academic performance in matehematics in secondary schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *Research Journal of Educational Studies and Review*, 2 (1), 1-4.

Adelman, C.D., Jenkins, C.D., & Kemmis, S. (1976). Rethinking case study: notes from the second Cambridge conference. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 6 (3), 139-150.

Ahangari, S., Dogolsara, A.N. & Siddiek, A.G. (2013). Comparing the effect of using monolingual versus bilingual dictionary on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning. *English Language Teaching*, 8 (6), 141-149.

Ahmed, A.K. (2013). Teacher-centered versus learner-centered teaching style. *The Journal of Global Business Management*, 9 (1), 22-34.

Aimin, L. (2013). The study of second language acquisition under socio-cultural theory. *American Journal of Educational Research*, 1 (5), 162-167.

Aito, E. (2005). National and official languages in Nigeria: Reflections on linguistic interference and the impact on language policy and politics on minority languages. In *Proceedings of the 4th international symposium on bilingualism*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press.

Akpan, V.I. and Okoli, A.C. (2017). Effect of the use of instructional materials on academic performance of pupils in Ikwuano Abia State. *International Journal of Trend in Research and Development*, 4 (1), 247-250.

Albakri, S. (2017). *Effects of English medium of instruction on students' learning experiences and quality of education in content courses in a public college in Oman*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Oman: The University of Exeter.

Alexander, N. (1999). *English unassailable but unattainable: The dilemma of language policy in South African education*. England (U.K.): University of Warwick.

Alexander, N. & Bloch, C. (2004). *Feeling at home with literacy in the mother tongue*. Keynote presentation at the 29th IBBY World Congress. Cape Town, South Africa.

Almalki, S. (2016). Integrating quantitative and qualitative data in mixed methods research – challenges and benefits. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 5 (3), 288-296.

Almeida, P.A. (2012). Can I ask a question? The importance of classroom questioning. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 31, 634-638.

Al-Muallem, A., Elzubeir, M., Roberts, C. & Magzoub, M. (2016). Development and initial testing of an instrument for evaluating needs and inferring readiness of research supervisors: A mixed methods approach. *Health Professions Education*, 2, 138-147.

Alshenqeeti, H. (2014). Interviewing as a data collection method: A critical review. *English Linguistics Research*, 3 (1), 39-45.

Amadioha, S.W. (2009). The importance of instructional materials in our schools, an overview. *New Era Research Journal of Human, Educational and Sustainable Development*, 2 (3&4), 61-63.

Amiri, M. & Fatemi, A.H. (2014). The impact of content-based instruction on students' achievement in ESP courses and their language learning orientation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4 (10), 2157-2167.

Arain, M., Campbell, M.J., Cooper, C.L. & Lancaster, G.A. (2010). What is a pilot study? A review of current practice and editorial policy. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 10 (67).

Arslan, M. (2006). The role of questioning in the classroom. *Hasan Ali Yücel Egitim Facultesi Dergisi*, 2, 81-103.

Atieno, O.P. (2009). An analyisis of the strengths and limitations of qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 13, 13-18.

Bahrani, T. (2013). Importance of language input in language learning. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, 6 (10), 1376-1379.

Bakahwemama, J. (2010). What is the difference in achievement of learners in selected Kiswahili and English-medium primary schools in Tanzania? In Desai, Z., Qorro, M., & Brock-Utne, B. (Eds). *Educational challenges in multilingual societies: LOITASA phase 2 research*. Cape Town: African Mind.

Ball. J. (2011). *Enhancing learning of children from diverse language backgrounds: Mother-tongue based bilingual or multilingual education in the early years*. Paris: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation.

Banegas, D.L. (2011). Content and language integrated learning in Argentina 2008-2011. *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning*, 4 (2), 32-48.

Barrett, P., Treves, A., Shmis, T., Ambasz, D. & Ustinova, M. (2019). *The impact of school infrastructure on learning: a synthesis of the evidence*. Washington, DC: International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/The World Bank.

Baxter, P. & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13 (4), 544-559.

Behroozizad, S., Nambiar, R.M.K. & Amir, Z. (2013). *The emergence and development of language learning strategies through mediation in an EFL learning context*. National University of Malaysia (UKM): Elsevier Ltd.

Behroozizad, S., Nambiar, R.M.K. & Amir, Z. (2014). Sociocultural theory as an approach to aid EFL learners. *The Reading Matrix*, 14 (2), 217-226.

Behroozizad, S., Nambiar, R.K.M. & Amir, Z. (2016). The relationship between language learning strategies and teacher's mediating role. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 18 (2), 35-48.

Bell, J. (2005). *Doing your research project: A guide for first-time researchers in education, health and social sciences* (4th ed). Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

Bennett, A. & Elman, C. (2006). Qualitative research: recent developments in case study methods. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 9, 455-76.

Benson, C. (2014). School access for children from non-dominant ethnic and linguistic communities. *Paper Commissioned for Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All: Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of School Children (UIS / UNICEF, 2015)*, Montreal: UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS).

Bera, N. (2017). The role of language lab in English language learning. *International Research Journal of Interdisciplinary & Multidisciplinary Studies (IRJIMS)*, III (V), 134-142.

Bhattacherjee, A. (2012). *Social Science Research: principles, methods, and practices (*2nd ed). Florida: University of South Florida.

Bhushan, P. et al. (2017). *Language across the curriculum*. New Delhi: Indira Gandhi National Open University.

Birkner, V.A. (2016). Revisiting input and output hypotheses in second language learning. *Asian Education Studies*, 1 (1), 19-22.

Blazar, D. (2016). *Teacher and teaching effects on students' academic performance, attitudes, and behaviors*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Harvard: Harvard Graduate School of Education.

Bolton, P., Tol, W.A. & Bass, J. (2009). Introduction to special issue: combining qualitative and quantitative research methods to support psychological and mental health programmes in complex emergencies. *Intervention*, 7 (3), 181-186.

Boughey, C. (2000). Multiple metaphors in an understanding of academic literacy. *Teachers & Teaching*, 6. DOI – 10.1080/713698740.

Bowen, G. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9 (2), 27-40.

British Educational Research Association. (2011). *Ethical guidelines for educational research*. London.

Brock-Utne, B. (2000). *Whose education for all? The recolonization of the African mind*. New York: Falmer Press.

Brock-Utne, B., Desai, Z. & Qorro, M. (2003). *Language of instruction in Tanzania and South Africa (LOITASA)*. Dar-es-Salaam: E&D Limited.

Brown, D. H. (2014). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed). White Plains, MY: Pearson Education.

Bruthiaux, P. (2002). Predicting challenges to English as a global language in the 21st century. *Language Problems & Language Planning*, 26 (2), 129-157.

Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research: How is it done? *Qualitative Research*, 6 (1), 97-113.

Burke, A. (2011). Group work: how to use groups effectively. *The Journal of Effective Teaching*, 11 (2), 87-95.

Bušljeta, R. (2013). Effective use of teaching and learning resources. *Czech-Polish Historical and Pedagogical Journal*, 5 (2), 55-69. Doi: 10.2478/cphpj-2013-0014.

Canagarajah, S. (2011a). Codemeshing in academic writing. Identifying teachable strategies of transalanguaging. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95, 401-417.

Canagarajah, S. (2011b). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. In Li, W. (Ed.). *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2, 1-27.

Cassell, C. & Symon, G. (eds.). *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research*. London: Sage.

Celic, C. & Seltzer (2011). *Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB guide of educators*. New York: CUNY-NYSIEB.

Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D. (2015). *Multilingual education: Between language learning and translanguaging*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cenoz, J. (2015). Content-based instruction and content and language integrated learning: the same or different? *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 28 (1), 8-24.

Cenoz, J. & Gorter, D. (2017). Translanguaging as a pedagogical tool in multilingual education. *Language Awareness and Multilingualism*, Encyclopedia of Language Education, DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-02240-6_20

Chenail, R.J. (2011). Interviewing the investigator: Strategies for addressing instrumentation and researcher bias concerns in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 16 (1), 255-262.

Chiang-Hanisko, L., Newman, D., Piyakong, D. & Liehr, P. (2016). Guidance for using mixed methods design in nursing practice research. *Applied Nursing Research*, 31, 1-5.

Childs, M. (2016). Reflecting on translanguaging in multilingual classrooms: Harnessing the power of poetry and photography. *Educational Research for Social Change (ERSC),* 5 (1), 22-40.

Chio, K.U. (2009). Reading and second language acquisition. *HKBU Papers in Applied Language Studies*, 13, 153-174.

Chiriac, E.H. & Frykedal, K.F. (2011). Management of group work as a classroom activity. *World Journal of Education,* 1 (2), 3-16.

Choi, L.L.S. (2005). Literature review: Issues surrounding education of English-as-a-second language (ESL) nursing students. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing,* 16 (3), 263-268.

Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic structures*. The Hague: Mouton Publishers.

Clark, B.A. (2000). First-and second language acquisition in early childhood. *Issues in Early Childhood Education: Curriculum Teacher Education, & Dissemination of Information,* 1, 181-188.

Ceveland-Innes, M. & Wilton, D. (2018). *Guide to blended learning*. British Columbia, Canada: Commonwealth of Learning.

Cohen, A.D. (2014). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. (2nd ed). New York: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed). New York: Routledge.

Collentine, J., & Freed, B.F. (2004). *Learning context and its effects on second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Costa, J., McPhail, C., Smith, J. & Brisk, M.F. (2005). Faculty first: The challenge of infusing the teacher/education curriculum with scholarship on English language learners. *Journal of Teacher Education,* 56 (2), 104-118.

Creese, A. & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *The Modern Language Journal,* 94, 103-115.

Cresswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches.* (3rd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.

Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (4th ed). Los Angeles (CA): Sage.

Crowe, S. et al. (2011). The case study approach. *Medical research methodology,* 11.

Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language*. (2nd ed). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, J. & Hornberger, N.H. (Eds.) (2008). Introduction to volume 5: Bilingual education. In: Bilingual Education. *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, 5 (i-xi).

Cummins, J. (1979). Cognitive academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimum age question and some other matters. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 19, 197-205.

Cummins, J. (1999). BICS & CALP: Clarifying the distinction. *Educational Resources Information*. University of Toronto.

Cummins, J. (2005). Teaching for cross-language transfer in dual language education: possibilities and pitfalls. *TESOL Symposium on Dual Language Education: Teaching and Learning Two Languages in the EFL Setting*. The University of Toronto.

Cummins, J. (2008). BICS and CALP: Empirical and theoretical status of the distinction. In: Street, B. & Hornberger, N.H. (Eds.). *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*, 2, 71-83.

Danladi, S.S. (2013). Language policy: Nigeria and the role of English in the 21st century. *European Scientific Journal*, 9 (17), 1-21.

Daskalovska, N. (2014). Reading and vocabulary acquisition. *The International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*.

De Vos, A. Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, CSL. (2002). *Research at grass roots: for the social sciences and human service professions*. (2nd ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Desai, Z. (2003). A case for mother tongue education? In Brock-Utne, B., Desai, Z. & Qorro, M. *Language of instruction in Tanzania and South Africa (LOITASA)*. Dar-es-Salaam: Tanzania.

Desai, Z. (2004). Starting a research project: some lessons to be learnt. In Brock-Utne, B., Desai, Z. & Qorro, M. (Eds). *Researching the language of instruction in Tanzania and South Africa (LOITASA)*. Cape Town: African Minds.

Desai, Z. (2010). Laissez-faire approaches to language in education policy do not work in South Africa. In Desai, Z., Qorro, M., & Brock-Utne, B. (Eds). *Educational challenges in multilingual societies: LOITASA phase 2 research*. Cape Town: African Mind.

Desai, Z. (2012). *A case for mother tongue education?* Unpublished doctoral thesis. Bellville: University of the Western Cape.

Desai, Z. (2016). Learning through the medium of English in multilingual South Africa: enabling or disabling learners from low income contexts? *Comparative Education*, 52 (3), 343-358. DOI: 10.1080/03050068.2016.1185259.

Desai, Z. & Parker, N. (2018). The power of stories. In Nomlomo, V., Desai, Z. & September, J. *From words to ideas: the role of literacy in enhancing young children's development*. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape, Faculty of Education and British Council South Africa.

Dickinson, D., Griffith, J.A., Golinkoff, R.M., & Hirsh-Pasek, K. (2002). How reading books fosters language development around the world. *Hindawi Publishing Corporation Child Development Research Volume*. Doi: 10.1155/2012/602807.

Dikko, M. (2016). Establishing construct validity and reliability: Pilot testing of a qualitative interview for research in Takaful (Islamic insurance). *The Qualitative Report*, 21 (3), 521-528.

Dobao, A. F. (2012). Collaborative writing tasks in the L2 classroom: comparing group, pair, and individual work. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21, 40-58.

Donato, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classroom. In Lantolf, J.P. (Ed.). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford; Oxford University Press.

Donesch-Jezo, E. (2011). The role of output and feedback in second language acquisition: A classroom-based study of grammar acquisition by adult English language learners. *ESUKA-JEFUL*, 2 (2), 9-28.

Dongyu, Z., Fanyu, & Wanyi, D. (2013). Sociocultural theory applied to second language learning: Collaborative learning with reference to the Chinese context. *International Education Studies*, 6 (9).

Driscoll, D.L. (2011). Introduction to primary research: Observations, surveys, and interviews. *Writing Spaces: Readings on Writing*, 2, 153-174.

Driscoll, D.L., Appiah-Yeboah, A.; Salib, P. & Rupert, D.J. (2007). Merging qualitative and quantitative data in mixed methods research: How to and why not. *Ecological and Environmental Anthropology*, 3 (1).

Edwards, R. & Holland, J. (2013). *What is qualitative interviewing?* London: Blomsbury Publishing Plc.

Effiong, O. E. & Igiri, C.E. (2015). Impact of instructional materials in teaching and learning of Biology in senior secondary schools in Yakurr LG A. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*, 62, 27-33.

Ellis, N. & Collins, L. (2009). Input and second language acquisition: The roles of frequency, form, and function. The *Modern Language Journal*, 93, iii, 329-335.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition*. (2nd ed). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Emaliana, I. (2017). Teacher-centered or learner-centered learning approach to promote learning? *Jurnal Sosial Humaniora*, 10 (2), 59-70.

Ertürk, N.O. (2013). Effects of visually enhanced input, input processing and pushed output on grammar teaching. *Porta Linguarum*, 20, 153-167.

Estrada, V.L., Gomez, L. & Ruiz-Escarlante, J.A. (2009). Let's make dual language the norm. *Supporting English language Learners*, 66 (7), 54-58.

Eun, B. & Lim, H.S. (2009). A sociocultural view of language learning: The importance of meaning-based instruction. *TESL Canada Journal / Revue TESL du Canada*, 27 (1).

Fahim, M & Haghani. M. (2012). Sociocultural perspectives on foreign language learning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research,* 3 (4), 693 -699.

