PERFORMANCE OF TEACHERS AND NOMADIC PUPILS IN READING COMPREHENSION AND GRAMMAR TESTS IN FULFULDE AND ENGLISH IN ADAMAWA AND TARABA STATES.

A Ph.D (LANGUAGE ARTS) DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED BY

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PERFORMANCE OF TEACHERS AND NOMADIC PUPILS IN READING COMPREHENSION AND GRAMMAR TESTS IN FULFULDE AND ENGLISH IN ADAMAWA AND TARABA STATES.

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Mrs. Nafisatu Dahiru Muhammad, declare that this thesis on "PERFORMANCE OF TEACHERS AND NOMADIC PUPILS IN READING COMPREHENSION AND GRAMMAR IN FULFULDE AND ENGLISH IN ADAMAWA AND TARABA STATES", was written by me as a record of my own research work. It has not been presented in any previous application for a higher degree. The quotations are indicated by quotation marks or indentations. The information used in this research report is duly acknowledged by means of references. The results, summaries and conclusions presented in this report are the original findings of the author.

Signature: .....

MUHAMMAD, Nafisatu Dahiru

August, 2000.

DEDICATION

This work is lovingly dedicated to my father, Abdullahi Danburam Jada, for his piety and the memory of Inna Asta Barka, my mother.

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this study entitled "PERFORMANCE OF TEACHERS AND NOMADIC PUPILS IN READING COMPREHENSION AND GRAMMAR TESTS IN FULFULDE AND ENGLISH IN ADAMAWA AND TARABA STATES", carried out by Nafisatu D. Muhammad, meets the regulations governing the award of *the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.), Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and* is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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ABSTRACT

The study was designed to examine the implementation of language education policy and practice at the primary school level. Specifically, it assessed educational achievement, particularly in grammar and reading in two languages, Fulfulde and English, of Fulfulde - speaking pupils and teachers in nomadic primary schools in Adamawa and Taraba states.

A broad-based approach to data collection was adopted involving a combination of observation and survey methods. The researcher used tests as the instrument for the investigation. She also used structured anecdotal notes to measure the conditions that prevailed in the situation examined. The study sample was drawn from two groups made up of pupils and teachers from Adamawa and Taraba states using a purposive sampling approach. Two sets of language proficiency tests and a reading comprehension test in Fulfulde and English were administered on 312 pupils in class five and on 84 teachers drawn from 23 selected nomadic primary schools. Qualitative data was also collected using anecdotal notes made by the researcher to capture the attitudes and perceptions of policy makers and implementers of the Fulfulde Mother Tongue Medium (FMTM) policy in the two sampled states.

The researcher set up some null hypotheses that served as the bases for quantifying the obtained results and their various levels of significance. Data collected on test performance were analyzed using frequency tables, t-test and

the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. Similarly, descriptive analysis was used especially for the research questions covering areas of language difficulties.

The summary of the findings of this study showed low levels of achievement in both reading comprehension and grammar tests among teachers and learners. The subjects were found to be performing at two years below their chronological and ability levels. Teachers and pupils from the Taraba schools had higher mean scores than those from Adamawa State. The study also revealed that the teachers' level of achievement was low, suggesting the possible inability of the teachers to teach reading and grammar effectively. Furthermore, specific areas of difficulties in vocabulary, structure and spelling, phonology and reading were also noted. Qualitative data derived from the anecdotal notes copiously made by the researcher on the attitudes and perceptions of problems in using Pulfulde as MI revealed generally favourable attitudes. Responses also showed the dearth of suitable instructional materials and the inadequacy of the teaching/learning environment as some of the major constraints to the realisation of the goals of FMTM instruction. The findings of this study showed the major weaknesses in the implementation of the Fulfulde Mother Tongue Medium policy in Adamawa and Taraba states. These findings brought to the fore the unsatisfactory nature of a curriculum implementation effort. Based on these findings, suggestions and practical recommendations for addressing these problems were made.

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SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ABU: Ahmadu Bello University

BAI: Bamgbose, Akere, Ihebuzor

CALP: Cognitive, Academic, and Language Proficiency

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

ECOWAS: Economic Countries of West African States

EGRAM: English Grammar.

EREAD: English Reading Comprehension.

FESTAC: Festival of Arts and Cultures.

FGN: Federal Government of Nigeria.

FME: Federal Ministry of Education.

FMT: Fulfulde Mother Tongue.

FMTM: Fulfulde Mother Tongue Medium.

FREAD: Fulfulde Reading Comprehension.

GBM: Grammar Based Method.

GT: Grammar Translation.

IRF: Initiation, Response, Feedback.

L1: First Language.

L2: Second Language.

LEA: Local Education Authority.

LGA: Local Government Authority.

LIC: Language of Immediate Community.

LT: Language Teaching.

LWC: Language of Wider Communication.

MI: Medium of Instruction.

MLA: Monitoring of Learning Achievement.

MT: Mother Tongue.

MTM: Mother Tongue Medium.

NCCE: National Commission for Colleges of Education.

NCNE: National Commission for Nomadic Education.

NPE: National Policy on Education.

NPEC: National Primary Education Commission.

OAU: Organisation of African Unity.

PIE: Planning, Implementation, and Evaluation.

PLK: Pragmatic Language Knowledge.

SAPA: Situation and Policy Analysis.

UNESCO: United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation.

UBE: Universal Basic Education.

UPE: Universal Primary Education.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.00 Background to the Study

The Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) recognises the role of education as a powerful instrument for social development and transformation. Indeed, the opening paragraph of the National Policy on Education (NPE, 1977) describes education as the instrument par excellence for achieving socio-economic development, national unity and integration. The NPE stipulates fair and equal access to education for all Nigerian children, especially at the primary school level. This level is considered to be important because it lays the foundation for all levels of education, and its general objectives include the following, among others:

i. The inculcation of permanent literacy and numeracy, and the ability to communicate effectively,
ii. The laying of a sound basis for scientific and reflective thinking
iii. Citizenship education as a basis for effective participation and contribution to the life of the society,
iv. Character and moral training and the development of sound attitudes.

These and other objectives of primary education in Nigeria attest to the recognition of the vital role that this level of education can play in the educational and social development of Nigeria. It is no doubt in appreciation of this role and also in alignment with the global recognition of the importance of

basic education (defined as the first nine years of schooling) that Nigeria joined the other nations of the world to endorse the declarations on universal access to education made at Jomtien in 1990, at Cairo in 1994, and Beijing in 1995. Nigeria also recognises the rights of disadvantaged/marginalised groups to relevant and qualitative education advocated through such popular slogans as "Reaching the Un-reached", "Education for All" and "All for Education" (UNESCO, 1997). These international pronouncements also place emphasis on improving enrolment for girls. They have also encouraged governments to put measures in place to achieve these laudable goals of universal access to education. The Government of the Federation of Nigeria and its organs has expressed its commitment to these resolutions and the suggested strategies for their implementation. Nigeria joined hands with other signatories to the 1990 Jomtien Declaration of Education for All and resolved to erradicate illiteracy by the year 2000. In spite of this commitment illiteracy rate was estimated to be 52%.

It can be rightly said that a concern for access, equity and relevance has now become the key motivating factors for different governments of the Federation in their policies in education. This concern has at varying points led to the introduction of government-initiated programmes in order to broaden access to education at the primary level. One of the most notable of the Federal Government initiatives which even predates the Jomtien Conference of 1990 was the introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme in 1976, and recently re-launched as Universal Basic Education (UBE). The Scheme

made education at the primary level free and universal, although not compulsory. The intention of the scheme was to increase enrolment at the primary level through increasing democratisation that includes linguistic minorities and other special groups. Associated with this was the recognition of the importance of language in this desirable pursuit of access, equity and retention. To this end, the NPE clearly recognises the importance of mother tongue instruction in the first three years of primary education. Another dimension of the commitment to relevance and equity was the recognition of the rights to special education of groups with special needs, are they linguistic, cultural or social, a commitment that was becoming world-wide in scope. In Nigeria, the nomadic pastoralists represent one such group given their lifestyle and their contributions to the economy and health (nutritional status) of the nation. To this end, the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) was established by Decree 41 of 12th December 1989 with the following specific responsibilities and programme:

1. Formulate policies and issue guidelines in all matters relating to nomadic education in Nigeria.
2. Provide funds for:
   a. Research and personnel development for the improvement of nomadic education;
   b. The development of programmes on nomadic education; and

c. The provision of equipment and instructional materials, and construction of classrooms and other facilities relating to nomadic education.

d. Determine standard of skills to be attained in nomadic education;

e. Arrange for effective monitoring and evaluation of activities of agencies concerned with nomadic education.

f. Establish, manage and maintain primary schools in the settlement carved out for nomadic people.

The two main goals of the programmes are:

a. Integrating the nomads into national life by providing them with relevant and functional basic education, and

b. Improving the survival skills of nomads through improved methods of animal husbandry.

Fulfulde language, literature and culture are given prominence in the Blueprint on Nomadic Education (FME, 1987). The intention was to make education more genuinely accessible and also respond to the right of Fulɓe children to education and therefore improved learning outcomes. This was, among other things, to fill the vacuum that had regrettably existed for decades in the education of nomadic Fulɓe pastoralists in this country. Quite obviously, the medium of instruction would be the nomads' mother tongue, and in this case, Fulfulde. This is fully supported by the recognition in the implementation strategies of the Commission that one of the effective ways of achieving the laudable goals of the programme is through the appropriate language.

1.01 Language Situation in Nigeria

Nigeria is a multilingual country. In fact, it represents multilingualism in its extreme form with the existence of well over 300 indigenous languages (Banjo, 1989; Brann, 1989; Bamgbose, 1992; Ihebuzor, 1993; Ogbonna, 1996). This situation has attracted the attention of linguists and policy planners largely because of its implication for socio-economic planning and national development (Bamgbose, 1991). On closer examination, the language situation in the country reveals a complex layer of languages with varying functions and statuses. Such an examination reveals that Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba are dominant languages at the national level below which is nine other languages (Fulfulde, Kanuri, Tiv, Ijaw, Efik, Nupe, Igala, Idoma, and Edo). Below these are a multiplicity of other minor languages (Brann, 1976). This array of languages with varying and varied statuses, functions and relations obviously present major challenges to policy makers who are called upon to formulate rational and feasible language policies in the interest of national development. Policy pronouncements in this area are intricate and interesting. For instance, at the policy level the 1979 Nigerian Constitution has approved "the use of English, Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba to conduct the business of the National Assembly" (Section 51). This is further buttressed by the NPE (1977: paragraph 8) designating them as major languages. Similarly, the Udoji Public Review Commission set up in 1975 by the Federal Government endorsed the above

recommendation, but went further to "Encourage the teaching of one of the major languages, Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba to every Nigerian child in the interest of national unity", a policy directive that clearly recognizes the integrative role of language in society. The creation of states also brought about the development of principal state languages as newly-created states sought, both by policy and practice, to encourage the development of;

> Principal languages in their states in order to promote the cultures and identity of their speakers in line with the Federal Government's efforts to promote the development of local languages in the nation's cultural policies and the NPE (Emenanjo, 1990:76).

Of all the minor languages, only Efik was examined at the secondary school certificate level in addition to the three major languages. Over and above all of these is English, which enjoys considerable social prestige and status in Nigeria, functioning as:

1. The language of administration, at the executive, legislative and judiciary levels.
2. The main language of business, commerce, science and technology.
3. The major language for inter-regional communication, media houses and literature.
4. The language of communication with much of the external world.
5. The main language of education and instruction (Ihebuzor, 1993).

Its role and status are firmly entrenched in the constitution as well as in other policy documents such as the NPE. It may be right therefore to conclude that English is the language of nationism and nationalism (Fishman, 1972).

Arabic has always been here and enjoys particular social prestige and status by virtue of its association with Islam, a religion that has considerable following in Nigeria. Indeed, such is the status of Arabic that early literacy in the northern part of the country is approached through this language. However, it is also correct to argue that the use of Arabic is only confined to the religious and literacy domains and is hardly ever used otherwise. A new comer to this complex linguistic scene is French, whose appeal is pitched largely on grounds of its potential for increasing regional contacts and consolidation, particularly in the ECOWAS region, a regional integration that Nigeria so ably champions. Such a multiplicity of languages is bound to give rise to complex problems of language planning in general and to those of language use in education in particular. It will equally provoke problems associated with multiculturalism since lines of language tend to coincide with those of culture. Multiculturalism and the attendant problems of ethnic loyalty could thus serve to compound problems of language planning, particularly status and code planning. They also serve to provide the background for understanding the emergence of minority language consciousness and the clamor for minority language and cultural rights, particularly for special groups in all domains of life, education in particular. One can, therefore, appreciate the close link that exists between issues of minority language education in Nigeria and its complex multi-lingualism. Table 1.0 presents the major state languages in Nigeria.

Table 1:0 Major State Languages of Nigeria.

State	Location	Major Languages
Abuja (FCT)	Kwale, Bwari, Suleja	Gwari, Hausa.
Adamawa & Taraba	Niger Basin Valley, Chamba and Muri area, Bambam and Numan areas, Mambila Plateau, Mubi, Michika, Song, Gombi, Jalingo, Mayo-Balwa, Fufore, etc.	**Fulfulde**, Kilba, Hausa, Kwarhi, **Chamba**, Longuda, **Bwatiye**, **Mumuye**, **Higgi**, Jukun, Fali, Mambilla, Jenjo, Wurkum Kuteb, Bura/Babur.
Bauchi & Gombe	Ningi, Darazo, Dukku, Gombe, Tilden-Fulani, Katagum, Agyaragwu (Lafia), Alkaleri, Misau.	Hausa, Fulfulde, Tangale, Bolewa, Tera, Kanuri, Kirfi, Bununu, Sayawa, Jarawa.
Benue	Benue Basin	Tiv, Igala, Idoma, Fulfulde.
Borno & Yobe	Gana River, Central Fune, Damaturu zone, Gujba, Biu, Nguru, Shani, Geidam, Gashua, Fika etc.	Kanuri, Hausa, Fulfulde, Bura, Shuwa, Arabic, Margi, Bolanci, Kare-Kare.
Kaduna & Katsina	Kachia, Jama'a, Zaria and Saminaka areas, Zonkwa, Katsina.	Hausa, Fulfulde, Gbaji, Kagoro Cluster.
Kano	Hadejia, Jahun, Birnin-Kudu areas	Hausa, Fulfulde, (a good number of Kanuris in diaspora in parts of Hadejia, Gumel, Kafin-Hausa).
Kwara & Kogi	Niger/Benue River Basin	Yoruba, Ebira, Nupe, Bariba, Hausa, Fulfulde, Oko/Osanyin.
Niger	Tegina, Bosso, Paiko, Kontagora, Rijau	Nupe, Hausa, Gbagyi, Kambari, Fulfulde.
Plateau	Miango/Kwon, Barikin-Ladi, Bokkos, Gindiri, Nassarawa and Lafia areas	Hausa, Berom, Angas, Tarok, Eggon, Alago, Fulfulde, Langtang, Ankwai.
Sokoto & Kebbi	Kangiwa, Ka'oje, Dakin Gari, Daki Takwas, Zagga, Yabo, Jega, etc.	Hausa, Fulfulde, Dakarci.

Source: Ezeoma (1983).

1.02 Language Situation in Adamawa and Taraba States

Adamawa and Taraba States were two out of the nine additional states created by Nigeria's Military Government in 1991. They were carved out of the defunct Gongola State. Both States are noted not so much for their famous mountains and rivers as for their linguistic heterogeneity. In spite of this, a vast

information gap still exists regarding the language situation of the two states. Part of the problem has been the existence of many (small) languages in the area, which have not been clearly identified and enumerated. Bleambo (1990) fills the void that has existed for a long time about the language situation of the former Gongola State, presently Adamawa and Taraba States. He draws up a checklist of the languages, which he categorized into four, namely;

1. Niger-Kordofanian
2. Nilo-Saharan
3. Afro-Asiatic
4. Unclassified

Fulfulde is classified under the West Atlantic branch of the Niger-Kordofanian family of languages. It has been described as one continuing chain of dialects, spoken in the whole Sahelian and Sudanese climatic zone of West Africa (Breedveld, 1995), and even beyond. For the most part these dialects are perfectly understandable from one settlement to another except when the outer linguistic boundaries are crossed. Although Fulfulde dialects have been a subject of study, the literature has only succeeded in creating a dichotomy between the Eastern and the Western dialects based on the comparative study of the Fulfulde dialect from Senegal with the Gombe (Eastern) and Adamawa (Cameroon) dialects. These have been described as the major dialects spoken at the two outer ends of the Fulfulde language continuum (Breedveld, 1995:6-7). MAPE, a group of researchers from Mali, distinguished the different dialect areas using sociological and geographical coherence and proposed the following division of

the Fulfulde dialect zones (MAPE, 1983a: 13-14 cited in Breedveld, 1995:7-8).