Fakeye, D.O & Ogunsiji, Y. (2009). English language proficiency as a predictor of academic achievement among EFL students in Nigeria. *European Journal of Scientific Research,* 37 (3), 490-495.

Flick, U. (2013). *The Sage handbook of qualitative data analysis*. London: Sage.

Fox, N. (2006). *Using interviews in a research project*. The NIHR RDS for the East Midlands/Yorkshire & the Humber.

Funk, H. (2012). Four models of language learning and acquisition and their methodological implications for textbook design. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching,* 9 (1), 298-311.

Gabillon, Z. & Ailincai, R. (2013). CLIL: A science lesson with breakthrough level young EFL learners. *Education,* 3 (3), 168-177.

Ganyaupfu, E.M. (2013). Teaching methods and students' academic performance. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention,* 2 (9), 29-35.

Garcia, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Marden/Oxford: Wiley/Blackwell.

Garcia, O & Lin, A.M.Y. (2016). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In Garcia, O et al. (Eds). *Bilingual and Multilingual Education*. Encyclopedia of Language and Education.

Garcia, O. & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: language, bilingualism, and education*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Garcia, O. & Wei, L. (2015). Translanguaging, bilingualism and bilingual education. In Wright, W. & Garcia, O. (Eds). *Handbook of Bilingual Education,* 223-240.

Garrett, T. (2008). Student-centered and teacher-centered classroom management: a case study of three elementary teachers. *Journal of Classroom Interaction,* 43 (1), 34-47.

Garrity, S., Aquino-Sterling, C. & Day, A. (2015). Translanguaging in an infant classroom: Using multiple languages to make meaning. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 9 (3), 177-196.

Gass, S.M. & Serlinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introduction course*. (3rd ed). Oxon (U.K.): Routledge.

Gee, J.P. (2012). The old and the new in the digital literacies. *The Educational Forum*, 76, 418-420.

Gershberg, A.I. (2014). Educational infrastructure, school construction and decentralization in developing countries: key issues for an understudied area. *International Center for Public Policy Working Paper, 14-12*.

Gibbons, P. (2003). Mediating language learning: teacher interactions with ESL students in a content-based classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37 (2), 247-273.

Gill, P., Stewart, K., Treasure, E. & Chadwick, B. (2008). Methods of data collection in qualitative research interviews and focus groups. *British Dental Journal*, 204 (6), 291-295.

Gillham, B. (2000). *Case study research methods*. New York: Continuum.

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8 (4), 597-606.

Griffiths, C. (2004). The case of the hybrid umbrella: A study of case studies. *Occasional Paper*, 3. Auckland, New Zealand: School of Foundation Studies.

Guangyong, S. & Liying, C. (2000). *From context to curriculum: a case study of communicative language teaching in China*. China: University of Alberta.

Guariento, W. & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal*, 55 (4), 347-353.

Guirguis, R. & Pankowski, J. (2017). Potential effects of teaching strategies on students' academic performance under a Trump administration. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 5 (4), 103-110.

Haas, M.S. (2002). *The influence of teaching methods on student achievement on Virginia's end course standards of learning test for Algebra I*. Virginia Beach, Virginia: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Hamamorad, A.M. (2016). Teacher as mediator in the EFL classroom: A role to promote students' level of interaction, activeness, and learning. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 4 (1), 64-70.

Hancock, A. (2018). Learning literacy in multilingual contexts: Scotland and South Africa. In Nomlomo, V., Desai, Z. & September, J. *From words to ideas: the role of literacy in enhancing young children's development*. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape, Faculty of Education and British Council South Africa.

Hancock, B., Windridge, K. & Ockleford, E. (2007). *An introduction to qualitative research*. The NIHR RDS EM/YH.

Harmer, J. (2001). *How to teach English: An introduction to the practice of English language teaching*. Essex: Addison Wesley Longman Ltd.

Harrell, M. & Bradley, M.A. (2009). *Data collection methods: Semi-structured interviews and focus groups*. Arlington, Virginia: The Rand Corporation.

Harumi, E. (2002). A new framework of culture teaching for teaching English as a global language. *RELC Journal*, 33 (2), 36-57.

Hassan, N. & Ahmed, K. (2015). Exploring translanguaging: A case study of a madrasah in Tower Hamlets. *Research in Teacher Education*, 5 (2), 23-28.

Haynes, J. & Zacarian, D. (2010). *Teaching English language across the content areas*. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD.

Haynes, J. & Zacarian, D. (2010). *Teaching English language learners across the content areas*. Virginia: ASCD.

Heale, R. & Twycross, A. (2017). What is a case study? *Evidence-Based Nursing*, 21 (1).

Hélot, C. (2002). First and second language learning in early bilingual education. Cognitive theories and their implications for teachers. *Education et Sociétés Plurilingues*, 19-30.

Heugh, K.A. (2015). Epistemologies in multilingual education: translanguaging and genre-companions in conversation with policy and practice. *Language and Education*, DOI: 10.1080/09500782.2014.994529

Hewlett, D. & Brown, L. (2018). Planning for tranquil spaces in rural destinations through mixed methods research. *Tourism Management*, 67, 237-247.

Hismanoglu, M. (2005). Teaching English through literature. *Journal of Language & Linguistic Studies*, 1 (1), 53-66.

Hong, Y. (2008). On teaching strategies in second language acquisition. *China Education Review*, 5 (1), 61-67.

Hornberger, N.H. & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging and transitional literacies in multilingual classrooms: a bilingual lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 15 (3), 261-278.

Hox, J.J. & Boeije, H.R. (2005). Data collection, primary vs. secondary. *Encyclopedia of Social Measurement*, 1, 593-599.

Huang, R., Ma, D. & Zhang, H. (2008). Towards a design theory of blended curriculum. In: Fong, J., Kwan, R. and Wang, F.L. (eds). *Hybrid learning and education*. ICHL 2008. Lecture notes in computer science, 5169. Springer, Berlin.

Hussain, N., Ahmed, A. & Zafar, M. (Eds). (2009). *English and empowerment in the developing world*. Newcastle upon Tyne, NE6 2XX, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Ionescu, I.D. (2014). *An analysis of the role of first language in second language acquisition*. Claremont Graduate School and San Diego State University.

Ipek, H. (2009). Comparing and contrasting first and second language acquisition: Implications for language teachers. *English Language Teaching,* 2 (2), 155-163.

Izumi, S. (2003). Comprehension and production processes in second language learning: In search of the psycholinguistic rationale of the output hypothesis. *Applied Linguistics*, 24 (2), 168-196.

Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) International Development Center of Japan INC. (IDCJ). (2012). *Basic education sector analysis report*. Kigali, Rwanda.

Jiang, X. (2011). The role of first language literacy and second language proficiency in second language reading comprehension. *The Reading Matrix*, 11 (2), 177-190.

Jones, C.A. (2005). *Assessment for learning*. London: Learning and Skills Development Agency.

Jones, T.A., Olds, T.S., Currow, D.C. & Williams, M.T. (2017). Feasibility and pilot studies in palliative care research: A systematic review. *Journal of Pain and Symptom Management*, 54 (1), 139-151.

Kagwesage, A. (2013). Coping with English as an instructional language in higher education in Rwanda. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 2 (2), 1-12.

Kao, P.L. (2010). Examining second language learning. Taking a sociocultural stance. *ARECLS*, 7, 113 – 131.

Kawulich, B. (2004). *Qualitative data analysis techniques*. University of West Georgia: ResearchGate.

Kawulich, B.B. (2005). Participant observation as a data collection method. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 6 (2), Art. 43.

Kereni, I. (2004). *Developing academic writing at the National University of Rwanda: A case study of first year economics and management*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Bellville: University of the Western Cape.

Khazaei, A., Bayani, A.A. & Haji-Yar, H.F. (2015). Impact of cooperative teaching method on academic achievement elementary school, in Gorgan, Iran. *Journal of Educational and Management Studies*, 5 (3), 159-162.

Khumalo, B. & Mji, A. (2014). Exploring educators' perceptions of the impact of poor infrastructure on learning and teaching in rural South African schools. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5 (20), 1521-1532.

Khurshid, F. & Ansari, U. (2012). Effects of innovative teaching strategies on students' performance. *Global Journal of Human Social Science Linguistics & Education*, 12 (10), 1-9.

Kilfoil, W.R & Van Der Walt, C. (1997). *Learn 2 teach: English language teaching in a multilingual contex*t. 3rd ed. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik Publishers.

Kimberlin, C.L. & Winterstein, A.G. (2008). Validity and reliability of measurement instruments used in research. *Am J. Health-Syst Pharm*, 65, 2276-2284.

Kinyaduka, B. & Kiwara, J.F. (2013). Language of instruction and its impact on quality of education in secondary schools: experiences from Morogoro Region, Tanzania. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4 (9), 90-95.

Komba, S.C. & Bosco, S. (2015). Do students' backgrounds in the language of instruction influence secondary school academic performance? *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6 (30), 148-156.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. University of Southern California: Pergamon Press Inc.

Krashen, S. (1998). Comprehensible output? *System*, 26, 175-182.

Krosnick, J. & Presser, S. (2009). Question and questionnaire design. In Wright, J.D & Marsden, P.V. (eds.), *Handbook of survey research*. San Diego, CA: Elsevier.

Kwon, S.H. (2006). *Roles of output and task design on second language vocabulary acquisition*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Florida: University of Florida.

Kyungsoon, J. (2000). Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and its implication to the role of teachers in students' learning of Mathematics. *Journal of the Korea Society of Mathematical Education Series D*, 4 (1), 33-43.

Lacey, A. & Luff, D. (2007). *Qualitative research analysis*. The NIHR RDS for the East Midlands/Yorkshire & the Humber.

Land, S.M. (2004). A conceptual framework for scaffolding ill-structured problem-solving processes using question prompts and peer interactions. *ERT & D*, 52 (2), 5-22.

Lantolf, J.P. (1994). Sociocultural theory and second language learning: introduction to the special issue. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78 (4), 418-420.

Lantolf, J.P. & Beckett, T.G. (2009). Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition. *Language Teaching*, 42 (4), 459-475.

Lantolf, J.P. & Thorne, S.L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and second language development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J.M. (2011). Classroom observation: Desirable conditions established by teachers. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 34 (4), 449-463.

Lasagabaster, D. (2001). The effect of knowledge about the L1 on foreign language skills and grammar. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 4 (5), 310-331.

Leitner, N. (2003). English across the curriculum. In Hammerl, M. & Newby, D. (Eds). *Second language acquisition: the interface between theory and practice*. Austria: University of Graz, Department of English Studies.

Leppink, J. (2012). Revisiting the quantitative-qualitative-mixed methods labels: Research questions, developments, and the need for replication. Journal *of Taibah University Medical Sciences*, 12 (2), 97-101.

Leung, C.Y. (2002). Extensive reading and language learning: a diary of a beginning learner of Japanese. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 14 (1), 66-81.

Lewis, G., Jones, B. & Baker, C. (2012a). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualization and contextualization. *Educational Research and Evaluation,* 18 (7), 655-670.

Lewis, G., Jones, B. & Baker, C. (2012b). Translanguaging: Origins and development from school to street and beyond. *Educational Research and Evaluation,* 18 (7), 641-654.

Lughmani, D.S., Chan, J., Gardner, S., Wong, H. (2017). *English across the curriculum: fostering collaboration*. The Hong Kong Polytechnic University: ResearchGate.

Lyambabaje, A., Ntakirutimana, E., Iyakaremye, J. (2010). *Compétences linguistiques et apprentissage des sciences au Rwanda*. Butare: Université Nationale du Rwanda.

Ma, X. (2008). The skills of teacher's questioning in English classes. *International Education Studies,* 1 (4), 92-100.

MacSwan, J. et al. (2017): Three theories of the effects of language education programs: an empirical evaluation of bilingual and English-only policies. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 37, 218-240.

Madrinan, M.S. (2014). The use of first language in the second-language classroom: A support for second language acquisition. *Gist Education and LearningResearch Journal*, 9, 50-66.

Majid, M.A.A., Othman, M., Mohamad, S.F., Lim, S.A.H. & Yusof, A. (2017). Piloting for interviews in qualitative research: Operationalization and lessons learnt. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 7 (4), 1073-1080.

Makulloluwa, E. (2013). Code-switching by teachers in the second language classroom. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 6 (3), 581-598.

Malekela, G.A. (2003). English as a medium of instruction in post-primary education in Tanzania: Is it a fair policy to the learners? In Brock-Utne, B., Desai, Z. & Qorro, M. *Language of instruction in Tanzania and South Africa (LOITASA)*. Dar-es-Salaam: Tanzania.

Marsh, D. (2006). English as medium of instruction in the new global linguistic order: global characteristics, local consequences. *METSMaC*. 29-38.

Marsh, H.W., Hau, K.T. & Kong, C.K. (2002). Multilevel causal ordering of academic self-concept and achievement: Influence of language of instruction (English compared with Chinese) for Hong Kong students. *American Educational Research Journal,* 39 (3), 727-763.

Martinez, R., Hikida, M. & Duran, L. (2014). Unpacking ideologies of linguistic purism: How dual language teachers make sense of everyday translanguaging. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 9 (1), 26-42.

Mathers, N., Fox, N. & Hunn, A. (2007). *Surveys and Questionnaires*. The NIHR RDS for the East Midlands/Yorkshire & the Humber.

Mazzafero, G. (2018). *Translanguaging as everyday practice: An introduction*. Turin (Italy): University of Turin.

Mbatha, T. (2018). A glimpse into foundation phase teachers' practices of early literacy development in isiZulu in three Grade 1 classrooms in schools in KwaZulu-Natal. In Nomlomo, V., Desai, Z. & September, J. *From words to ideas: the role of literacy in enhancing young children's development*. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape, Faculty of Education and British Council South Africa.

Mbonimana, G. (2018). Challenges facing nine years' basic education schools on students' performance in Kayonza Disstrict, Rwanda. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research*, 6 (2), 636-642.

Meadows, K.A. (2003). Research methods. *British Journal of Community Nursing*, 8 (12), 562-570.

Meisel, J.M. (2011). *First and second language acquisition: Parallels and differences*. Cambride: Cambridge University Press.

Menezes, V. (3013). Second language acquisition: reconciling theories. *Open Journal of Applied Sciences*, 3, 404-412.

Miller, R.T. (2009). Second language reading and instruction. *Crossing the Boundaries*, 22 (1), 237-241.

Modupeola, O. (2013). Code-switching as a teaching strategy: implication for English language teaching and learning in a multilingual society. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 14 (3), 92-94.

Moeller, A.K. & Catalano, T. (2015). Foreign language teaching and learning. *International Encyclopedia for Social and Behavioral Sciences* 2nd *Edition*, 9, 327-332.

Mogalakwe, M. (2006). The use of documentary research methods in social science. *African Sociological Review*, 10 (1), 221-230.

Mohammed, A. (2017). The role of language laboratory in English language learning settings. *English Language Teaching*, 10 (2), 86-93.

Mokgwathi, T. (2011). *Role of code-switching in teaching and learning in selected senior secondary schools in Botswana*. Pretoria (S.A.): University of Pretoria.

Moore, D. (2002). Case study: code-switching and learning in the classroom. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 5 (5), 279-293.

Morris, J. (2016). *Introduction: group work*. Oregon: University of Oregon.

Muema, J.S., Mulwa, D.M. & Mailu, S.N. (2018). Relationship between teaching method and students' performance in public secondary schools in Dadaab Sub County, Garissa County; Kenya. *IOSR-JRME* 8 (5), 59-63.

Mugirase, G. (2004). *Vocabulary teaching and learning in English language classrooms: a case study of sixth forms at three secondary schools in Rwanda*. Unpublished master's thesis. Bellville: University of the Western Cape.

Mutuye, M., Bonankire, G., Mwangi, P., Indagasi, H., Mukunga, M. & Gechaga, C. (2017). *English for Rwanda Schools, Senior 3 Student's Book*. Kigali, Rwanda: Rwanda Education Board (REB).

Mutuye, M., Bonankire, G., Mwangi, P., Indagasi, H., Mukunga, M. & Gechaga, C. (2017). *English for Rwanda Schools, Senior 3 Teacher's Guide*. Kigali, Rwanda: Rwanda Education Board (REB).

Myers, M.D. & Newman, M. (2007). The qualitative interview in IS research: Examining the craft. *Information and Organization*, 17, 2-76.

Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A. (2011). The effects of a combined output and input-oriented approach in teaching reported speech. *Research in Language*, 9 (2), 111-126.

Nafees, M., Farooq, G., Tahirkheli, S.A. & Akhtar, M. (2012). Effects of instructional strategies on academic achievement in a high school general science class. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3 (5), 161-166.

Nath, B.K. (2010). Major language theorists influencing learning of mathematics. *Theories of Language in Learning of Mathematics*. Kerara, India: University of Calicut.

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (NISR). (2002). *National census of population and housing report of August 2002*. Kigali, Rwanda.

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda. (2012). *Rwanda - integrated household living conditions survey 2010-2011*. Kigali: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning.

Neuman, W.L. (2014). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th ed). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Ngan, N.T.C. (2011). Content-based instruction in the teaching of English for Accounting at Vietnamese College of Finance and Customs. *English Language Teaching*, 4 (3), 90-100.

Njie, B. & Asimiran, S. (2014). Case study as a choice in qualitative methodology. *Journal of Research & Method in Education (IOSR – JRME)*, 4 (3), 35-40.

Nkomo, D. (2016). An African user-perspective on English children's and school dictionaries. *International Journal of Lexicography*, 29 (1), 31-54.

Nkomo, D. (2017). The dictionary in examinations at a South African university: A linguistic or a pedagogic intervention*? Lexicos*, 27 (1), 346-347.

Noble, H. & Smith, J. (2015). Issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research. *Evidence-Based Nursing*, 18 (2), 34-35.

Nomlomo, V. (2007). *Science teaching and learning through the medium of English and Isixhosa: A comparative study in two primary schools in the Western Cape*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37 (4), 589-613.

Nwike, M. & Catherine, O. (2013). Effects of use of instructional materials on students' cognitive achievement in agricultural science. *Journal of Educational and Social Research,* 3 (5), 103-107.

O'Neill, G. (2008). Strategies for implementing group work in large classes: lessons from enquiry-based learning. *Emerging Issues*, II, 75-88.

Ogaga, G.A., Igori, W. & Egbodo, B.A. (2016). Effects of instructional materials on the teaching and learning of social studies in secondary schools in Oju local government area of Benue State. *International Journal of Current Research,* 8 (7), 33859-33863.

Okongo, R.B., Ngao, G. Rop, N.K. & Nyogesa, W.J. (2015). Effect of availability of teaching and learning resources on the implementation of inclusive education in pre-school centers in Nyamira North Sub-County, Nyamira County, Kenya. *Journal of Education and Practice,* 6 (35), 135-141.

Olayinka, A.R. (2016). Effects of instructional materials on secondary school students' academic achievement in social studies in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *World Journal of Education,* 6 (1), 33859-33863.

Omoto, M.P. & Nyogera, W.J. (2013). Content-Based instruction: a study of methods of teaching and learning English in primary schools in Butura district. *International Journal of Business and Social Science,* 4 (5).

Onweh, V.E. & Akpan, U.T. (2014). Instructional strategies and students' academic performance in electrical installation in technical colleges in Akwa Ibom State: instructional skills for structuring appropriate learning experiences for students. *International Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies,* 6 (5), 80-86.

Ortner, M. (2003). *Second language acquisition: the interface between theory and practice*. Austria: University of Graz, Department of English Studies.

Ostlund, U., Kidd, L., Wengstrom, Y. & Rowa-Dewar, N. (2014). Combining qualitative and quantitative research with mixed method research designs: a methodological review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 48, 369-383.

Owu-Ewie, C. & Eshun, E.S. (2015). The use of English as medium of instruction at the upper basic level (Primary Four to Junior High School) in Ghana: from theory to practice. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6 (3), 72-82.

Oxford, R.L. (2003). Language learning styles and strategies: an overview. *Learning Styles and Strategies*.

Pacheco, M.B. (2016). *Translanguaging in the English-Centric classroom: A communities of practice perspective*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Nashville, Tennessee: Vanderbilt University.

Padilla, A.M. & Gonzalez, R. (2001). Performance of immigrant and U.S.-born Mexican bilingual / English language instruction. *American Educational Research Journal,* 38 (3), 727-742.

Pandarangga, S. (2015). The transformation of English as a global language in the world. *Lingua*, 10 (2), 90-96.

Parnwell, R.N. (2015). *Influence of school infrastructure on academic performance in public primary schools in Ruiri Location-Meru County, Kenya*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Ruiri_Location-Meru County: University of Nairobi.

Patton, M.Q. & Cochran, M. (2002). *A guide to using qualitative research methodology*. London: London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.

Peersman, G. (2014). *Overview: data collection and analysis methods in impact evaluation*. Florence, Italy: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF).

Peng, Y. (2017). Content-based instruction of EFL and its effects on learners' needs in China. *Educational Journal*, 6 (3), 116-119.

Pennycook, A. (2017). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. New York: Routledge.

Peters, E. (2007). Manipulating L2 learners' online dictionary use and its effect on L2 word retention. *Language Learning and Technology*, 11 (2), 36-58.

Philip, J., Adams, R. & Iwashita, N. (2014). *Peer interaction and second language learning*. Axon (U.K.): Routledge.

Piaget, J. (1955). *The language and thought of the child*. New York: Meridian Books.

Pinnock, H. (2009). *Language and education: The missing link*. CfBT and Save the Children Alliance.

Popper, K. (2002). *The logic of scientific discovery*. New York: Routledge.

Portoles, L. & Marti, O. (2017). Translanguaging as a teaching resource in early language learning of English as an additional language (EAL). *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature,* 10 (1), 61-77.

Prince, M. (2004). Does active learning work? A review of the research. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 223-231.

Probyn, M. (2005). Language and the struggle to learn: the intersection of classroom realities, language policy, and neocolonial and globalisation discourses in South African schools. In Lin, A.M.Y. & Martin, P.W. (Eds). *Decolonisation, Globalisation: Language-in-education policy and practice*. Clevedon (U.K.): Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Qi, S. (2009). Case study in contemporary educational research: Conceptualization and critique. *Cross-cultural Communication*, 5 (4), 21-31.

Qorro, M. (2006). Does Language of instruction affect quality of education? *HakiElimu Working Papers*. Dar es Salaam.

Rahman, F., Khalil, J.K., Jumani, N.B., Ajmal, M., Malik, S. & Sharif, M. (2011). Impact of discussion method on students' performance. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2 (7), 84-94.

Rajwani, H. (2012). English as a tool of empowerment for employability: entrepreneurial opportunity and impact on large scale projects in English education on employability. *International Multidisciplinary e-Journal*, 1 (9), 37-44.

Rees, N. (2014). English as a global language: the complexity of student motivations. *Rikkyo Business Review*, 7, 78-89.

Richards, J.C. & Rodgers, T.S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* (2nd ed). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ridder, H.G. (2017). The theory contribution of case study research designs. *Business Research*. 10 (2), 281-305.

Robaton, J.C.G. (2002). Peer interaction: A social perspective towards the development of foreign language learning. *Profile,* 13 (1), 189-2014.

Romero, Y. & Manjarres, M.P. (2017). How does the first language have an influence on language learning? A case study in an English ESL classroom. *English Language Teaching*, 10 (7), 123-139.

Roux, P.W. (2014). English as an international language: the debate continues. *Polyglossia*, 26, 45-58.

Rowley, J. (2014). Designing and using research questionnaires. *Management Research Review*, 37.

Rubagumya, C.M. (2003). English medium primary schools in Tanzania: A new 'linguistic market' in education? In Brock-Utne, B., Desai, Z. & Qorro, M. *Language of instruction in Tanzania and South Africa (LOITASA)*. Dar-es-Salaam: Tanzania.

Ruterana, C. (2012). *The making of a reading society: Developing a culture of reading in Rwanda*. Doctoral thesis. Linkoping (Sweden): Linkoping University, Department of Behavioural Sciences and Learning.

Rwanda ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources. (2015). *Resettlement action plan for selected feeder roads in Gisagara District*. Kigali (Rwanda): Rwanda feeder roads development projects.

Rwanda Ministry of Education. (2008). *Nine years basic education implementation: first track strategies*. Kigali, Rwanda.

Rwanda Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Scientific Research (2003). *Education sector*. Kigali, Rwanda.

Rwanda Ministry of Education. (2015). National education for all: 2015 review. *Education for All 2015 National Review*.

Rwanda Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. (2012). *EICV3 district profile: South-Gisagara*. Kigali (Rwanda): National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda.

Sadtono, E. (2012). English across the curriculum: an uphill battle. *CAHAYA Lingua*, 1 (1).

Samuelson, B.L. & Freedman, S.W. (2010). *Language policy, multilingual education, and power in Rwanda*. CA (USA): University of California.

San Jose, A.E. & Galang, J.G. (2015). Teaching strategies in teaching literature: students in focus. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 3 (4), 41-50.

Sanchez-Lafuente, A.A. (2013). The bilingual dictionary and foreign language learning: facts and opinions. *Porta Linguarum*, 20, 89-101.

Sandelowski, M. (2000). Focus on research methods combining qualitative and quantitative sampling, data collection, and analysis techniques in mixed-method studies. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 23, 246-255.

Santos, J.L.G. et al. (2017). Integrating quantitative and qualitative data in mixed methods research. *Texto Contexto Enferm*, 26 (3): e1590016.

Sayer, P. (2013). Translanguaging, texmex, and bilingual pedagogy: Emergent bilinguals learning through the vernacular. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47 (1), 63-68.

Scarcella, R. (2003). *Academic English: A conceptual framework*. California: The University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute.

Scarino, A. & Liddicoat, A.J. (2009). *Teaching and learning languages: a guide*. Carlton South Vic 3053, Austalia: Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations.

Schleppegrell, M.J., Achugar, M. & Oteíza, T. (2004). The grammar of history: enhancing content-based instruction through a functional focus on language. *TESOL QUARTERLY*, 38 (1), 67-93.

Schroeder, C.M., Scott, T.P., Tolson, H., Huang, T.Y. & Lee, Y.H. (2007). A meta-analysis of national research: Effects of teaching strategies on student achievement in science in the United States. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 40 (10), 1436-1460.

Schwartz, M. & Asli, A. (2014). Bilingual teachers' language strategies: The case of an Arabic-Hebrew Kindergarten in Israel. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 38, 22-32.

Shabiralyani, G., Hasan, K.S. Hamad, N. & Iqbal, N. (2015). Impact of visual aids in enhancing the learning process case research: District Dera Ghazi Khan. *Journal of Education and Practice*. 6 (19), 226-234.

Shatz, I. (2018). Native language influence during second language acquisition: a large-scale learner corpus analysis. *Proceedings of the Pacific Second Language Research Forum (PacSLRF2016)*, 175-180.

Sibomana, E. & Uwambayimena, E. (2016). Kinyarwanda doesn't have a place in communication at our school: linguistic, psychological and educational effects of banning one's mother tongue. *Rwanda Journal Series B: Social Sciences*, 3 (1), 23-40.

Sibomana, E. (2014). The acquisition of English as a second language in Rwanda: Challenges and promises. *Rwandan Journal of Education*, 2 (2), 19-30.

Simon, M.K. (2011). *Dissertation and scholarly research: Recipes for success*. Seattle, WA: Dissertation Success, LLC.

Simpson, J. (2017). *English language and medium of instruction in basic education in low- and middle -income countries: A British Council perspective*. London: British Council.

Siniscalco, M.T. & Auriat, N. (2005). Questionnaire design. In Ross, K.N. (Ed.), *Quantitative research methods in educational planning*. Paris: UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning.

Sivaranjani, K. & Ajitha, A. (2016). English for empowerment. *South Asian Journal of Engineering and Technology*, 2 (14), 35-40.

Skutnabb-Tangas, T. & Toukomaa, P. (1976). *Teaching migrant children's mother tongue and learning the language of the host country in the context of the sociocultural situation of the migrant family*. Helsinki: Tampere.

Snow, M.A, Met. M. & Genesee, F. (1989). A conceptual framework for the integration of language and content in second/foreign language instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23 (2).

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Starman, A.B. (2013). The case study as a type of qualitative research. *Journal of Contemporary Educational Studies*, 1, 28-43.

Stephen, D.F., Welman, J.C. & Jordaan, W.J. (2004). English language proficiency as an indicator of academic performance at a tertiary institution. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 2 (3), 42-53.

Stoller, F.L. (2002). *Content-Based Instruction: a shell for language teaching or a framework for strategic language and content learning?* Utah: TESOL.

Sultana, S. (2018). *Role of first language in second language development*. University of Massaschussets, Armherst: ResearchGate.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In Gass, S. & Madden, C. (Eds). *Input in second language acquisition*. 235-256. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In Cook, G. & Seidelhofer, B. (Eds). *Principle and practice in Applied Linguistics: studies in honor of H.G. Widdowson*. 125-144. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In Lantolf, J.J. (Ed.). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swanwick, R. (2016). Scaffolding learning through classroom talk: The role of translanguaging. In Marschark, M. & Spencer, P. (Eds). *The Oxford Handbook of Deaf Studies: Language and Development*. Chapter 28. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tamatam, A.G. (2013). The impact of language of instruction on quality of science and engineering education in Libya: qualitative study of faculty members. *European Scientific Journal*, 9 (31), 19-36.

Teijlingen van, E.R.V., Hundley, V. & Graham, W. (2001). The importance of conducting and reporting pilot studies: The example of the Scottish Births Survey. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 34, 289-295.