S/N	*DIALECT REGION/GROUP*	*WHERE SPOKEN*
1.	FUUTA JALLON	Guinea, Sierra Leone
2.	FULAKUNDA	Cassamance, Gambia, Guinea Bissau
3.	FUUTA TOORO	Senegal, Mauritania, Western Mali
4.	MAASINA	West Maasina, East Maasina, Duwansa, Seeno
5.	BARANI	Barani, Bobo-Dioulassso
6.	LIPTAAKO (VOLTA)	Burkina Faso: South-Tougan, Ouahigouya, Mossi-Gurma, Jelgooji-Liptaako-Gurma, Gaamoobe
7.	SOKKOTO	West Niger: Say, Wuro-Gelaajo, Dallol Basso, *Sokkoto*
8.	BORGU	Benin
9.	WODAABE	Niger
10.	HAUSA STATES	Central Niger, East Niger, Central Nigeria, Northern Katsina, Southern Katsina, Central Kano, The Bornu, Gombe, Eastern Wodaabe.
11.	AADAMAAWA	'Yola, Maayo Ine, Maayo Faran, Hooseere, Benoue, Jamaare (Diamare), Bagirmi, Bamenda (Eastern Nigeria and Cameroon).

This categorization excludes the Fulfulde dialects spoken in Sudan, Ethiopia, Chad, Northern Ghana, Northern Togo and the Central African Republic. It is observed that the dialect predominantly spoken in Sudan is Gombe, which is classified as "central Fulfulde" and signifying that it could be grouped under the dialects of the Hausa States (Arnott, 1970a: 3).

Adamawa State has a total land area of 42,159 square kilometers with a population figure of 2.1m, according to the 1991 Provisional Population Census. The state capital is the twin-city of Jimeta-Yola, which is essentially a picturesque mountainous land transgressed by the river valleys of Benue,

Gongola and Yedsarem. Part of this undulating landscape is the valleys of Cameroon, Mandara and Adamawa Mountains. Yola serves as the traditional seat and local government headquarters while Jimeta is the seat of Government. The name Yola is derived from the Fulfulde word "Yolde" meaning a knoll and was founded in 1841 by Moddibbo Adama who became the flagbearer of the Upper Benue area and thus led the 19th century Jihad. He undertook successive conquests and established the kingdom of "Fombina" which was popularly referred to as Adamawa. With the implementation of the Local Government Reforms, the former four divisions of Adamawa Province were reconstituted into the 16 Local Government Areas (Adamawa State 1998 Desk Diary).

Adamawa State comprises of a large number of ethnic groups who live in segmental communities. Notable among these groups are the Fulße, Bwatiye, Chamba, Higgi, Mbula, Margi, Kilba, Ga'anda, Longuda, Kanakuru, Bille, Bura, Yandang, Yungur, Fali, Gude, Verre and Libo. Although each of these groups speaks its own distinct language and dialects, Fulfulde and Hausa are widely spoken throughout the state with English as the official language. Other principal languages of the state include Higgi, Bwatiye, Longuda, Mumuye, Jukun, Fali, Chamba, Mbula, and Kilba (see Table 1.0).

With a land area of about 51,000 square km, Taraba State is larger than Adamawa State. Jalingo is the state capital and the state is bounded on the north-east by Adamawa State, on the west by Plateau and on the south-east by Benue, while Cameroon lies on its eastern border. It has a total of 16 Local Government Areas. According to the 1991 Population Census, Taraba State has

a provisional population figure of 1.48m. In terms of ethnic composition, it is heterogeneous and is blessed with a rich but diversified historical and cultural heritage. The major ethnic groups in the state are listed as follows:

Chamba, Fulße, Ichen, Jenjo, Jukun, Kuteb, Mambilla, Mumuye, Munga, Wurkum, Yandang, Kabawa, and Karimjo (1998 Taraba State Desk Diary). Like in Adamawa State, these various ethnic groups speak distinct languages and dialects with Hausa widely spoken throughout the state. English is also the official language of the state. For the purposes of this study, it is interesting to note that members of these groups speak Fulfulde as a second language. Furthermore, there are other ethnic groups from other parts of the country namely, Igbo, Yoruba, Tiv, Idoma, and Ebira who have also settled in the state.It is also quite evident from the foregoing that both states are a mini-portrait of the multilingual and multicultural situations that characterise most African countries particularly Nigeria. This situation definitely poses real problems for language planners and implementers of language policy especially at the primary level. This is more urgent in the case of the nomadic schools.

1.10 Use of Indigenous Languages in Education

Experimentation with indigenous African languages by various missionary agencies date back to the early 19th century when Ghana used Twi (1836), Togo used Ewe (1847), among others (Ansre, 1978). Policies adopted included the maintenance and the assimilationist procedures to enhance the missionaries' primary objective, that is evangelisation. The use of indigenous languages was limited to elementary education and adult literacy efforts just as

was the case with Fulfulde in the former Adamawa Province in Nigeria in the 1920's.

Based on the Hussey Memorandum on Educational Policy in Nigeria (1930), the medium of instruction (MI) throughout the elementary level in the former Adamawa province and present-day Adamawa and Taraba states, was Fulfulde which was then the most wide spread indigenous language. An unpublished survey conducted by this researcher in 1988 revealed that Fulfulde was used successfully as a medium for instruction and later, instruction in reading and writing was given in Fulfulde. There was adequate provision for supply of textbooks, and teachers qualified to teach in Fulfulde. Over the decades, the initial position enjoyed by Fulfulde became gradually eroded as attention shifted to other aspects of educational efforts and as Hausa made inroads into Adamawa and Taraba states. The Fulbe elite was not enthused by its use in (elementary) education because the language lacked any obvious large-scale economic advantages and therefore did not enjoy similar prestige as English and Hausa. Consequently, a progressive decline in the use of Fulfulde as a MI set in to the extent that majors instances of language loss, language shift were beginning to become noticeable (Muhammad 1997). Yet the Pullo child needs to be inducted into school through his or her mother tongue medium in the light of growing international recognition of mother tongue medium education.

The justification for the use of indigenous languages can partly be found in the UNESCO Declaration (1953) which recommended that in selecting the

medium of instruction priority should be given to the language that the children can use effectively, that is, the child's mother tongue or at best any local lingua franca. *Psychologically, such a language is the system of meaningful signs that,* in the child's mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs; educationally, he learns more quickly through it than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium (UNESCO, 1953:II). Similarly, the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), Bureau of International Languages (BIL 1980,1985), the FESTAC Colloquium (1978) as well as Ansre (1978), and of course the Nigerian National Policy on Education (1981) have all advocated the use of the MT or LWC as a MI at the primary school level.

There is, therefore, no better tool for teaching the Pullo child at this impressionable stage than Fulfulde, especially in areas where it is dominant. It is also in keeping with the curricula dictum that education should meet the needs of the Pullo child, especially his linguistic and cultural needs (Pulaaku) and should proceed from the known to the unknown. Additionally, the use of Fulfulde in education is likely to ensure a more effective means of educating and integrating the Fulße into mainstream national, political, social, economic and cultural consciousness.

Unfortunately, the nonchalant attitude toward indigenous languages in Nigeria, unclear policies on language, and such other vagaries, have created implementation problems, which inhibit the practice of the MTM education in our schools.

Nowhere is this felt most acutely than in the pedagogy of minor languages, such as Fulfulde.

1.1.1 Educational language policy

Language in education issues is central to all debates on educational provisions in Nigeria. Indeed, it can be said that language issues are the most cross cutting in all discussions on educational access, quality, relevance and effectiveness. Yet, in spite of their importance, one is surprised to note the absence of any document where matters of language use in education are fully articulated. What is obvious is that language-in-education statements are unsystematically embedded in the NPE (1977, revised 1998), the national cultural policy, as well as in certain sections of the 1979 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. A survey of these documents particularly the NPE reveals the adoption of the transitional bilingual approach (TBA) which endorses the use of the mother tongue for initial instruction only to be replaced with English at a later stage. However, what has not been clearly stated is the exact point at which the transition to English would be made. Similarly, what alternative arrangements would be put in place before the transition to English or even what alternative steps would be taken whenever such recommended policy is neither feasible nor practicable (Bamgbose, Akere, Ihebuzor 1992) (henceforth referred to as BAI in the rest of this thesis). The BAI document which is the report of the FGN sponsored national seminar on the "Implementation strategies for the language provisions of the NPE", held in Otta in November 1991 endorses the bilingual approach contained in the NPE

(1981). This report for now represents the most comprehensive attempt made to bring all language in education issues under the cover of one document. However, the fact that the Federal Ministry of Education or the Federal Government of Nigeria is yet to adopt this document as an official policy guide would suggest some caution in the use of its recommendations, views and suggestions. The document is further reviewed in Chapter 2 of the present study. In reality, for a diverse population as in Nigeria, it is not easy to implement any uniform policy across the country.