Thamarana, S. & Narayana, T. (2015). Significance of various strategies for teaching and learning English. *International Journal of Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL),* 3 (11), 75-79.

Thomas, I.A. & Green, R. L. (2015). Using instructional strategies to enhance student achievement. *National Forum of Teacher Educational Journal*, 25 (3).

Thomas, W.P. & Collier, V.P. (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement*. Santa Cruz: University of California.

Thomson, N. (2012). *Language teaching strategies and techniques used to support students learning in a language other than their mother tongue*. Kongsberg International School.

Treffers-Daller, J. (2018). *Code-switching and translanguaging: Exploring the creativity of multilinguals*. England (UK): University of Reading.

Trudell, B. (2016). The impact of language policy and practice on children's learning: evidence from Eastern and Southern Africa. *Commissioned by UNICEF Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office (ESARO), Basic Education and Gender Equality (BEGE) Section*. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF).

Tulgar, A.T. (2017). Dictionary use of undergraduate students in foreign language departments in Turkey at present. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 5 (12B), 51-57.

Turpin, M.J., Asano, M. & Finlayson, M. (2015). Combining qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods in understanding multiple sclerosis fatigue management. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 14. (2), 53-68.

Turuk, M.C. (2008). The relevance and implications of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in the second language classroom. *ARECLS*, 5, 44-262.

Van Griensven, H., Moore, A.P. & Hall, V. (2014). Mixed methods research – The best of both worlds? *Manual Therapy*, 19, 367-371.

Velasco, P. & Garcia, O. (2014). Translanguaging and the writing of bilingual learners. *Bilingual Research Journal: The journal of the National Association for Bilingaul Education*, 37 (1), 6-23.DOI: 10.1080/15235882.2014.893270

Veliyeva, M. (2015). Bilingualism in education. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5 (12), 2448-2452.

Viechtbauer, W. et al. (2015). A simple formula for the calculation of sample size in pilot studies. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 68, 1375-1379.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Interaction between learning and development: readings on development of children*. New York: Scientific American Books.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1987). *The collected works of L.S. Vygotsky, volume 1: Probems of general psychology*. In Reiber, R. & Carton, A. (Eds.). New York: Plenum Press.

Walqui, A. (2006). Scaffolding instruction for English language learners: a conceptual framework. *The International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 9 (2), 159-180.

Wambua, M.M. & Murungi, C.G. (2018). Teaching and learning materials, teacher's pupil's ratio and its influence on pupils' performance in social studies, the case of Kibwezi Zone, Kenya. *International Researchers Volume*, 7 (2).

Wang, L. (2006). Sociocultural learning theories and information literacy teaching activities in higher education. *Reference & User Services Quarterly*, 47 (2), 149-158.

Wang, Q. (2010). Classroom interaction and language output. *English Language Teaching*, 3 (2), 175-186.

Watkins, C., Carnell, E. & Lodge, C. (2007). *Effective learning in classrooms*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Wei, L. (2011). Moment analysis and translanguaging space: Discursive construction of identities by multilingual Chinese youth in Britain. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43, 1222-1235.

Wei, L. (2018). Translanguaging as a practical theory of language. *Applied Linguistics*, 39 (1) 9-30.

Whitver, S.M. (2017). Asking questions in the classroom: an exploration of tools and techniques used in the library instruction classroom. *Communications in Information Literacy*, 11 (1), 185-203.

Williams, C. (2007). Research methods. *Journal of Business and Economic Research*, 5 (3).

Williams, E. (2011). Language policy, politics and development in Africa. In Coleman, H. (Ed.). *Dreams and realities: Developing countries and the English language*. London: British Council.

Winne, P.H. & Nesbit, J.C. (2010). The Psychology of academic achievement. *The Annual Review of Psychology*, 61, 653-78.

Wolff, H. E. (2016). *Language and development in Africa: Perceptions, ideologies and challenges*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Xiongyong, C., Samuel, M. & Hua, C. (2012). Evaluation on EFL teacher roles from the perspective of mediation: Case studies of China's secondary school practices. *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 3 (1), 117-134.

Xu, X. (2010). Study and effect of dictionary use on second language incidental vocabulary acquisition – an empirical study of college English vocabulary learning strategy. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1 (4), 519-523.

Yadav, M.K. (2014). Role of mother tongue in second language learning. *International Journal of Research (IJR)*, 1 (1), 572-582.

Yao, Q. (2015). Understanding and practice of content-based instruction: a case study of a Chinese immersion teacher. *FFLJ*, 57-69.

Yara, P.O. & Otieno, K.O. (2010). Teaching/learning resources and academic performance in mathematics in secondary schools in Bondo District of Kenya. *Asian Social Science*, 6 (12), 126-132.

Yeasmin, S. & Rahman, K.F. (2012). Triangulation research method as the tool of social science research. *BUP JOURNAL*, 1 (1), 154-163.

Yin, R.K. (2003). *Case study research: design and methods* (3rd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yip, D.Y. (2003). *The effects of the medium of instruction on science learning of Hong Kong secondary students*. Doctoral thesis. University of Nottingham.

Zacharias, N.T. (2014). Second language teacher contributions to student classroom participation: A narrative study of Indonesian learners. *ELTWorldOnline.com*., 6, 1793-8732.

Zailinawati, A.H., Schattener, P. & Mazza, D. (2006). Doing a pilot study: Why is it essential? *Malaysian Family Physician*, 1 (2&3), 70-73.

Zainal, Z. (2007). Case study as a research method. *Journal Kemanusiaan*, 9, 1-6.

Zhang, S. (2009). The role of input, interaction and output in the development of oral fluency. *English Language Teaching,* 2 (4).

Zhang, S. (2009). The role of input, interaction and output in the development of oral fluency. *English Language Teaching*, 2 (4), 91-100.

Zohrabi, M. (2013). Mixed method research: instruments, validity, reliability and reporting findings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3 (2), 254-262.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for students

You are kindly requested to fill out this questionnaire. Note that your responses and names will remain confidential and will be used for research purposes only.

Name: _____

School: _____

Year of study: _____

A. Answer "Yes" or "No"to the following questions.

1. Do you have any difficulty understanding your lessons in English?

……

2. Do you think you would understand better if your lessons were taught in Kinyarwanda?

……

3. Do group discussions in English help you improve your English language skills?

……

4. Do you actively participate in classroom group discussions in English?

……

5. Do you feel comfortable when you are using English in classroom group discussions?

……....

6. Do you think learning content subjects (e.g: Mathematics, Entrepreneurship, History, etc) in English could help you improve your English skills?

……

7. Do you think you would learn English better if your teacher used reading material (or texts) related to your content subjects? (e.g: Mathematics, Entrepreneurship, History, etc.)

……

8. Does using English as a language of instruction enable you to respond well in subject exams? (e.g: Mathematics, Entrepreneurship, History, etc.)

……

10. With the English that you have learnt and are still learning, do you think you will satisfactorily succeed in the coming national examinations?

……

B. Open questions

11. Which language (one) would you prefer to use in classroom group discussions?

……

12. Do you perform (succeed) better in English or in content subjects?

……

13. Which teaching strategies (techniques) would you most like your English teacher to use to enable you to improve your English skills?

……

……

14. If you were given the choice, which language would you suggest to be medium of instruction?

……

THANK YOU!!!

Musabwe gusubiza ibi bibazo. Ibisubizo byanyu n'amazina yanyu bizagirwa ibanga bikoreshwe mu rwego rw' ubushakashatsi gusa.

Amazina: _____

Ikigo cy'amashuri: _____

Umwaka wigamo: _____

A. Subiza "Yego" cyangwa "Oya" ku bibazo bikurikira.

1. Waba ufite imbogamizi mu masomo yigishwa mu cyongereza?

……

2. Uratekereza ko wakwumva neza kurushaho amasomo aramutse yigishwa mu kinyarwanda?

……

3. Kwigira mu matsinda mukoresha icyongereza byaba bigufasha kongera ubumenyi muri urwo rurimi?

……

4. Waba witabira bihagije ibiganiro bikorerwa mu matsinda y'isomo ry'icyongereza?

……

5. Wumva wisanzura iyo uri gukoresha ururimi rw'icyongereza mu matsinda yo kwigiramo?

……

6. Utekereza ko kwiga amasomo (ingero: Mathematics, Entrepreneurship, History) mu cyongereza bigufasha kongera ubumenyi muri urwo rurimi?

……

7. Utekereza ko wakwiga ururimi rw'icyongereza neza kurushaho mwarimu akoresheje imyandiko ijyanye n'andi masomo mwiga?

……

8. Kwiga mu cyongereza byaba bigufasha gusubiza ibizamini by'andi masomo neza?

……

10. Ukurikije icyongereza umaze kumenya n'icyo uri kwiga, ubona bizagufasha mu gutsinda neza ibizamini bya leta byegereje?

……....

B. Andika icyo utekereza ku bibazo bikurirkira.

11. Ni uruhe rurimi wahitamo gukoresha mu matsinda yo kwigiramo?

……

12. Waba utsinda neza icyongereza kurusha andi masomo cyangwa andi masomo ni yo utsinda neza kurusha?

……

13. Ni iyihe myigishirize wakwifuza ko mwarimu w'icyongereza akoresha mu kongera ubumenyi bwawe muri urwo rurimi?

……
……

14. Uhawe amahitamo, ni uruhe rurimi wakwifuza kwigishwamo?

……

URAKOZE!!!

Appendix 2: Interview guide for students: Kinyarwanda version

Ikiganiro mbonankubone

1. Ni iki wavuga ku bumenyi bwawe mu rurimi rw'icyongereza?

2. Ishuri ryawe ryaba rifite ibikoresho mfashanyigisho bigufasha kongera ubumenyi bwawe mu rurimi rw'icyongereza? Niba bihari ni ibihe?

3. Waba witabira bihagije ibiganiro bikorerwa mu matsinda yo kwigiramo mu isomo ry'icyongereza? Sobanura.

4. Ni uruhe rurimi wahitamo gukoresha mu matsinda yo kwigiramo? Vuga impamvu.

5. Ibiganiro bikorerwa mu matsinda yo kwigiramo mukoresha icyongereza byaba bigufasha kongera ubumenyi muri urwo rurimi mu buryo ubwo aribwo bwose?

- Niba ari yego, ni gute bigufasha?

- Niba ari oya, ni iyihe mpamvu ituma bitagufasha?

6. Kwiga mu rurimi rw'icyongereza bigira iyihe ngaruka mu mitsindire yandi masomo wiga?

7. Ni iyihe myigishirize wakwifuza ko mwarimu w'icyongereza akoresha mu kongera ubumenyi bwawe muri urwo rurimi? Sobanura.

8. Ni iki utekereza ku myigire yandi masomo mu cyongereza mu Rwanda?

9. Ni uruhe rurimi wakwifuza kwigishwamo mu Rwanda? Vuga impamvu.

Appendix 3: English Exam copies of second term 2018

School 1 exam

MINEDUC **On 10/07/2018**

Class: S3A

TEACHER:

Instructions:

- **Avoid dirty [sic],**
- **Write correctly your names, number, and class,**
- **Give short & clear answer,**

ENGLISH EXAMINATION FOR THE 2nd TERM 2018, /60marks.

Activity 1. Read the following passage and answer to the questions that follow.

Letter to a Friend

Hi, Fred!

It's been a while since we have been in touch. How has your semester been?

I wanted to send you an email update to you let you know how things have been going during my semester abroad here in Málaga, Spain. I've already been here for six weeks, and I feel like I am finally adapting to the culture. I'm also speaking the language more fluently.

I arrived during the first week of September. The weather has been very nice. Even though it's October, it's still rather sunny and warm. In fact, I went to the beach and swam in the Mediterranean Sea earlier today.

I am living with a very welcoming host family. I have my own private bedroom, but we eat breakfast, lunch, and dinner together. On Sundays, we eat a big home-cooked paella for lunch. In Spain, lunch is usually the biggest meal of the day. It's also very common for the people to take a midday nap right after a big meal. I am actually just waking up from my nap right now!

On weekdays, I take classes at the local university. There, I met several native Spanish speakers. They have been very kind and patient with me. At first, I struggled to comprehend their Spanish, but now I understand most of our conversations. They have commented that my Spanish has improved a lot since we first met. Now, I am more confident to use the language in other places like stores and restaurants.

I am so glad that I decided to spend the semester here in Spain. We have an extended weekend coming up, so a group of my friends and I are going to travel to France for four days. It's so easy and inexpensive to travel internationally in Europe. I love it!

I look forward to hearing from you soon. Like I said, don't hesitate to stay in touch more often. Perhaps you could even come to visit! What do you think?

Best wishes,

Patrick

A. Answer the following questions. /11MARKS

1. Who is writing the letter?
2. The letter is written to whom?
3. Provide another title to this passage.
4. Did the sender get the answer from the addressee?
5. Why Patrick wanted [sic] to send an E-mail to his friend?
6. How can you easily adapt the culture of another country?
7. Where did he gone [sic] to beach and swam [sic]?
8. Why Patrick is [sic] in Spain?
9. What is the other country he is intending to visit?
10. Say why people like to fly to other countries?
11. What are the steps that you can follow when writing a letter?

B. VOCABULARIES.

1. **GIVE THE MEANING OF:** a) being in touch b) to update someone c) weather d)host family e) midday nap f) several g) inexpensive h) being patient /4MARKS
2. **GIVE THE OPPSITE OF**: a) expensive b) forward c) welcoming host family d) I e)confident /5MARKS
3. Compare Rwanda to Spain. /2MARKS

C. LANGUAGE USE AND GENERAL SKILLS.

1. Give the difference from [sic] monophthongs to diphthongs and triphthongs. /2

2. Write phonetically: a) church b) june c) foot d) pot e) water f) king g) shine h) yellow /4MARKS

3. Stress the following: a) country b) begin c) honest d) harmful e) prepare/3MARKS

4. Name the following intonation. /2MARKS

a. Did you eat rice?

b. Go away.
c. Could you give me the pen?
d. I'm going now.

5. Choose the best option to fill the gaps. /9MARKS

1. There is ……..evidence to support his claim.

   a) Little b) few c) a few d) a little

2. ……..has improved enormously.

   a) David's guitar playing b) David guitar playing.

3. I have not …….close friend that I meet regularaly [sic].

   a) Few b) a few c) a little d) little

4. Will you be taking …trousers on the trip?

   a) Much b) many of c) many

5. You look upset. Yes I have had …….

   a) The terrible morning b) terrible morning c) some terrible morning

6. Look at me, I have …….money.

   a) The b) a c) your

7. Who ……? …….. to get through to Anitha.

   a) Do you phone ……I am try.
   b) Are you phoning …….I am trying.
   c) Are you phoning ……. I try.
   d) Do you phone …….. I try.

8. The ……cause of his expulsion was disobedience. (principal/ principle)
9. I was almost sure that your sister would ……the money. (loose/lose)
10. **Join the sentence using so…. that. /2MARKS**

    a) Hellen was very beautiful. Boys were fighting to accompany her.