The NPE recognizes Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba as the three major languages in Nigeria and stipulates that each child should be encouraged to learn one of the three major languages in addition to his/her mother tongue (NPE 1981, Section 8). It allocates languages for instruction and those to be taught as subjects at different levels of education. According to the policy, the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community (LIC) is to be used as the medium of instruction at the pre-primary level. For the primary level, the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community would initially be used, and later English (NPE 1981 Section 3:4). At the Junior Secondary School level, the three major languages will be taught as subjects while English continues as the medium of instruction right through the tertiary levels. All national examinations are to be conducted in English including the National Common Entrance conducted at the end of the six-year primary education level. Although the National Policy on Education (NPE, 1981) recognises the importance of the mother-tongue in education (one of its goals being to promote

the indigenous languages by using them in education), in reality, only the three major languages, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba are effectively used especially in their home states. Out of the other three hundred and ninety-two (392) Nigerian languages, many are ignored to the extent that they are now threatened with extinction.

1.1.2 Fulfulde within the language configuration.

Fulfulde is classified as one of the minor languages in Nigeria. This classification neither portrays nor recognises the major socio-economic roles of the Fulɓe or the geographic spread of Fulfulde nationally and internationally (see Tables 1.0 and 1.01, Map 1.0 and Map 1.01 below). In spite of this, however, it is perhaps true to say that until the establishment of the National Commission for Nomadic Education, work in the development, standardisation and use of Fulfulde as a medium of instruction was not very actively encouraged. This situation was partially a reflection of the emphasis given to the three major Nigerian languages at the expense of other languages. It has meant that minor languages such as Fulfulde have not received as much attention as they ought to which in turn may affect their use in education.

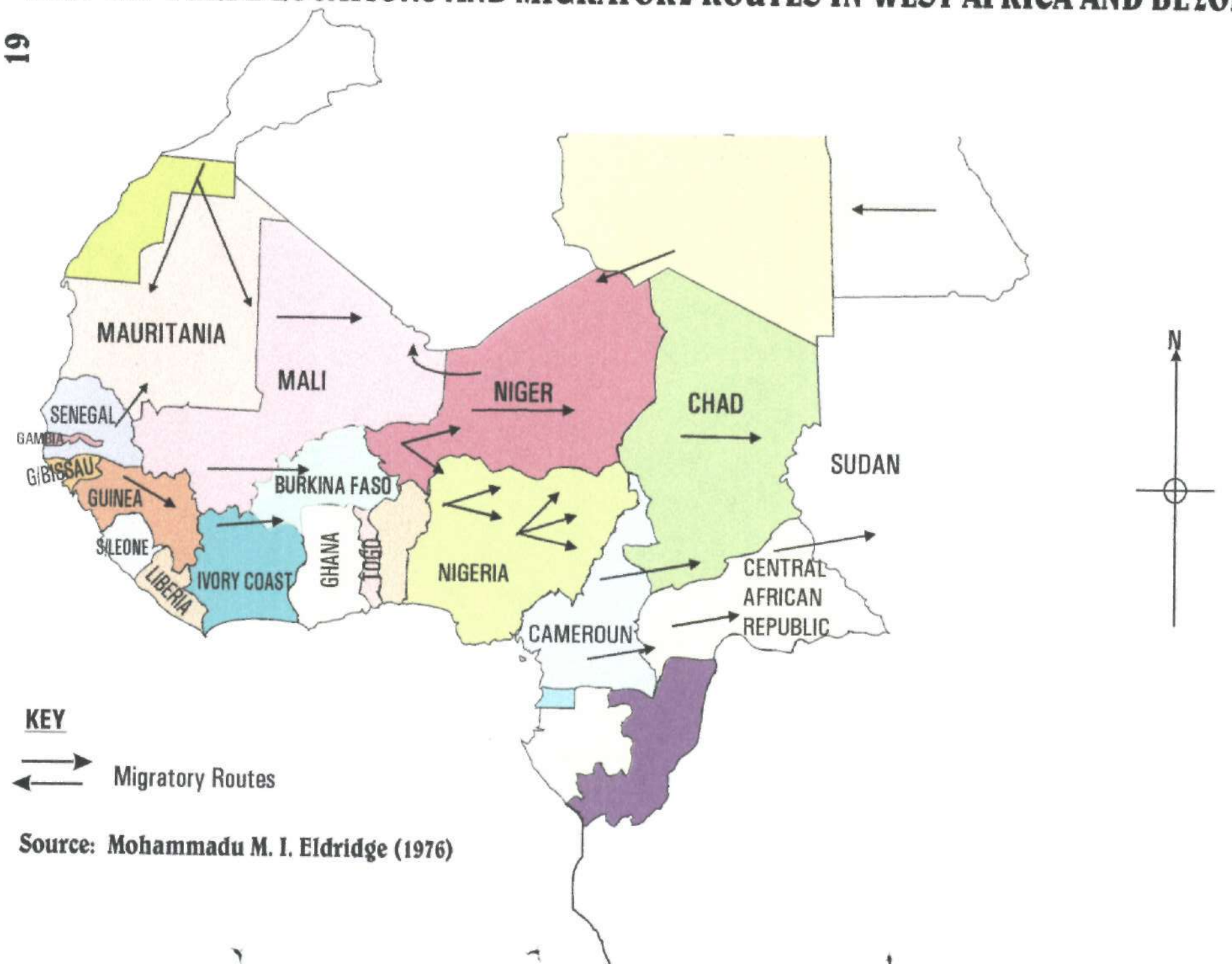
A UNESCO (1985) survey on African languages summarises the international spread of Fulfulde as follows:

Table 1.01: International Spread of Fulfulde (UNESCO, 1985)

COUNTRY	POPULATION	STATUS
Benin Republic	54,000	4th largest language used as a community language.
Burkina Faso and Ivory Coast	52,000	3rd largest language widely used as a community language.
Cameroon	305,000	Largest indigenous language. Used as a leading lingua franca.
Central African Republic	28,000	Used as a family language.
Chad	24,000	Used as a family language.
Gambia	58,000	2nd to Mandingo. Used as a community language.
Ghana	5,000	Used as community, commercial language.
Guinea (Conakry)	1,200,000	40% of total population. Largest language. Used both as community and official language.
Mali	2,000,000	2nd largest to Bambara with 2 million speakers. Used as a community language.
Mauritania	12,000	2nd largest to Hassaniya. Used as a community language.
Niger Republic	169,000	3rd largest to Hausa and Zarma. Used as a community language.
Nigeria	3,630,000	4th largest language. Listed as one of the major spoken languages in the Northern states.
Sierra Leone	5,000	Used as community language
Sudan	1,000,000	Used as a community language.
Portuguese Guinea	36,000	" " "
Others	20,000	" " "

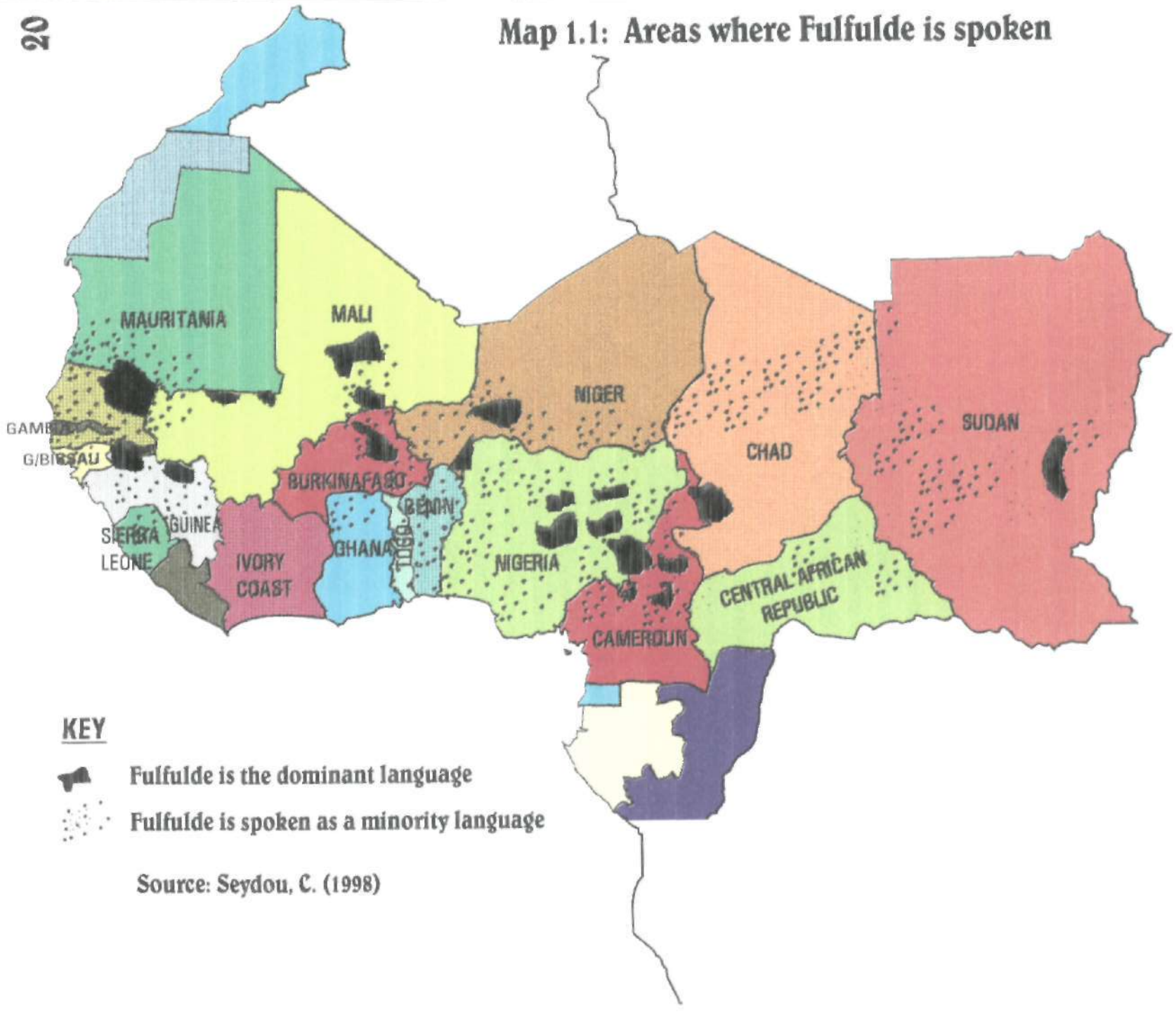
Additional Sources: *Lar, M. (1989); National Primary Education Commission, 1990 Desk Diary); VerEecke, C. (1986:24).*

MAP 1.0: FULBE LOCATIONS AND MIGRATORY ROUTES IN WEST AFRICA AND BEYOND



Source: Mohammadu M. I. Eldridge (1976)

Map 1.1: Areas where Fulfulde is spoken



Source: Seydou, C. (1998)

In spite of the international and national spread and great heights reached, the Fulɓe conquerors did not impose their culture and language as one would have expected. In this case the Fulɓe were more eager to advance Arabic – the language of the Holy Qur'an – considered as the most important language (Mohammed, 1998). This historical anomaly perhaps accounted for the demise of Fulfulde, which has continued to suffer low esteem, mainly through language shift among youths in cosmopolitan setting and exclusion from use in the educational system. It gave Hausa a free run. Yet, colonial education policies from the 1930's were based on Fulfulde as the medium of instruction throughout the elementary level in the former Adamawa Province. The requirement was that the child should be inducted into school through his/her MT so as to satisfy his/her linguistic and cultural needs and to educate him effectively for the purpose of integrating him into his/her national, political and socio-cultural environments. Fulfulde, the most widespread indigenous language, was used successfully as a MI. Adequate provision for the supply of textbooks and qualified teachers was made and instruction in reading and writing was given in Fulfulde. Over the decades, the Fulbe elites themselves lost interest in this enterprise for economic and prestige purposes. This led to the decline in the use of Fulfulde as a MI. The present situation is that Fulfulde is not taught as a subject, even in some areas where the Fulbe are predominant. This is a grave cause for concern given its socio -pedagogic consequences in the short and long terms. Fulfulde, the fourth language in Nigeria, is classified as a minor language ignoring the major socio-economic roles of Fulbe and their

geographic spread nationally and internationally. Within Nigeria, Fulfulde appears in at least seventeen out of the thirty-six states and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) in Nigeria in varying degrees of strength as seen in Table 1.02 below. Moreover, the Federal Government of Nigeria is yet to adopt a policy guide which would favour the entrenchment of the MT concept. All it says is that the MT or LIC is to be used initially at primary school level and later to be replaced by English. There is no fully articulated document on matters of language use, language-in-education statements are unsystematically embedded in the NPE of 1977 and revised in 1998. Furthermore, there is a nonchalant attitude towards indigenous languages in Nigeria and unclear policies on language education. It is against this background of the linguistic neglect and disadvantage of Fulfulde that a study to examine the implementation of the FMT policy in nomadic schools becomes important.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

From the foregoing, we have seen government's recognition of the importance of the mother tongue medium education in our schools, given its numerous cultural, linguistic, psychological and pedagogical advantages. Despite governments' recognition of the importance of the MTM in our schools, and of providing functional education for special groups such as the Nomads in their MT, so as to facilitate their full integration into mainstream socio-economic development, there are still indications of poor achievement levels and weak language proficiency among Fulbe pupils. This suggests that the MTM may not have been effectively implemented. A recent monitoring report has also

shown that pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states where there is a large Fulfulde speaking population, scored far below the national mean in the achievement tests conducted for primary four pupils (Falayajo et al, 1997). Such empirical evidence would appear to reinforce the hunch of the present researcher from casual observation, and informal discussions, that there may be some problems and difficulties of implementation in the bilingual nomadic classrooms especially in Adamawa and Taraba states. These observations point in a general manner to the inconsistency that exists between policy and practice and attest to the gap between what is government policy, on the one hand, and what is actual reality, on the other. The consequences of such inconsistencies could be very harmful as has been said earlier, both in the immediate and in the long term, and therefore call for urgent action and response.

One valid inference from the foregoing, therefore, is that there exists a considerable mismatch between policy statements and the actual reality in the classroom, especially in nomadic primary schools in Adamawa and Taraba States where achievement levels are low, and learning outcomes generally unsatisfactory. Teacher preparation and motivation are also unsatisfactory. It has been difficult to state in quantifiable terms, the reading, writing, listening and speaking abilities of primary school pupils as well as teachers in Nigeria. This is principally because these different strands of language have not been individually or collectively investigated into using elaborated or standardised instruments. Similarly, materials used for teaching/learning in schools especially at the primary school level have not been exhaustively evaluated to

assess their effectiveness or otherwise. These two issues constitute specific areas that have not received sufficient investigation within the Nigerian environment. The problem becomes more depressing when one looks at some northern states especially Adamawa and Taraba States. These two states by virtue of the fact that they occupy extreme locations have not managed to capture sufficiently the interests of researchers. Characteristically, any study done in those states has a very limited scope. Invariably, only few of the urban centers receive attention. Consequently, information emerging from such efforts is usually weakened by the narrowness in the spread of either the sampling or the subjects. There has been little or no indepth study of any of the following areas:

1] Teaching/Learning materials.

2] Audio-visual materials.

3] Teachers' qualification and professional exposure.

4] Level of parents' involvement.

5] Seriousness of government policy and its implementation.

Therefore, there is the need for some empirical verification of these hunches/casual observations. Specifically, this study intends to examine achievement levels and learning outcomes.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The present study was conceived principally to examine the implementation of the statements in the NPE regarding language use in education with particular reference to nomadic schools in Adamawa and Taraba states. It does this with particular attention to the performance of teachers and

pupils in reading and grammar in nomadic bilingual (Fulfulde/English) schools.

Specifically, it seeks to:

a) Assess the level of achievement and language competence of pupils and teachers.

b) Examine the degree of differences in achievement levels in reading comprehension and grammar with respect to Fulfulde and English.

c) Determine the language difficulties encountered by pupils and teachers in both Fulfulde and English.

1.4 Research Questions.

In furtherance of the purpose of this study, the researcher would attempt to provide answers to the following research questions:

1. What is the level of grammatical competence and reading comprehension in Fulfulde and English attained by the pupils and do these levels meet the competencies specified in the approved national curriculum?
2. Is there any significant difference in the scores of pupils in Fulfulde and English in (I) reading comprehension and (ii) grammar?
3. Is there any significant difference in achievement levels in reading comprehension and grammar of male and female pupils in the sample?
4. Is there any significant relationship between scores in reading comprehension and grammar in Fulfulde and English respectively for the pupils?
5. What is the level of grammatical competence and reading comprehension in Fulfulde and English attained by the teachers?
6. Is there any significant difference in the scores of teachers in Fulfulde and English in (I) reading comprehension and (ii) grammar?

7. Is there a significant relationship between scores in reading comprehension and grammar in Fulfulde and English respectively for the teachers?

1.5 Null Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in the study:

1. There is no significant difference in the mean scores by pupils in the tests of Fulfulde and English in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
2. There is no significant difference in the mean scores of boys and girls in tests of (a) Fulfulde reading comprehension and (b) Fulfulde grammar.
3. There is no significant difference in the mean scores of boys and girls in tests of (a) English reading comprehension and (b) English grammar.
4. There is no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of Fulfulde in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
5. There is no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of English in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
6. There is no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of Fulfulde and English.
7. There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers in tests of Fulfulde and English in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
8. There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of Fulfulde in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
9. There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers from Adamawa andTaraba states in tests of English in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
10. There is no significant relationship between scores on Fulfulde and English reading comprehension and grammar tests.