11. **Rewrite the following sentences as directed**. /3MARKS

a) He may be allowed to attend the party on Saturday. (Begin: They may let …..)
b) The little girl was looking at the birds building their nest. (Use watching in place of looking)
c) We cannot do anything about it. (Begin: there is ……)

D. SUMMARY AND WRTING COMPOSITION.

1. **Read the following passage and summarize it in not more than 40 words. (Use your own words). /5MARKS**

Going to a restaurant

Sandra and Paul are at a steak restaurant. A waiter greets them. "Do you know what you would like to drink?" the waiter asks. “Water and orange juice,” Sandra says. "Thank you. Here are your menus," the waiter says. The waiter brings water for Paul and orange juice for Sandra. "What would you like to order?" the waiter asks. "I would like a 12-ounce steak and mashed potatoes," Paul says. "The same thing, but with green beans," Sandra says. "And two orders of garlic bread," Paul says. "Great. You should have it in soon," the waiter says. The waiter returns after an hour. “Sorry for your wait. Here are two orders of 12-ounce steaks with mashed potatoes and garlic bread,” the waiter says. "I asked for green beans with mine," Sandra says. "I'm sorry, I’ll get those for you," the waiter says. The waiter quickly returns with Sandra's green beans.

2. **Choose one topic from the following and develop it in not more than 250.300 words. (Follow all steps for making a good composition). /8MARKS**

a) Discuss why so many young people smoke and drink even when they are advised not to do so.
b) How should the children of today be brought up so that they still respect their traditions?
c) Choose any proverb in your language and where necessary translate it into English. Then write a story to illustrate it.

School 2 exam **Date: 11/07/2018**

Class: S3

Teacher:

ENGLISH GENERAL QUIZ /50 MARKS

Read the following passage very carefully and then answer the questions that follow it.

TEXT: Malaria

Many of you know what a terrible disease malaria is. Some of you have had it or have seen people in your family with it. It has a huge impact on the world's health. It affects as many as 200 to 300 million people every year. About a million of those people die. It affects people of all ages but most victims by far are babies and young children. Malaria is found in 90 countries in the hot regions of the world. However, 90 per cent of cases are found in Africa, where it is a major cause of death.

There are ways of preventing and treating the disease, using drugs. Many of these are made from quinine, which comes from the cinchona tree which is found in America. However, in many areas, the disease has developed resistance to these drugs which means that they do not work.

Scientists have been trying to develop a vaccine which can be given to people living in areas affected by malaria. So far, none have yet been developed that work on humans, although there are some that work on animals.

At the moment, the best way of preventing the disease is to control the anopheles' mosquito. The population of mosquitoes in an area where humans live can be reduced if the places where they can breed are removed. Mosquitoes breed in still water, so the local community can help by covering open ditches, and repairing holes in the road where rain collects. But ordinary people can do a lot, too. Around your own house, you can clean your yard when it has rained to make sure there are no puddles or containers full of water.

The anopheles' mosquito is most active between sunrise and sunset so you must take special care at night. In the evenings make sure your arms and legs are covered with long sleeves and trousers. Doors and windows can be covered with nets. Members of the family can sleep under nets. These are particularly effective when they are soaked in insect repellent. For extra help, bedroom can be sprayed with mosquito killer before bed time or a mosquito coil can be burnt next to the bed.

By taking these precautions we can prevent mosquitoes from breeding near our homes and prevent them from biting us while we sleep. This is the best way of reducing the risk of malaria.

SECTION A: COMPREHENSION AND VOCABULARY

A. COMPREHENSION 10 marks

1) Malaria is terrible diseases [sic], what is the amount of the population does it affect?
2) Which continent is mostly affected by malaria?
3) Has a malaria vaccine been developed so far?
4) What is the best way of preventing malaria diseases [sic]?
5) Which precautions can we take to prevent mosquitoes from biting us while we sleep?

B. VOCABULARY 5 marks

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate words extracted from the text.

1) The cinchona tree is used to manufacture a drug called …….
2) Mosquitoes breed in …….., so covering open ditches, and repairing …… in the road is a way of preventing.
3) The anopheles' mosquito attacks people between …… and …… so must take special care at night.
4) Scientists have not yet developed a ……to give to people in areas affected by malaria.

SECTION B: GRAMMAR AND PHONOLOGY

I. Choose the correct answer to complete the sentence

1. Since I ……...to him last week, haven't seen him

a) am speaking b) had been speaking
c) had spoken d) spoke

2. "Who ate the kids' food?" the cat ……..

a) did b) has c) does d) ate

3. How tall is Yvonne? She is …….as I am

a) so tall b) the same height c) same height d) tall

4. I wish you ……Kanyombya on TV. It was an excellent production

a) will see b) would see c) saw d) have seen

5. What ……..the weather like on your holiday?

a) was b) were c) was being d) has

6. ……..Peter go swimming with you last year?

a) was b) has c) did d) had

7. I rang home just as the train ……into the station

a) got b) has got c) had got d) was getting

II. <u>Rewrite the sentence below as instructed without changing the meaning</u>

1) Jane gave me a present on my last birthday
(change into passive voice ……)

2) We got lost in the jungle because we didn't have a map
(Begin if we had ……)

3) Smoking is prohibited in public spaces
(Begin : You …….)

4) He gave me a lift to the station and I didn't miss the train
(Start with: If he had ……..)

III. <u>Correct the following sentence</u>

1) Many people going to town yesterday.
2) Why did they cried?
3) The news heard this morning are very bard.
4) Have you ever see the mountain gorilla?

B. PHONOLOGY

I. Choose word which sounds different from others in each set

1) bread, big, street, jeans, meet

2) weight, eye, white, buy

3) hair, wear, here, pear

4) wanted, watched, decided, repeated

5) life, mine, live, ride, pie

6) tray, eight, great, seize

II. Choose the appropriate meaning of the under lined [sic] words from the alternatives

1) <u>You must have</u> as many books as you needs

a) You ought to have c) you would have

b) you may have d) you might have

2) Capital punishment may be a <u>discouragement</u> influence against repeated crimes

a) determent b) preventive

c) barrier d) dissuasion

SECTION C: SUMMARY

In not more than 100 words summarize the text of comprehension talking about malaria

SECTION D: COMPOSITION 10 Marks

Choose one topic out of the two and write a composition of 400 to 500 words on it.

1) Describe the natural features that make Rwanda a beautiful country for tourism.
2) You have just joined senior (S4) in a new school year and made a new friend (Write to your brother and sister describing for [sic] new friend)

SUCCESS!!!!!!!!!!!!

School 3 exam

CLASS: S3

THE END OF THE SECOND TERM ENGLISH EXAMINATION YEAR 2018

DURATION: 3HOURS

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. This paper consists of FOUR Sections A, B, C and D.

SECTION A: Comprehension and Vocabulary

SECTION B: Grammar and phonology

SECTION C: Summary

SECTION D: Composition

2. Answer questions as instructed in sections A, B and Choose only ONE topic from Section D.

Use only a blue or black pen.

Read the text below and then answer the questions that follow.

The wedding

The wedding was in December and so I could attend it. Some dates stick out December fifth. A week before Kenya's independence. Two great ceremonies for the neighborhood to look forward to.

I was not to beleft [sic] out. I polished my pointed shoes and put on my best jeans. I put on a hat and a scarf. Always dressed to kill, that was me. My dream girl was being married to a fellow whose face I did not like, but there were other bird's to kill.

I joined the crowd at their home. Tradition said that she must wait in the house with her pretty little maids until he came for her. She was in there now, surrounded by them and waiting. I heard someone say that the bridegroom and his party were an hour late. Someone else replied that the distance from Muranga to Kangeni was not like that from the nose to the eye. We must be patient. He would come for her. What if he didn't turn up, I thought. The neighborhood would just laugh and then go home. And would kill herself from shame. The goat with a broken leg.

"Are these people from Muranga coming or not? An impatient woman cried. She was dressed in traditional goat skins, dressed for her part, which was to bargain with the bridegroom's people. For a child does not leave her home just like that. Those people from I',lluranga would have to pay dearly for being late. Kangeni people were particular about time and did not like to be kept waiting.

Peter Mboca, who was going to give away the bride, paced around and looked at his watch. He was a grey old man in a smart suit, and he was one of the richer uncles. He paced around, his lips moving. He was rehearsing the speech he would make later. How good he was…and how very obedient, how hard-working, how bright in school…

At last they came. They announced their coming with the aggressive blare of car-horns. Popooooooooo. Pipeeeeeeee. We were not very impressed. Although we could not see over the hedge and the tall maize, we could tell from their sound that it was a small procession.

I hurried to see them arrive. A Peugeot, a Toyota, a Volkswagen. A women spat into the grass. "Three filthy cars. Not even decorated. It must have been raining in Muranga," someone said.

True to custom the Peugeot with the bridegroom stayed outside the gate while the other two cars came in. The bridegroom waits [sic] in dignity while his best man gets [sic] the bride for him.

The cars stopped their blaring and out of the Toyota shot a young man. He wore a three-piece suit and had a red flower sticking out from his breast pocket. Smart but muddy, we thought. The rain must have been terrible at Muranga. This must be the best man. Very young chap. Very smart, but very muddy. We could see that he had done his best to wipe the mud off his new shoes. Another fellow came out of the Volkswagen, leaving others inside. A murmur of astonishment passed through the crowd. This chap was so muddy he should have stayed in the car. He was short and solid-looking.

Our women close in and asked sarcastically what these muddy people wanted. The shy best man, trying to look as confident and as brave as a best man should, said they had come for the bride.

Two muddy brave warriors, come [sic] for the bride! "So! Is there no water where you come from?", our women shot back. "Is our girl going to a place where there is no water?", the short fellow said. "This is mud, not just soi1, mother. It means Muranga is not dry as people say; but full of water." Smart answer. Some women nodded approved [sic]. Muranga was full of water and water was good. The slender best man began to expand how in fact.... "Don't speak English to us. We are not Europeans".

He coughed and smiled. He was quite a charming young fellow but this was obviously the first time he had got mixed up in these things. He started again. Without using English words like 'in fact' and 'actually he explained that they had got stuck in the mud and had to pay a tractor to drag the cars out of the mess.

SECTION A: COMPREHENSION AND VOCABULARY

1. Choose the best answer to these questions. 9MARKS

i. How did the writer feel about the marriage?

a) He was upset because the girl he liked was getting married to someone else.

b) He was happy to be there.

c) He had mixed feelings: he was losing the girl he liked, but he was sure to find someone else.
d) He wasn't excited about it.

ii. How was the writer dressed?

a) In modern, stylish clothes

b) In an elegant suit.

c) In old clothes

d) In traditional clothes.

iii. How far did the bridegroom have to travel that day?

a) A short distance

b) Quite a long way

c) We don't know

d) Two miles in a car

iv) Why would the women make the groom suffer when he arrived?

a) It was traditional

b) Because they didn't like him.

c) Because in their culture being late was not acceptable.

d) Because he was dirty.

v) What was the bride's uncle going to do at the wedding?

a) Pay for it

b) Make a speech

c) Give the-bride away and make a speech

d) Take pictures

vi) How did the bride's family know that the groom's party was a small one?

a) Because of sound made by cars

b) Because they couldn't see them over the hedge

c) Because-they already-knew they were small.

d) Because they knew how many people were coming.

vii) Why did the bridegroom wait in the car?

a) It was traditional for the best man to go and get the bride.

b) He was feeling upset because of what had happened on the journey.

c) He was afraid of the women.

d) He was tired

viii) How did the woman feel about the fact that they were covered in mud?

a) They were very angry
b) It made a bad impression
c) They thought it was funny
d) They didn't care.

ix) What language did the best man speak when he started to explain why they were covered in mud?

a) Their mother tongue

b) English

c) The mother tongue with some English words

d) Kikuyu

2. Answer these questions in your own words. 5MARKS

1. What date and year was the wedding?

……

2. How do you think the bride felt as she was waiting for the groom to arrive?

…….

3. Do you think the two women were fair to the two men?

…….

4.Were the women happy with what the two men said?

……

5.Why did the women ask if there was no water in Muranga?

…….

3. Choose the correct word in the box below to complete each sentence. (5 marks)

Ramps, trowel [sic], sterilization, intrigue, paces, strategies

i. Male or female ..... is a form of contraception used by many couples.
ii. I love reading this book! It is filled with secrets, lies and……
iii. There are several useful .....you should use when planning in writing essays.
iv. The builder used a ..... to smoothen the cement over the wall.
v. She always..... around the room when she is worried.

SECTION B: GRAMMAR AND PHONOLOGY

4. Choose the best answer to complete the sentence. 7MARKS

ii. How tall is Yvone? "She is ..... as I am.

a) so tall b) the same height c) same height d) tall.

ii. "Why are you buying all that food.?" "Because a lot of people…… over for dinner."

a) coming b) are coming c) comes d) is coming

iii. The children's bedroom……upstairs on the second floor

a) is b) are c) there is d) it is

iv. "Do you like the color of the new carpet?" "Yes, it is definitely nicer ..... the others we looked at."

a) then b) are c) than d) it is.

v. "You and Peter seem to be getting along well." "Yes, I ..... him better than before."

a) liking b) am liking c) like d) liked

vi. I slept ……my grandmother finished telling the story

a) since b) while c)after d)meanwhile

vii. Chameleon married the girl because it was assumed that he had arrived……Hare did

PHONOLOGY

8- One of the four underlined sounds is pronounced differently from the three others. Write letter corresponding to it. (4 marks)

i) a)c<u>ough</u> b) thorough c) en<u>ough</u>
ii) a)s<u>ays</u> b) d<u>ays</u> c) p<u>ays</u>
iii) a)l<u>ose</u> b) n<u>ose</u> c) <u>toes</u>
iv. a)h<u>ear</u> b) th<u>ere</u> c) w<u>ear</u>

SECTION C: SUMMARY 10 MARKS

Read the passage below carefully. With your own words without rewriting any line from this passage, summarize it in no more than 50words.

The United Nation Convention on the Right of the child clearly states what children deserve. These rights are the things every child should have or should be able to do. All the children everywhere have the same rights. We think of rights in terms of what is best for children. It does not matter who they are, where they live or what their parents do. It does not matter what language they speak or what their religion is. It does not matter whether they are boys or girls. It does not matter whether they are rich or poor. No child shall be treated unfairly on any biases`.

The UN defines a child as anyone below eighteen years. Children are considered weak and inexperienced. Many times they are not able to take care of themselves. Therefore, adults have the responsibility of ensuring that children are safe, healthy and happy. When we make decisions, we must think of how they affect children. The government must ensure the rights of children are protected. They should be raised in an environment where they can reach their potential.

What are some of these rights? The most basic is that a child has the right to have a name. He or she should also have a nationality. A name and a citizenship give one identity. In addition, a child should live with a family that cares for him or her.