1.6 Basic Assumptions

The following basic assumptions underlie this study:

1. Learning achievement can be used to mirror the efficacy, or otherwise, of an instructional system.
2. Tests of learning achievement enable us to tap into whatever learning gains learners have made.
3. Language is central to education and serves as a primary instrument for determining the outcome of learning.
4. Learning in the MT facilitates greater achievement than learning in a L2, all things being equal.
5. Performance in reading and grammar is an adequate reflection of achievement in literacy and communication skills.
6. The teacher is central to the success of any educational policy.
7. Teacher competence rubs off on the learners' achievement.

1.7 Significance for the Study.

Over twenty years after the National Policy on Education was articulated (NPE 1977) and in spite of the historical significance of Fulfulde and indeed the establishment of the nomadic education programme, no one has undertaken any comprehensive study on the use of Fulfulde as a medium of instruction in primary education. Furthermore, no comprehensive study has sought to examine issues regarding achievement and language use in the classroom since the inception of the nomadic education programme. An important goal of this study was to identify factors constraining Fulfulde mother tongue medium, especially in areas where it is dominant. It was hoped that the findings from

the study would enable policy makers and practitioners to become aware of these problems and also work out strategies for addressing them.

Much has also been said about nomadic education without any attention paid to the language through which it is being implemented. Indeed, the present study is the first of its kind on Fulfulde by a native speaker, since the declaration was made to use the mother-tongue for initial instruction at the primary level (UNESCO, 1953; NPE, 1977). This being a study on the empowerment of one "minority" language under threat, its findings should be instructive to all viable minority languages, e.g. Kanuri, Ijaw, Ebira, Idoma, Tiv, Ibibio, Igala, Nupe, Efik, Chamba, etc. In conception, the study asserts the rights of minority languages to being used in education, and therefore has the potential of arresting the perpetual threat of domination by the so-called majority languages, (in Nigeria Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba,). Examining practical ways in which the policy of mother-tongue use in education can be improved through an understanding of the constraints and problems facing one such experiment could maximize the usefulness of the study.

In summary, the study will contribute to a theory of educational linguistics, especially on the use of minority languages in a multilingual setting characterized by differences in power, status and demography of languages within it. In terms of practice, it will allow policy makers and practitioners to have empirical evidence on the state of implementation of the NPE with particular reference to Fulfulde language in education and thereby suggest strategies for addressing these issues. Since the Fulɓe in particular are generally

associated with nomadism, especially in the northern states, the educational implications of the study should be of value to other minority nomadic groups. These include the Shuwa Arabs, the Kwoyams, Buduma and the Badawis of Borno State and the Lake Chad Basin as well as the migrant fishermen in Bakassi, Buguma, Okrika, etc. in Rivers, Akwa Ibom, Bayelsa, etc.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

The conceptual framework of this thesis is built on a theory of educational change which posits that educational innovations are successful to the extent to which certain basic environmental factors and inputs are available and interact significantly and synergistically to achieve desired results. These educational inputs include the following: learning environment, attitude, materials, teachers, and learner interest and classroom interaction. These factors are constantly interacting in any learning situation. Where expected learning outcomes are not achieved this framework assumes that one or more of these inputs is either not available or not adequately available and where available, irrelevant or out of place with the other inputs. This theory of educational change is discussed in Beauchamp (1984), Harris, Lawn and Prescott (1975) as well as Ubahakwe (1999). Proper implementation of planned educational change is considered as very important in this framework. It insists on the existence, in the right quantity and quality, and in a timely manner of such tangible and non-tangible inputs as attitudes, skills, resources, commitments both on the part of the implementers and recipients of change. Implementers' understanding and acceptance of the planned changes as well as their

understanding of its basic assumptions and methods are also considered as very vital to the installation of the planned change within this framework. These therefore need to be investigated.

One central assumption in this study was that unravelling the contributions of these many inputs into successful educational change requires a judicious blend of data collection approaches. Hence, the need for the adoption of some form of methodological eclecticism in research approach and design. It was in keeping with this theoretical framework that the researcher has isolated testing achievement in two languages for closer scrutiny. This is with a view to unravelling its possible contributions to the success or failure of the implementation of the Fulfulde medium of education policy in nomadic schools, which is the focus of this study.

The research is interdisciplinary to the extent that it brings under one umbrella linguistic, educational, and sociolinguistic factors, as well as environmental and attitudinal ones. The implications are that the research must incorporate fundamental information, perspectives, and methodological approaches from these different disciplines for tackling the primary problems of the thesis, i.e. educational achievement with reference to grammar and reading in two languages by pupils and teachers.

More specifically, the details of the contributing disciplines were spelt out as follows:

1. Educational aspects of the study had to do with educational rights of minorities, the nature of educational achievement, reading achievement

in particular and the literature and research procedures related to these. There is also the literature on language testing, especially testing in two languages.

2. Linguistic aspects of the study had to do with discussion on linguistic or grammatical competence or mastery by both pupils and teachers.
3. The Sociolinguistic components have to do with the language situation in Nigeria, language situation in Adamawa and Taraba States, language choice and language policy in education (NPE, 1981), and all relevant literature relating to various models of bilingual education, biliteracy.

There was also the literature and methodology of individual bilinguals (narrow and wide) and how this has related to bilingualism in school.

1.9 Scope and Delimitation

The data collection for the study was undertaken in only two out of the thirty-six states participating in the nomadic education programme. Even within the two states only twenty-three schools that were linguistically homogenous in their student population were selected through a process of multi-stage random sampling. Any generalisation from this study should therefore be done bearing its scope and limitation in mind.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

The literature on language education is quite extensive and interesting and therefore any researcher attempting a review of writings in this broad and ever-expanding field can only be selective in his/her review of previous work. The present review cannot, therefore, be different and will cover only those areas that are germane to a full understanding of this particular study. These areas include the following:

2.1 General language policy planning (status and code planning), its determinants, implementation and enabling contexts. (Minority language matters are considered under the influence of demography on language planning).

2.2 Language in primary education policies and practice (determinants, assumptions and constraints relevant literature in primary education will be reviewed in this section as a way of contextualizing language issues at this level of education).

2.3 Research methods and empirical studies in language education, especially at the primary school level, including language testing, as well as literature on minority language education and language education programmes for special groups.

The review will then end with a brief consideration of the implications of such previous work for the present study.

2.1 General Language Policy Planning and Implementation

The important role that language plays in our lives is now clearly recognized by all. Aliyu (1977: 67-68) outlines five outstanding functions performed by language. According to him language, in its different forms:

a) "Allows the individual to gain full membership of the society of which he lives i.e. the specific community into which he is born and within which he generally grows and aspires to become a member.

b) Equips the individual with the power of self-expression.

d) The absence of language or an inadequacy of it renders the individual an incomplete being. His feelings might remain untransmitted and the thoughts of others untapped.

d) Very often acts as a catalyst for thoughts.

e) Provides the inter-personal medium for the different members of the society."

In this present study, language is central to education and serves as an instrument for determining the outcome of learning. This is because of the assumption that learning achievement can be used to measure the adequacy or otherwise of an instructional system.

According to Tollefson (1995: 50), "language plays a central role in how we understand ourselves and the world, and thus all questions of language control and standardization have major implications for social relation and the distribution of power". This is particularly so in multilingual societies such as the two states under study where several languages exist, often times in conflict. Relationships between languages in society and in their domains of use also

reveal interesting patterns of status. Societal bilingualism occurs when two varieties fulfill equivalent functions within a community where every single language embodies and gives expression to a particular way of organizing, perceiving, and understanding reality. Consequently, language is said to be the essence of culture (Tollefson, 1995). One view is that language plays a divisive role in multilingual societies but some sociolinguists disagree. According to Fishman (1968), it is not language that divides but the attitude of speakers and the sentiments and symbolism attached to the language. He points out that:

> Differences do not need to be divisive. Divisiveness is an ideologized position and it can magnify minor differences; indeed it can manufacture differences in language as in other matters almost as easily as it can capitalise on more obvious differences. Similarly, unification is also an ideologized position and it can minimise seemingly major differences or ignore them entirely (Fishman, 1968a: 5).

This view is shared by some linguists who have argued that some of the real causes of divisiveness in African countries have nothing to do with language. Rather, these linguists (Bamgbose, 1991; Phillipson, 1995; and Tollefson, 1995) see its causes as associated with factors such as exploitation of ethnicity to gain political or economic advantage, sharing scarce resources with the inevitable competition, uneven development and sometimes external instigation based on nationalistic, ideological or religious motives.

Strauss (1996) notes that nearly all African countries are characterized by the presence of a diversity of languages, which poses a lot of problems associated with language planning, policy and implementation. The crux of the language problem has been the pursuit of meaningful solutions to language

choice in different spheres. This situation of extreme multilingualism has had negative ripple effects on the pursuit of national development and poses the challenge of fashioning out meaningful, workable and acceptable language policies, including the allocation of roles and domains of use for the different languages in societies. Furthermore, the problem is worsened by the close relationship that would appear to exist between multilingualism and ethnicity in Africa and the attendant attempt to work out language policies that can address these twinned issues. The need for further action is therefore reinforced by the link that has been observed between national multilingualism in developing countries and their underdevelopment (Strauss, 1996). The argument here is that there is a direct correlation between multilingualism and poverty in the third world. Luckily, it is not asserted that this relationship is causal. The difficulty that multilingualism poses for Bamgbose (1991:3) also acknowledges language plans. According to him:

> Multilingualism certainly poses a problem for language policy. But it is not an insuperable problem. In fact, a major challenge for those who have to formulate policy is coping with the problem, while at the same time harnessing the positive advantages of the phenomenon of multilingualism.

He further asserts that language policy becomes necessary wherever there are language problems begging for solution and points out that even in monolingual countries, issues regarding regional or social dialect, influx of immigrants ushering in minority languages, e.t.c. create problems, which require prompt action least in education. Worse still, he says multilingual situations trigger off more pronounced problems, and action required covers

communication at various levels: administration and education. Bamgbose rightly observes that freedom of choice of languages is limited in many multilingual situations because of historical, economic, socio-cultural, pedagogic and political constraints. Even where LP comes out with choices, particularly for MTM, anecdotal and empirical evidence does show that there is, often times, inadequate implementation as revealed by negative attitudes and low learner achievement, among others. This reality poses a challenge to language planners who must therefore ensure that plans are implementable and where implemented, backed up. The multiplicity of languages makes planning a very crucial issue, especially in developing countries. These countries need to decide firmly what languages should be national or official. All these will determine the role of the indigenous and exoglossic ones in terms of which one (s) should be used for one or more purposes (Bamgbose, 1979:18). Concern regarding the choice of which language for what purposes and at what cost continues to dominate language planning.

Several definitions of language planning exist. Fishman (1971) defines planning as the organized pursuit of solutions to language problems, usually at the national scale and which focuses either on language form or language use or both. Similarly, Rubin and Jernudd (1971) see language planning as the deliberate change and promotion of language structure and language use. Das Gupta and Ferguson (1977) define it as a process of assessing language resources, assigning preferences and functions to one or more language development then use according to previously determined objective. Chumbow

(1984) sees language planning as the process of formulating a language policy which is as concerned with planned and principled solutions to language problems of a state or nation. According to him, it is based on a judicious consideration of relevant socioeconomic and political variables. Ihebuzor (1995) defines it as a deliberate and purposeful activity on the part of government and its agencies or by persons in authority to influence the patterns of language use and the status of language in any given society. On the other hand, Weinstein (1980:50) sees it as a government authorized long- term sustained and conscious effort to alter a language function in a society for the purpose of solving communication problems. One may note in passing that Weinstein's definition is slightly limiting, as non-governmental agencies are also involved in language planning.

The above views show that language planning involves a series of activities carried out to alter or enhance the functional status of a language or groups of languages in any given society by government or persons in authority. It shares with all other forms of planning the necessity for choice, rational selection of means to identify ends. Indeed, it is a problem solving activity that sets goals and alternatives at each stage. According to Tollefson (1995), language planning is a very deliberate but critical future-oriented activity involving the identification of problems, assessing needs, and setting goals, implementing and evaluating them. Consequently, attempts are therefore made to develop policies that are congruent with the political realities of the country. This view captures an essential factor in language planning; that is; language

policies are generally linked to the broader socioeconomic and political objectives. Strauss (1996) asserts that decisions about a language are taken against the background of a particular socio-cultural and political context. According to Olshtain (1989) language policy is viewed today by sociolinguists as a pragmatic and eclectic field of interest where cultural, psychological, attitudinal, economic, linguistic and other factors play critical roles. Ihebuzor (1998) outlined the context of language policy formulations in Nigeria as follows:

1. The multilingual nature of the Nigerian society: some say Nigeria is a tower of Babel. There are many languages in Nigeria - up to 400 according to some authorities. (See, for example, Bamgbose, 1992; Adeyanju ,1986). The cultural plurality of our society: Nigeria is a land of many cultures.
2. Each cultural group is concerned with preserving and promoting its culture. And language is seen as a key aspect of this culture;
3. The realization that language is a powerful weapon for access, inclusion and exclusion, for cohesion and division;
4. The need for linguistic democracy, fairness and equity because of 1,2 and 3 above. Language policy must, as much as possible, be fair to all cultural groups;
5. The need for inter-ethnic-communication through some language(s) chosen as language(s) of wider communication within the country;
6. The need for international communication;
7. The imperative of choice and parsimony. This means that some languages will be chosen for functions 5 & 6 and if that happens, then it brings up differential statuses. But what criteria should govern choice, tradition,

vitality, history, population and standardization? These criteria are summarized as follows:

i). The pull of nationism - the need for economic, social and technological development, and the realization that proper choice of language contributes to nationism;

ii). The attraction of nationalism - the desire for cultural revival and pride and awareness that language plays a role in the quest for nationalism; and

iii). The enormous status of English as a world language.

Bamgbose (1992) described corpus planning as policy implementation involving social and technological development. He asserted that the proper choice of language contributes to nationism. On the other hand, the attraction of nationalism was defined as the desire for cultural revival and pride and the awareness that language plays a role in the quest for nationalism an activity that prepares a language as a standard. Corpus planning is seen as one of the major dimensions of language planning and involves efforts to alter and improve the language whose status is the objective of the policy decision and implementation attempts. It is described as a follow-up process of status planning and involves operations and manipulation of the language in order to increase its functionality so that it can cope with the present challenges.

Fasold (1984) uses the term "language development" to refer to works in corpus planning. He identifies three categories of language development, viz., graphization, standardisation and modernisation. He refers to:

1) Graphicization as the adoption of a writing system and establishment of spelling and other orthographic conventions such as capitalisation and punctuation. This activity, he says paves way for literacy formal education and modernisation. Adegbija (1993) describes it as a life-giving process that has the potential to challenge the resources of a language, revitalise it and enable it to grow from strength to strength. He observes that:

   a) No language is too small to be graphized. Given the will and determination the size of the speakers is never a qualifying factor.

   b) There are infinite functions of a graphized language. When languages are not used, they cannot perform even low technical functions. They are outside the written media.

   c) Graphization spurs language growth, modernisation or development. Since language is able to function in new areas, its growth is directly proportional to the extent it is used in different domains.

One will tend to agree with Adegbija's argument that the non-use of indigenous African languages in education on grounds of their presumed inadequacy denies them the opportunity for growth and thus "dwarfs their potentials". Yet they should be encouraged. Their use promotes, and creates vision for further development. He rightly observed that" the sooner African languages are graphized the sooner it will be possible to see that they can be empowered to function in all domains of life" (Adegbija, 1993). This should include not only the major languages but also the minor ones.

2) Standardisation as the process whereby one variety of a language becomes widely accepted as the "best" form of the language – rated above other regional and social dialects.

Language standardization is also defined as a process whereby one language or dialect spoken in a region become acceptable as the major language of the region for general usage (Nahir, 1977:115 quoted in Eastman 1983:225). The standard is needed in order to express the commonality. Eastman (1983) challenged planners seeking a standard to consider the historical formation of dialects, trace the origin of the diversity as well as examine earlier attempts at standardization. Tahir (1990) and Muhammad (1990) have variously called for the need to standardize Fulfulde in order for it to fulfil a more unifying function in all its domain of use.

3) Modernisation as that process by which a language becomes developed to enable it perform a "higher" function (Onyewotu, 1992). Accordingly, it involves lexical expansion which could entail borrowing, adaptation or coinage of terms and expressions from other languages or forms already in existence in the language being modernized (Fasold, 1984). Modernisation depends on graphization that enables a language to be used in all necessary situations (Eastman 1983). The production of a quadrilingual glossary of legislative terms in English, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba by the National Language Centre of the NERDC in 1990 was an attempt to modernise these languages so that they can be used in the National Assembly. This is sequel to their adoption as co-languages of the National Assembly (Emenanjo, 1990; Bamgbose, 1991).

The term "language engineering" was used to describe the processes and activities in language development that are concerned with the design and implementation of strategies towards the rehabilitation and optimal utilization

of individual languages. It is viewed as a mechanism of language planning that recognizes problems and proceeds to "engineer" solutions to such problems. Codification, Standardization, modernization, development, reforms, and so on are examples of such mechanisms that are employed. Chumbow (1982) and Haugen (1983) have also indicated preference for alternative terms. They have observed that codification which refers to writing is more embracing than graphization which is restricted to developing an alphabet or any other writing system (for example, syllabary). Codification thus includes the production of primers, spelling books, grammar books, dictionaries, and so on. Codification is likened to Standardization that aims explicitly at a normalized orthography and pronunciation, a prescriptive reference dictionary (Eastman, 1983).