Children also have a right to education, clothing, access to medical care and a balanced diet. They should have opinions which they can express freely. They have the right to share what they

think with others. This can be done by talking, drawing or writing. However, what they say or draw or write should not offend others.

Another right that children have is the right to choose their religion and beliefs. They are also free to choose their friends or the groups they want to belong to. In all these things, parents are expected to guide the children to make the right decisions. Children should know their rights. No one should violate these rights.

SECTION D: COMPOSITION. 10MARKS

Choose one topic from the two below and write a text of 300words with at least three different ideas in paragraphs separately.

1. Write a text comparing the roles of men and women in society today
2. Write a text on how to prevent two of the following diseases: malaria, HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis, Cholera, typhoid fever.

GOOD LUCK!!!

Teacher:

Appendix 4: Mathematics exam copies of second term 2018

School 1 exam **Date: 12/07/2018**

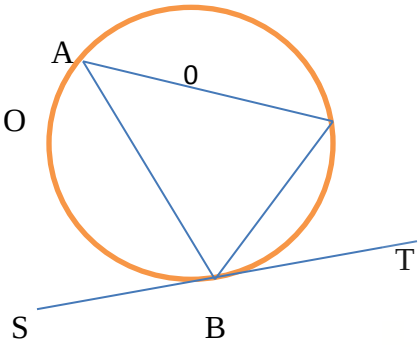
Class: s_3a

Duration: 3hours

Teacher:

Attempt all questions

1 .The figure below O is the centre of the circle. The straight line STB is tangent to the circle



a. Show that angle CBT is equal to angle BAC. Give reasons to support your statements
b. If angle ACB=37^0 and angle BAC=64^0, find
   i. Angle ABS
   ii. Angle ABC
   iii. Angle CBT

1. Solve the inequalities and illustrate the solution on a number line $2y-\frac{7(y-1)}{2} > 17$ **3pts**
2. The equation of a line A is 2y=3x+4.Line B passes through points (1,0)and (a,2).If line A is parallel to line B ,find the value of a
3. In a school, each student takes at least one of these subjects: Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry. In group of 60 pupils 7 takes [sic] all the three subjects ,9 take physics and Chemistry only 8 take Mathematics and Physics, 5 take Mathematics and Chemistry only ,11 take Mathematics only, two takes Physics only and 15 take Chemistry only.
   a. Draw the Venn diagram for the information above
   b. Find the number of those who do not take any of the subjects
   c. Find the number of those who take Mathematics
4. Determine the equation of the line which pass through points (0,-1) and (3,5) **3pts**
5. Solve for x:$(125)^x \div (25)^{2x+1}=1$ **3pts**

6. Solve simultaneously: $\begin{cases} x + 2y = 4 \\ y = 60 - x \end{cases}$ **3pts**

7. Construct the image of a triangle A(4,0)B(0,3),C(4,3),under a central symmetry about the origin**3pts**

8. One pipe can fill a bath in 5 minutes; another can empty the same bath in 10 minutes. Both pipes are opened at the same time and after 5 minutes the second pipe is turned off. What fraction of the bath is then full? **5pts**

9. The points A(5,4),B(2,2) and C(6,2) are vertices of a triangle ABC
   a. Draw the triangle ABC on a Cartesian plane
   b. The image of A(5,4) under a translation is (33).Find the coordinates of the images of the points B(2,2) and C(6,2) under the same translation as that of A.
   c. The image of C(6,2) under a reflection is (2,2).Find the equation of reflection and the images of A and B
   d. The triangle ABC is rotated $+90^0$anticlockwise about the origin. Find
      i. The coordinates of A'B'C' images of ABC.
      ii. Draw triangle A"B"C" on the same graph.

11. The mass of babies born during December 2005 at a hospital are given in the table bellow

Mass in (kg)	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8	3.0
N^0 of babies	4	2	1	5	6	8	4	9

   a. Find: **4pts**
      i. The total number of the babies born in December 2005
      ii. The number of babies weighting more than 2.5 kg
      iii. The range of masses
      iv. The mode mass
      v. Calculate the median mass **2pts**
      vi. Calculate the mean mass **5pts**

b. If the ratio of the baby girls to the baby boys is 5:8 Find the number of the baby girls and that of the baby boys born in December 2005 **4pts**

12. a. At a hotel three cups of tea and two cups of coffee altogether cost 2900 Rfs. At the same hotel 4cups of tea and three cups of coffee cost 4100 Rfs. Find the cost of one cup of tea and that of one cup of coffee**7pts**

b. Given that $f(x)=10x^3-3x^2-31x-6$

i. Show that (x-2) is a factor of f(x)**3pts**

ii. Find the value of x when f(x)=0**5pts**

13. The table below shows the data of the weight of 30 pupils in kilograms

45 62 35 54 48 35

48 59 52 40 54 46

59 51 32 37 49 42

53 38 37 35 53 46

48 44 33 52 54 44

a. Make a grouped frequency table using interval of 5kg starting with 30-34.Complete the table below

Weights (kg)	Midpoint, x	Frequency, f	f.x
30-34	32		
		∑f	∑f.x

b. Calculate the mean weight of the pupils**15pts**

GOOD LUCK!!!

School 3 exam

CLASS: S3ALL

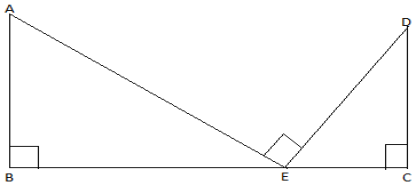
EXAM OF MATHEMATICS 2nd TERM 2018 /100marks

INSTRUCTIONS: Attempt all questions in section A

Attempt only three questions in section B

SECTIONA: Attempt all questions / 55marks

01. John, Frank and Joshua shares 60000frw in the ratio 11:10:9. How much did each get?/ 3marks
02. Find the value of n if $103_n + 26_n = 131_n$ 3marks
03.



In the figure $AB = EC = 3cm, BE = DC = 7cm$ and $ABE = ECD = 90^0$.

Calculate the length of AD. /3marks

04. Solve the following equation: $3x^2 + 14x + 8 = 0$ / 3marks
05. Solve the following simultaneous equations by substitution:

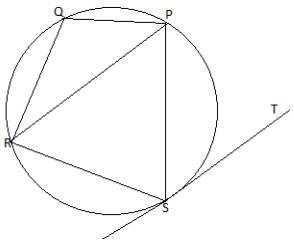
$$\begin{cases} 4x + 3y = 4 \\ 2x - y = 7 \end{cases}$$ /4marks

06. Half the distance between two number is 3. The sum of the greatest number and twice the small number is 13. Find the two numbers. /4marks
07. Solve the following equations: /4marks

$2^x + 2^{x-1} + 2^{x-2} = 7$

$$\begin{cases} 5^{3x} = 25^{x-2} \\ 9^y = 3^{x-1} \end{cases}$$

08. In the figure below, TS is a tangent to the circle PSQRS. If PR=PS and PQR=117^0, Calculate RST. /3marks



09. Positive vectors for points A and B are $\vec{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\vec{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$

If P divides AB in the ratio 1:4, find the co-ordinates of P. /4marks

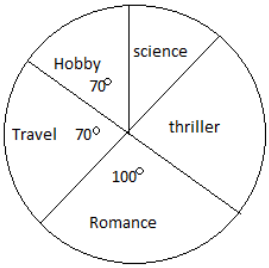
10. Given the function $f(x)=\frac{2x-1}{x}$ and $g(x)=\frac{1}{2x-5}$ /4marks

    a) Determine the domain of definition of $f(x).g(x)$

    b) Find $fog(x)$

    c) Calculate $gof(-2)$

11. A bookshop sold 1080 books as follows:



find the number of:

(a) Thriller

(b) Hobby

(c) Travel

(d) Science /4marks

12. The area of an octagon inscribed in a circle is 480m^2 and its apothem is 12m. Given that the octagon is regular, find the length of its side and the radius of the circle. /4marks
13. Two observers, A and B , 500m a part, observe a kite in the same vertical plane and from the same side of it. The angles of elevation of the kite are 20^0 and 30^0 respectively. Find the height of the kite, disregarding the height of the observers. /4marks
14. Workmen A and B, working together, do a certain job in 1hour. Workman A alone does the job in 3hours. How long does it take workman B alone to do the job? /4marks
15. Find the compound interest earned on frw 15 000 invested for 3 years, at 20% p.a. compounded quarterly

SECTION B: Attempt three questions only. /45 Marks.

16. The cost of serving break tea at one day conference consists of a basic cost and an additional cost per person. The table below gives some numbers of people and the corresponding cost.

Number of people(p)	Cost in Frw(c)
5	4000
10	5000
15	6000
20	7000
25	8000
30	9000
35	10000

a) Draw a graph of C against P, taking 1Cm for 5peaple [sic] and 1Cm for1000Frw.

b) Use your graph to find:

i. The basic cost (the cost when P=0)

ii. The cost for 27 people
iii. The number of people whose cost is 8800Frw /15marks

17. Given the polynomial $p(x) = 2x^5 + 4x^4 - 5x^3 - 10x^2 + 3x + 6$
    a) Show that $x + 2$ is a factor of $p(x)$
    b) Use synthetic division to find the other factor $q(x)$
    c) Use long division to find quotient and the remainder of the division of $q(x)$ by $2x^2 - 3$ /15marks
18. 84 students were asked which type of fruits they like. 43 like bananas (B), 37 mangoes (M) while the same number as for bananas like pineapples(P). 7 like all the same three while 6 like none of these fruits. It was also found out that 16 like bananas and mangoes, 19 like pineapples and bananas while 17 prefer mangoes and pineapples
    a) Represent the above information on a Venn diagram.
    b) If a student is chosen at random, what is the probability that he/she:
        (i) Likes mangoes but not pineapples
        (ii) Likes only two of the fruits
    c) Given that two students are chosen at random, find the probability that:
        (i) Both like mangoes and pineapples only.
        (ii) Neither likes bananas nor mangoes. /15marks

19. The marks of 50 students were recorded as follows;

31 80 48 69 54 60 74 52 50 64
58 37 74 57 25 76 38 53 88 35
71 53 68 42 85 56 75 22 63 54
26 61 32 72 51 43 67 87 64 70
62 45 53 52 73 36 82 49 55 41

    a) Use the data above to construct a frequency table of class interval 10 starting with 21
    b) Draw a histogram and use it to estimate the mode /15marks
20. Points A(5,4), B(2,2) and C(6,2) are vertices of triangle ABC
    a) Represent triangle ABC on Cartesian plane.
    b) Triangle ABC is transformed to A'B'C' under a rotation about the origin of axes through an angle of 90^0 anticlockwise
        i) Find the coordinates of A', B' and C'
        ii) Represent triangle A'B'C' on the same Cartesian plane as (a)
    c) Under the reflection in the line, point C is transformed to (2,2). Find the image of A(5,4) and B(2,2) under the same reflection and represent on the same plane. /15marks

Appendix 5: History exam copies of second term 2018

School 1

CLASS: S3A

DATE:16/07/2018

HISTORY EXAMINATION FOR S3A

INSTRUCTIONS

. Exam consider of section A&B [sic]

. Answer any three questions only in section A

. And all question in section B

.Order of and hygiene are needed [sic]

SECTION A

1. State the major administrative structures of pre-colonial Rwanda and describe the role of each structure.
2. a) Why did the Ngoni leave their home land in South Africa in the 19th century?

b) What impact did the movement of Ngoni have on the people they come [sic] into contact.

3. Describe the factors which led to the fall of the kongo kingdom.

4. What were the effects of the industrial revolution which started from [sic] Great Britain in the 1760?

5. Describe the major effects of the world economic depression of 1929-1933 on USA and Germany.

SECTION B.

6. Describe the duties and responsibilities that every citizen should fulfill towards his or her nation.

7. Discuss the role and functions of the state and government.

8. Discuss the causes of disability and suggest ways through which disability can be prevented.

School 3

Class: s3 all

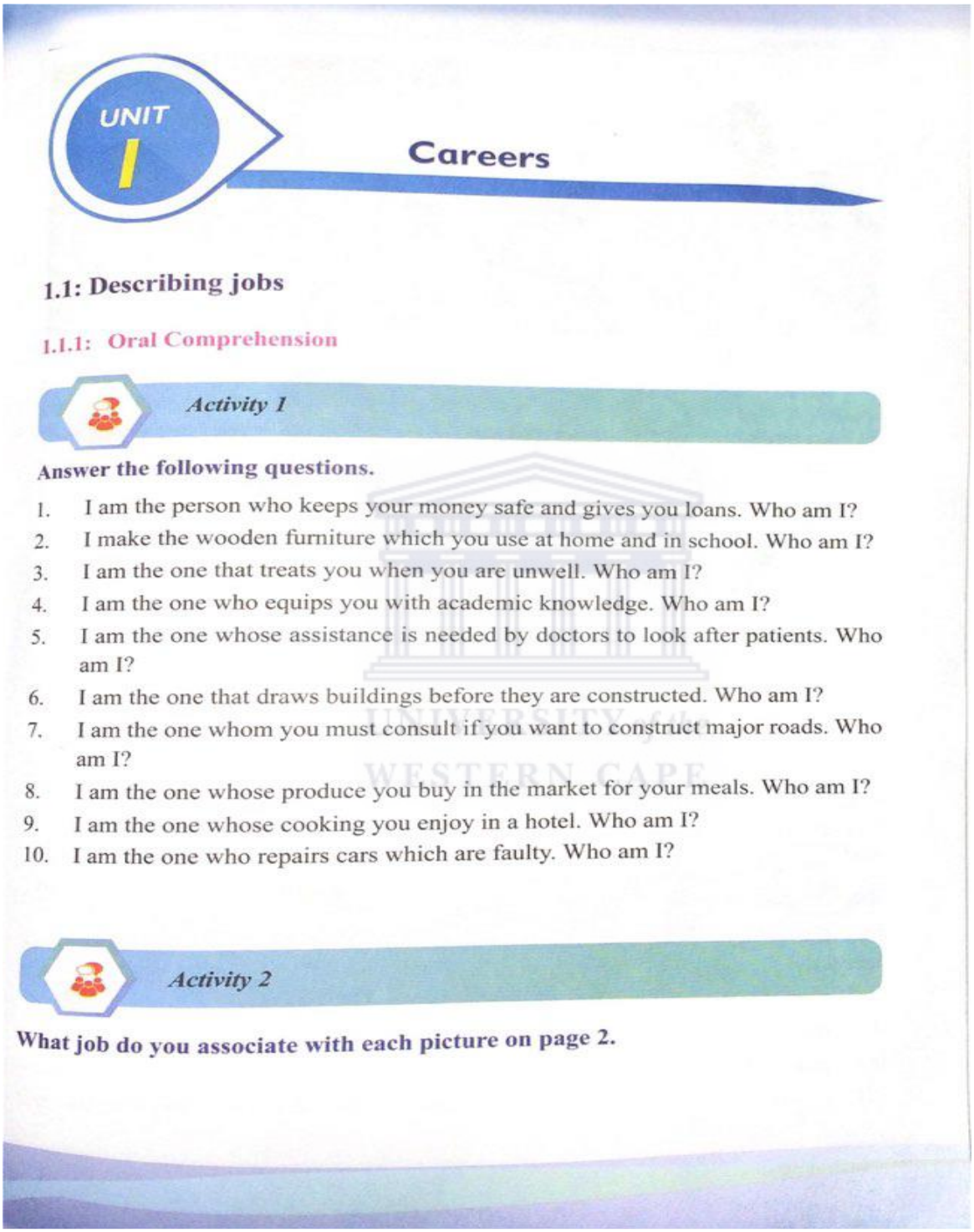
HISTORY AND CITIZENSHIP EXAM OF THE 2nd TERM 2018

Instructions: -Attempt any six questions of your choice.

-Each question carries out five marks.

1. Explain the effects of first-world war in Rwanda.
2. Discuss the reasons why the Africans had failed to resist to European colonization.
3. Account for effects of 1994 genocide against Tutsi.
4. Explain the causes of liberation war of 1990.
5. Discuss the causes of the 1789 French revolution.
6. Explain why some Africans had collaborated.
7. Discuss the causes of American revolution.
8. Account for the causes of 1880s exploration of Africa.
9. Explain the achievements of the governments of national unity.
10. Discuss the effects of liberation war of 1990.

Appendix 6: Unit 1 of "English for Rwanda Schools, Senior 3 Student's Book"



UNIT 1

Careers

1.1: Describing jobs

1.1.1: Oral Comprehension

Activity 1

Answer the following questions.

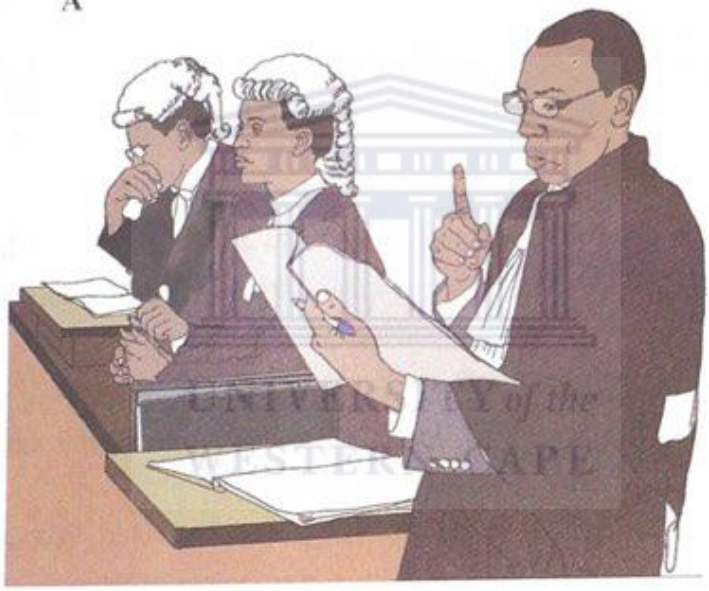
1. I am the person who keeps your money safe and gives you loans. Who am I?
2. I make the wooden furniture which you use at home and in school. Who am I?
3. I am the one that treats you when you are unwell. Who am I?
4. I am the one who equips you with academic knowledge. Who am I?
5. I am the one whose assistance is needed by doctors to look after patients. Who am I?
6. I am the one that draws buildings before they are constructed. Who am I?
7. I am the one whom you must consult if you want to construct major roads. Who am I?
8. I am the one whose produce you buy in the market for your meals. Who am I?
9. I am the one whose cooking you enjoy in a hotel. Who am I?
10. I am the one who repairs cars which are faulty. Who am I?

Activity 2

What job do you associate with each picture on page 2.

A

B



C

In our society today, there are many different kinds of jobs. They are all important. The activities above have given you an opportunity to identify some of them.

Activity 3: Sounds and spelling

The following words are often mispronounced. Learn to pronounce them correctly.

(a) chef

(b) mason

(c) plumber

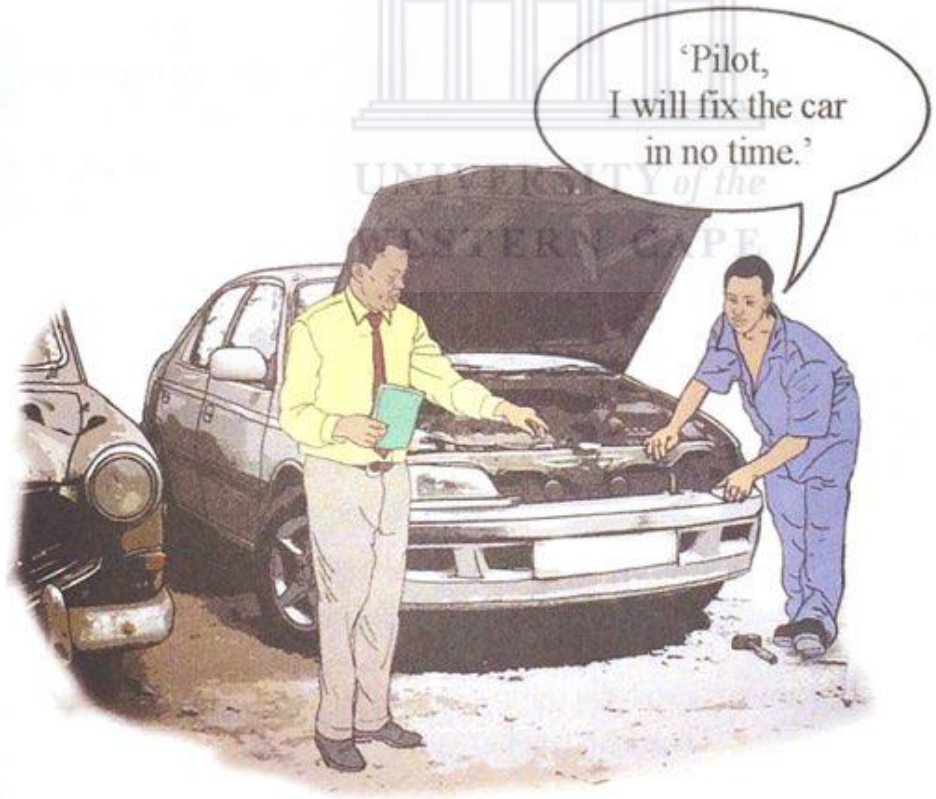
(d) architect

1.1.2: Reading comprehension

Read the passage below and then answer the questions that follow.

Most children say they want to be doctors, pilots, engineers and teachers, or lawyers when they grow up. But can you imagine what would happen if we all did the same kinds of jobs? If, for instance, we were all teachers, who would grow crops for us? Who would mend our shoes or clothes? Unfortunately, many people look down upon jobs that require manual labour.

We need the services of the cobbler who mends our shoes just as we need those of the dentist who takes care of our teeth. You have probably heard of the debate concerning the importance of teachers and doctors. A teacher who gets sick runs to a doctor for treatment. But is there a doctor that did not pass through the hands of teachers? Some doctors and teachers think that their jobs are the most important. They forget that they must wear clothes which are made by a tailor. They need the shopkeeper who sells them provisions and the police officer who gives them security.



Pilots are highly trained people whose services we need to fly to distant places. They are paid well and are envied by many. However, important as their job is, they

need someone whom they can trust with their money. This is the banker. And what if something goes wrong during take-off or landing and the plane catches fire? It is firefighters who will save the situation and broadcasters who will announce the news. People want good jobs so that they can lead comfortable lives. To many, this means a permanent house and a car among other things. Architects, masons and plumbers are some of the people who can make that house a reality. As for the car, the person whom we need to keep it running is a mechanic. This shows that every job is important.

1. From the first paragraph, which people does a teacher depend on?
2. What do many people think about manual labour?
3. From the passage, name two kinds of jobs that involve mending what we wear.
4. Between teachers and doctors, whom does the author feel is more important? Explain your answer.
5. Which people take care of our health according to the second paragraph?
6. Why shouldn't doctors and teachers think their jobs are the most important?
7. Whose services do we require when we want to build a house?
8. What is the main message of the author?

1.1.3. Vocabulary building

1. Explain the meanings of the following words and expressions as they are used in the passage.
   (a) pilots
   (b) engineers
   (c) dentist
   (d) architects
   (e) masons
   (f) plumbers
   (g) mechanic

✓2. Fill in each blank space with the correct word in the following sentences:
   (i) As a---------- I repair all types of shoes.
   (ii) When I used to be a ----------, I stocked sugar, salt, cooking fat, flour and many other things.
   (iii) When I have a court case, I go to a ----------.

(iv) I would like to be a ---------- so that I can read news on television.
(v) ---------- have the responsibility of keeping law and order.
(vi) My ---------- advises me on how to invest my money wisely.

1.1.4: Grammar

Relative clauses

Exercise 1

Complete the sentences below correctly.

1. An office secretary is the person who.....
2. Someone that ---------- is an accountant.
3. A person who ---------- is a farmer.
4. This is the painter whom ----------.
5. This is the teacher whose classes----------.

Exercise 2

The following sentences are taken from the comprehension passage. Go back to it and fill in the parts that have been left out.

1. Unfortunately, many people look down upon jobs----------.
2. The cobbler ----------is as important as the dentist----------.
3. A teacher ----------runs to a doctor for treatment.
4. But is there a doctor----------?
5. They forget that they must wear clothes----------.
6. They need the shopkeeper----------and the police officer----------.
7. Pilots are highly trained people----------.
8. However, important as their job is, they need someone----------.
9. It is firefighters ----------and broadcasters----------.
10. Architects, masons and plumbers are some of the people----------
11. As for the car, the person ----------is a mechanic.

- What you have used to fill in the gaps in activities 1 and 2 are relative clauses. As we have seen before, relative clauses are introduced by the relative pronouns *who*, *whom*, *that*, *whose* and *which*. *Who* and *whom* are used with human beings. *That* and *whose* can be used with human beings and also with non-humans. *Which* is used with non-humans. A relative clause gives us more information about a noun or pronoun. It comes after that noun or pronoun.

Examples:

(a) Madam Susan is the teacher who is on duty.

(b) This veterinary officer is the one that treated my cow yesterday.

In (a) what is in colour is a relative clause introduced by the relative pronoun *who*. It talks about the noun *teacher*. Equally, what is in colour in (b) is a relative clause introduced by the relative pronoun *that*. It refers to the pronoun *one* which in turn refers to the noun *veterinary officer*.

Exercise 3

Identify all the relative clauses in the sentences given in activity 1 on page 1.

1.1.5: Language practice

Composition

Imagine that your class recently went on a tour to your local district and visited several places to see the different kinds of jobs that people do. Write a composition describing what you saw. Use relative clauses as much as possible.

1.2: Describing daily routines

1.2.1: Oral comprehension

As Senior Three students, you probably have certain job aspirations. Some of you may want to be electricians, others teachers and so on. However, whatever career you are interested in, it is important to find what it involves. That is, what is the daily routine of that job? You might discover that the activities involved are too demanding.

Activity 1: Daily routines

Say what the daily routines of the following people are:

(a) Nurses

(b) Farmers
(c) Drivers
(d) Teachers

Activity 2: Interviews on daily routines

Imagine that you are a TV host interviewing a well-known and successful business person on his or her daily routine. Conduct the interview in front of your classmates.

Activity 3: Sounds

Here are some words that you will encounter in this sub-unit that are often mispronounced. Practise saying them correctly.

(i) honouring
(ii) occasions
(iii) evening
(iv) advice

1.2.2: Reading comprehension

Read the following dialogue and answer the questions given.

Murekatete: Thank you for honouring my lunch invitation. It is good to have time to relax away from our busy schedules. By the way Mukankusi, what is a normal day like for a secretary? My daughter wants to be one.

Mukankusi: Encourage her. My day begins at eight o'clock. I start by checking if my boss has any meetings or appointments. It is my job to set up these. I sometimes take minutes in meetings. Moreover, I make and receive a lot of calls and respond to some official emails, for ours is a busy office. I also type and file documents. What I enjoy most, however, is dealing with clients face to face.

Murekatete: I am sure your clients enjoy your services because of your warm personality and good communication skills. What time does your day end?

Mukankusi: Thanks for the compliment. It ends at five but on a few occasions I am required to stay a little longer. And may I know what being a banker is like?

Murekatete: Well, I also get to the bank at eight o'clock to start doing paper work. I begin seeing clients at nine, offering them expert advice on loans, savings and investments. It gives me great pleasure to help clients succeed financially. Sometimes, I visit their business premises in order to give proper advice. I do not like staying behind late because my husband, a doctor, works long hours.

Mukankusi: It is good you have mentioned that. My younger sister in Senior Three aspires to be a doctor. How long are the hours of working for a doctor?

Murekatete: He leaves home at 7:30 a.m. and many times returns at 8:00 p.m. If there is an emergency there, he stays longer. He says he begins his day by making ward rounds before seeing outpatients.

Mukankusi: My goodness! It is already time to go back to work. Our conversation has been quite informative.

1. Why have the two friends met over lunch?
2. List all the duties of a secretary according to the passage.
3. What qualities should a good secretary have in order to serve clients well?

4. What can we tell from the fact that Mukankusi sometimes remains behind after work?
5. What is common between what the two ladies like about their jobs?
6. Does Murekatete always work in the office? Explain your answer.
7. How can we tell that both men and women can become doctors?
8. What must a person wishing to be a doctor be prepared to do?

1.2.3. Vocabulary building

1. Explain the meanings of the following words and expressions as they are used in the dialogue:
   (a) schedules
   (b) clients
   (c) compliment
   (d) paper work
   (e) premises
   (f) aspires
   (g) emergency
2. Use each of the above words and phrases in a sentence of your own.

1.2.4: Grammar

Simple present tense

The simple present tense is not new to us as we have encountered it several times before. Here are two examples in which the present tense verb is in colour:

(a) Mr Musoni inspects the classrooms every day.

(b) My parents keep dairy cows.

Exercise 1

The following sentences are taken from the comprehension dialogue on page 7 to 8. Go back to it and fill in the present tense verb which is missing.

1. What ---------- a normal day like for a secretary?
2. My daughter ----------to be one.
3. My day ----------at eight o'clock.
4. I ---------- by checking if my boss has any meetings or appointments.
5. I sometimes ----------minutes in meetings.

6. Moreover, I ----------and ----------a lot of calls and ----------to some official emails for ours is a busy office.
7. I also ----------and ---------- documents.
8. What I ---------- most, however, is dealing with clients face to face.
9. I ---------- sure your clients enjoy your services because of your warm personality and good communication skills.
10. What time ---------- your day end?
11. It ---------- at five but on a few occasions I am required to stay a little longer.
12. Well, I also ---------- to the bank at eight o'clock to start doing paper work.
13. I ---------- seeing clients at nine, offering them expert advice on loans, savings and investments.
14. It ---------- me great pleasure to help clients succeed financially.
15. Sometimes, I ---------- their business premises in order to give proper advice.
16. I ---------- not like staying behind late because my husband, a doctor, ---------- long hours.
17. My younger sister in Senior Three ---------- to be a doctor.
18. He ---------- home at 7:30 a.m. and many times ----------at 8:00 p.m.
19. If there is an emergency there, he ---------- longer.
20. He ---------- he begins by making ward rounds before seeing outpatients.

Exercise 2

The following is the daily routine of a farmer. Arrange the sentences in a sensible order and then identify all the verbs in the simple present tense.

I enjoy my packed food under a tree. After breakfast, I milk my two cows. I then go to the farm and work until lunch-time. This includes fetching fodder for the cows and fetching water. Shortly afterwards, I deliver the milk to the milk bar. I wake up at six in the morning. I then go home to begin my evening duties. It is after that that I begin preparing supper. After that I work until 3 p.m.

1.2.5: Language practice

Composition

Imagine that you have been told to write a composition for a competition. The title is "Why I love my job so much". Write the composition, making sure that you describe your daily routine. Use present tense as much as possible.

1.3: Describing job qualifications

1.3.1: Oral comprehension

Activity 1: Talking about job qualifications

Look at the advertisement below and answer the following questions:

JOB ADVERTISEMENT!!

Driver required by a learning institution. He or she should have the following:

1. Ordinary level certificate
2. Valid driving licence
3. Certificate of good conduct
4. A certificate of medical fitness.

In addition, the successful candidate will have to pass a driving test

1. Mention the qualifications needed for the job.
2. Do you think the requirements are adequate? Discuss this with your classmates.

Activity 2

Answer the following questions.

1. I have a degree from the College of Education. Who am I?
2. My degree took five years followed by one year of internship. Who am I?
3. I took a law degree. Who am I?

4. I am a primary school teacher. In what kind of institution did I train?
5. I did an engineering degree for four years. What subjects did I take?
6. I am a plumber and my cousin a mason. In what kind of institution did we train?

Activity 3

Say the job qualifications you need for various jobs. Begin your sentences with if.

For example:

If I want to be a secondary school teacher, I ought to have either an A1 certificate or a degree in education.

So far in this unit, we have talked about different jobs and what they involve on a daily basis. In the activities above, you have looked at the qualifications required for some of those jobs. Can you recall from S2 how we defined the term qualification? It refers to what you need academically and professionally to be able to do a certain job effectively.

1.3.2: Reading comprehension

Read the passage below and then answer the questions that follow.

I love my job as a career advisor. It is really gratifying to work with young people and to shape their future. When somebody who sought and took my advice succeeds, I feel I have succeeded too. Let me narrate a number of those success stories.

Hakizimana has an international job with Pricewaterhouse Coopers. He is a chartered accountant. He sought my advice while still in junior secondary. I told him to improve in mathematics and English and to add accountancy in senior secondary. For a degree, I advised that he

should take a Bachelor of Commerce. It takes four years at the College of Business and Economics. To be really competitive, I felt he should take a professional course in a recognized institute of chartered accountants.

And how can I forget Muteteli. I remember her telling me this: "A strange disease wiped out our herd of cows recently. Our neighbour's animals were not spared either. What can I study in order to prevent such as a disaster in the future?" she asked.

I informed her "You need to concentrate on English, mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology. Veterinary medicine in senior secondary and at university should then follow." Today she is one of the best-known veterinarians in Rwanda.

Lastly, there is Uwimana. She was very sure what career she wanted to pursue but didn't know where to train. Her parents, who wanted her to be a pharmacist, were initially opposed to the idea. Eventually, however, I convinced them that one could actually make a living from painting, music and sculpturing. I told them their daughter should be encouraged to go to Nyundo School of Arts. She joined the school after Senior 6 and now holds an A1 certificate. She recently gave me a portrait of myself that looks like an actual photograph.

1. What does the author like best about her job?
2. Which subjects did Hakizimana take in secondary school?
3. How can we tell that Hakizimana went to an institute of chartered accountants?
4. What led Muteteli to want to become a veterinarian?
5. Apart from science subjects, what else did Muteteli study?
6. Why did Uwimana seek the advice of the author?
7. Why were Uwimana's parents initially opposed to their daughter becoming an artist?
8. What sort of certificate does one get from Nyundo School of Arts?
9. How do we know that Uwimana has become a successful artist?

1.3.3. Vocabulary building

1. Explain the meanings of the following words and expressions as they are used in the passage:
   (a) gratifying
   (b) chartered accountant

(c) competitive
(d) pursue
(e) pharmacist
(f) sculpturing

2. Match the items in column A with those in column B.

A		B
1.	chartered accountant	College of business and economics
2.	herd of cows	Portrait
3.	Bachelor of Commerce	institute of chartered Accountants
4.	Artist	veterinarian

1.3.4: Grammar

Conditional clauses

Exercise 1

Using the comprehension passage, complete the blank spaces with "if" conditional clauses.

1. ----------, then you ought to seek career guidance.
2. ----------, then you need to study mathematics , English and accountancy .
3. ----------, then you should take a professional course in a recognized institute of chartered accountants.
4. ----------, then you should become a veterinarian.
5. ----------, then you must pass well in English, mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology.

- If you recall what we said in Senior 2, the word conditional, which comes from the word condition, means requirement.
- This means that something should happen before something else happens. The commonest word that introduces conditional clause is "if". The other part of the sentence has words like should, must, ought to, need to and have to. Below is an example:

If you want to be a professional artist, you must go to Nyundo School of Arts.

(The condition or requirement is that you must go to Nyundo School of Arts to become a professional artist.)

Relative clauses

Exercise 2

Identify relative clauses in the following sentences.

1. The career expert who advised me said I needed history, English and literature to study law.
2. The degree which he took prepared him for the career of a pharmacist.
3. When somebody who sought and took my advice succeeds, I feel I have succeeded too.
4. Her parents, who wanted her to be a pharmacist, were initially opposed to the idea.
5. I studied for a course that took three years.
6. The veterinarian who treated my animals holds a diploma.
7. The parents whose daughter became an artist are now very proud of her.
8. The professional course which I took made me competitive in the job market.
9. The farmer whose produce I bought is extremely hardworking.
10. Is this the college that you want to attend after senior secondary?

1.3.5: Language practice

Composition

Write an advertisement for a job of your choice.

Here is a sample:

VACANCIES!!!!

A reputable firm is seeking to recruit highly qualified, committed and motivated staff to fill the following two positions:

1. Manager with experience in management, finance and marketing.
2. Sales and marketing executive.

The applicants must be degree or diploma holders from a recognized institution of higher education. They must possess excellent IT skills and also have two years minimum experience.

Note: A valid driving licence is an added advantage.

Kindly send your CV and application letter to: musanzeagencies222@gmail.com

Note the vocabulary commonly used in job advertisements:

1. Qualified (or qualifications).
2. Skills.
3. Knowledge.
4. Experience.
5. Added advantage.
6. CV (Curriculum vitae).
7. Application letter.

1.4: Talking about job experiences

1.4.1: Oral comprehension

Activity 1: Job experiences

Group the following sentences in terms of the job experiences they describe.

1. I have been treating people.
2. I was trained as a cobbler.
3. I have been advising clients on financial matters.
4. I studied architecture at the university.
5. I was employed at the bank five years ago.
6. I trained as a doctor for five years and then took one year of internship.
7. I have been making beautiful furniture that attracts a lot of customers.
8. I have been flying planes for a long time now.
9. I have been mending shoes.
10. I always wanted to be a pilot.
11. I started my carpentry business ten years ago.
12. I have been drawing buildings for nearly twenty years now.

Activity 2: Interviews on job experiences

After interviewing people you know on their recent job experiences, report to your classmates. If you managed to tape-record them, you can play the tape to your classmates.

Perhaps it has occurred to you that in this unit, we are dealing with our experiences as we work or train. This can be in the form of:

1. Where we have been working or training.
2. What we have been doing or going through in the course of performing our duties.
3. How long we have been doing it.

1.4.2: Reading comprehension

Read the passage below and then answer the questions that follow.

Recently, I interviewed people who hold different positions in a bank. I wanted to learn about their job experiences. This is what I discovered. Runihura has been handling customers' inquiries and providing information about the bank's products and services. This means that he has been receiving and handling customers' questions and complaints. Sometimes he does this by telephone or e-mail.

Some of the complaints he has been receiving are very odd. For instance, one elderly woman recently complained that her co-wife has been withdrawing money from her account through witchcraft. Runihura has also been training customers on the use of ATM machines and Internet banking. He is the Customer Services Officer.

The Accounts Services Officer has been interviewing customers to fully understand their banking needs. He has been opening accounts for those who present genuine documents. His superiors are happy that he has been recruiting many customers into Internet banking.

Next, I talked to the Branch Operations Supervisor. Since she took the position two months ago, she has been tracing the movement of money from one point to another. She gets very concerned if the figures fail to add up at the end of the day. She also makes sure that all cheques being issued or received are in order. Moreover, she has been working closely with the IT department to install new systems and upgrade existing ones.

Finally, I talked to the most senior person there — the Branch Manager. He is responsible for the growth and development of the bank. To achieve this, he has been studying the banking opportunities that exist in the local community. He has been working hard to satisfy both customers and employees. He holds a Bachelors degree in Business Administration and has professional banking qualifications. Although his computer skills are good, he has been upgrading them.

1. Why did the author interview people working in a bank?
2. Are bank customers always happy with the services offered? Explain your answer.
3. Give an example of a difficult complaint that Runihura has handled.
4. Why would the bank refuse to open an account for someone?
5. How can we tell that the bank has been encouraging the use of the Internet?
6. What has the Branch Operations Supervisor been doing since she took the position?
7. Whom has the Branch Manager been working with?

1.4.3 Vocabulary building

1. Explain the meanings of the following words and expressions as they are used in the passage:
   (a) genuine
   (b) superiors
   (c) add up
   (d) install
   (e) upgrade

2. Use the words and expressions above in your own sentences.

1.4.4: Grammar

Present perfect continuous tense

Exercise 1

Go back to the first paragraph of the comprehension passage on page 17 - 18 and list three things that Runihura has been doing. Begin all your sentences like this:

1. Runihura has been……

Exercise 2

Answer the questions below in full sentences.

Example:

Question: Where have you been living?

Answer: I have been living in Musanze.

1. For how long have you been making clothes?
2. What kinds of vehicles has Sebahive been repairing?
3. From where have you been buying building stones?
4. Which subjects has she been teaching?
5. How have you been talking to your customers?
6. What has your uncle been growing on his farm?
7. Where have you been training as an IT expert?
8. Who has been giving you career guidance?
9. When has the doctor been seeing the patients in the ward?
10. How often have you been visiting the businesses of your clients?

What have you noticed about the verb forms of most of the sentences in this sub-unit? You may have realized that most of them either have **has been** … or **have been**….This verb form is called the **present perfect continuous tense**. It talks about something that has been happening and continues to happen. Consider the examples below:

(a) Mukamutara has been training artists.

(b) My friends have been working as nurses.

In (a) Mukamutara has been a trainer for some time now and she still continues to be. Note that because we are talking about one person, Mukamutara, we use the singular verb has. In (b) my friends are working as nurses and they have been for some time now. Since "friends" is plural, we use the plural verb have.

Exercise 3

Identify all the sentences in paragraphs 2, 3 and 4 of the passage on page 17 - 18 that have the present perfect continuous tense.

Exercise 4

Use the following verbs in the present perfect continuous tense in sentences of your own.

1. drive
2. sing
3. interview
4. build
5. repair

1.4.5: Language practice

Composition

Imagine that you are a chef in a big hotel. Write a composition about what your job experiences have been.

End of unit assessment

Section A: Oral comprehension

✓ 1. Which one among the following words sounds like the word chef at the beginning?

check, shelf, chemistry

✓ 2. Identify the letters that are NOT pronounced in the following words:

(a) plumber

(b) evening

(c) honouring

3. The letters "ch" in the word architect are pronounced as "k" . True / False?
4. Is the first letter in the word engineer pronounced like the vowel in egg or in ink?

Section B: Reading comprehension

Read the passage below and then answer the questions that follow.

Last night, I had a strange dream which left me puzzled. I saw myself treating people in a hospital that was extremely busy. One patient said he had been injured by people who robbed the bank where he works. He had wounds that needed dressing. I called in the nurse who was on duty but she didn't come. When I went out to look for her, I found her cooking in a big hotel. She was telling her colleagues that she was happy to be a chef. According to her, she now worked fewer hours. She said she loved it when people enjoy her culinary skills. I told her she could not be a chef because she hadn't trained in catering.

"You also didn't finish your medical course and yet you are pretending to be a doctor. I will report you to the authorities," she said, coming at me with a massive injection needle. At that point I woke up, frightened and sweating profusely.

1. What was the author in the dream?
2. What was the profession of the patient the author treated?
3. Why do you think the author called the nurse in?
4. What was the nurse doing when the author found her?
5. Why was the nurse happy about her new job?
6. Why did the nurse threaten to report the author?
7. Explain the meanings of the following words as used in the passage:
   (a) dressing
   (b) culinary
   (c) authorities
   (d) massive
   (e) profusely

Section C: Grammar

Relative clauses

1. **Identify sentences that have relative clauses in the comprehension passage on page 21.**
2. **Complete the following sentences with relative clauses.**
   (a) A carpenter is a person who----------.
   (b) A teacher whose ----------is liked by students.
   (c) I am the architect that---------- before it was constructed.
   (d) This farmer keeps cows which----------.
   (e) As a mechanic, I repair cars which ----------.

Present tense

Rewrite the sentences below in the simple present tense.

1. I saw myself treating people in a hospital that was extremely busy.
2. He had wounds that needed dressing.
3. When I went out to look for her, I found her cooking in a big hotel.
4. She was telling her colleagues that she was happy to be a chef.
5. According to her, she now worked fewer hours.
6. I told her she couldn't be a chef because she hadn't trained in catering.

Conditional clauses

Complete the following sentences with conditional clauses.

1. If ----------, you should seek the services of a doctor.
2. You are called a lecturer if----------.
3. If ---------- you should study veterinary medicine.
4. You cannot be a banker if----------.
5. All drivers must be very careful on the road if----------.

Present perfect continuous tense

In the following sentences, use the verb in brackets to form the present perfect continuous tense.

Example:

The plumber---------- (*fix*) pipes at reasonable charges.
The plumber has been fixing pipes at reasonable charges.

1. This fisherman ---------- (*sell*) fish to us since we were young.
2. I ----------(*train*) as a civil engineer for two years now.
3. My father---------- (*visit*) this dentist for a long time.
4. The cobbler who ---------- (*mend*) my shoes since last year has moved to another village.
5. Is it true that you---------- (*work*) here as an accountant for the last forty years?

Section D: Composition

Imagine that for one week, you worked in a place of your choice to gain experience. Write a composition on what your experience there was.