Successful codification of a language is a major step towards moving it from serving un-ambitious functions to coping effectively with all the fields in which it is called up on to serve. It is born out of the need for intellectualization and elaboration of a language and could involve extending its own resources or borrowing from other languages. The common practice in the case of a minority language is to draw heavily on the H-L. This is because its speakers have been educated largely or wholly in the H-L and are unfamiliar with the vocabulary of their own language.

On the other hand, modernization generally connotes the expansion of the lexicon, which in turn, involves compiling glossaries with the help of specialists in the fields to which the specialized terminology apply. (Eastman, 1983:236). Eastman cautions that for lexical modernization to succeed,

planners need to consider and reflect the actual usage by the people for whom the vocabulary is intended, as well as come up with semantically appropriate vocabulary, (Eastman, 1983:237). Language planners attempt to achieve a proper balance between development of the language's own resources and responsiveness of the language to the world outside the community. The former leads to purism and the latter temper purism and leads to greater borrowing (alienating sympathy of ordinary speakers). The pursuit of a short-term objective (linguistic purism) may work against the achievement of the long-term aim (the salvation of the language). Indeed, this should be the spirit to be adopted in the case of Fulfulde.

The major limitation that language planning suffers from is revealed by cost-benefit analysis, because the benefit accruing to a society from a language planning activity has to be matched against the costs (Fasold, 1984). Unfortunately, Eastman (1983) and Fasold (1984) observed that it is difficult to quantify, in monetary terms, the cost of benefit of language planning. It is because the consequences of language planning are realized in the distant future that predictions are very unreliable.

Another limitation is acceptance and attitudes that are said to affect the success of language policy. Olshtain (1990) observes that "few language policies will succeed if the attitudes of those affected are not taken into account in some way (see also Hovarth 1989). Moreover, since motivation to learn is closely linked to attitudes, it is self-evident how important this variable is in the gauging of learning outcomes" (Olshtain, 1990:44).

Inadequate implementation arrangements are another limitation in language planning efforts in Nigeria. Olaofe (in Emenanjo, 1990:51) is quoted as saying "it is one thing to state grandiose language policy statements and another to provide human and material resources to attain them. Nigeria has never been found wanting in the former, the latter has always been her problem". Nigeria's official and language policies are typical examples of declarations of policy without accompanying resources (Bamgbose, 1991:118).

Language choice is an aspect of language planning which deals with decisions regarding which language (s) should be national language and which should be languages of wider communication (LWC), especially in developing nations. It is claimed that language choices are made with respect to the presence or absence of six features underlying three distinct categories of choice (Fishman, 1970). In an attempt to explicate the societal factors that influence and determine language planning, Fishman (1971) provides a three - part typology of nations and the language policy issues that confront each. These are types A, B and C. (Fishman 71:30-31).

Type A:

There is neither a socio-cultural past nor a usable political past that can currently serve integrative functions at the national level. In such a situation where the country is made up of small ethnic groups, Fishman proposes the adoption of the former colonial language, as is the case in Cameroon and other African countries. Such policy types are concerned with nationism where the

choice of a language is a permanent national symbol. Other examples include, Gambia, Tanzania, Ghana (Bamgbose, 1990: 20-21).

The multiplicity of languages in Type A situation constitutes a constraint to effective development of languages, given issues of cost etc.

cType B:

There is one recognizable "Great Tradition" (GT) which has been associated with an indigenous language. This language is consequently made the national language and is used for all manners of communication in the country. Decision B is governed by considerations of nationalism that will lead to the choice of an indigenous language and a LWC as a transitional choice as in the case of Ethiopia (Bamgbose, 1991:21).

Type C:

This typology is made up of many Great Traditions and therefore confronted by conflicting claims of these traditions a situation that calls for a compromise choice between national integration and ethnic identity. In such situations an easy option is the LWC with the desire to achieve bilingualism. India is typical example of Type C policy where there are many competing indigenous languages from which Hindi was chosen as national language (Eastman, 1983:14; Bamgbose, 1991: 21). Support for the encouragement of the use of local languages such as Fulfulde is a manifestation of Nigeria's endorsement of this approach. However, implementation would appear to fall behind policy statements. Support to policy implementation is also weak and shows up in poor achievement levels among others.

In a critique of these typologies, particularly Types A and B, Bamgbose, although acknowledging the difficulty of reconciling the claims of nationalism and nationism, questioned the importance accorded to a LWC as a vehicle for a people's culture. He asserted that "no matter how domesticated and Africanized, a LWC continued to be associated with a foreign culture". He felt that, while retaining a LWC only favors a select group and excludes mass participation in the national system, selecting an indigenous language means language development and massive propagation of LWC particularly among minority groups who may reject the choice (note the case of Hindi in India in 1967). One may observe here that it is not necessary to reach the minority group in the LWC alone. The history of political participation in Nigeria has never cited language as an obstacle to democracy or elections.

Rubin (1977) observes that the planning stage is involved with goal setting and formulating policy which he describes policy as a simple guide meant for a definite course of action and expresses in a general outline, what it intends to achieve. He refers to a sound policy as one that is realistic, feasible, objective, fair, socially acceptable, beneficial and is formulated using authentic data and which can be implemented. Furthermore, Rubin observes that policy formulation involves choice of method to express preference for one language over another language, either as national language, medium of instruction at different educational levels, intra- and international communication and the reasons for the choice. To do this, all facts about the language must have been

collected, covering its geographical location, population, culture, political background, and so on.

Olshtain (1989) agrees with the role of data at this stage of language planning. The first phase of policy formulation is the fact-finding phase. He points out that this stage involves a careful consideration of the actual language situation in a community, an evaluation of its needs and aspirations, development of suitable language policy and an appropriate language program. According to him, the success of this phase depends on the identification of language needs or problems defined in the context of the socio-cultural and political framework to enable the establishment of relevant goals, strategies and predicted outcomes.

The fact-finding stage is usually carried out using a socio-linguistic survey. According to Adeniran (1994), a language survey is a language enumeration exercise that provides the required data base for planning and implementing language policy. Bamgbose (1994) lists some of the objectives as providing rudimentary information on the number of languages and speakers, probe issues of language spread, language use, language variation, language attitudes, language shift and language death. In spite of its importance, it is pertinent to note that with regard to Fulfulde, albeit a minority language in Nigeria, such invaluable data do not exist or where they do, they are very unreliable. Consequently, language planning is often done in a vacuum and implementation even pre-empts such data.

On the other hand, Junaidu and Ihebuzor (1994) outline a series of aims of language surveys, the most pertinent of which for this study are:

1. Determine the language situation and patterns of language use, loyalty, attitude and identity.
2. Assess the degree of bilingualism (if any) both its patterns (societal and individual) and its correlates.
3. Assess the degree of standardization of languages.
4. Assess and evaluate the effect, receptivity, implementation and spread of planned language expansion; and
5. Assess the adequacy, effect and consequences of the language provisions of the educational policies in a given society.

The last objective is particularly relevant to the aim of this study.

Dua (1985) and Ohannessian, et al. (1975) are all agreed that whatever the purpose, information gathered from language surveys is used for effective national planning and social engineering, and for that reason, it should be valid, reliable and accurate (Junaidu and Ihebuzor, 1994:32).

Bamgbose (1994) also notes that pertinent questions on language education policy implementation can be addressed in language surveys. These include the suitability of medium of instruction, choice of languages to be included in the curriculum, problems of teacher availability, suitability of teaching material and methodology of language teaching. This perspective ties in neatly some of the motivations of the current study as findings from such studies can help planners to see the situation in proper perspective and identify what can be done to promote and induce the right kind of change.

Once language policies have been formulated they need to be implemented. The implementation stage builds on the findings of the first phase. Accordingly, Rubin (1977) describes it as the stage at which effort is made to convert the policies to action. Successful implementation involves adoption and spread of language which involves giving useful information about the chosen languages, production of materials in the language to convey it, training of personnel who will pass the language to its potential users. They could involve modernization, standardization, normalization, codification, advocacy, promotion, etc.

Evaluation is the third important process in language planning. It is a term that has been used in the literature to cover three major areas commonly referred to by Kennedy (1989) as Type A, B and C. He defines evaluation as checking the validity of the planning and implementation method. It is concerned with how appropriate and satisfactory implementation has been, that is, judging the worth of language planning. The three types of evaluation are described as follows:

Type A – feedback as the final stage in a language planning programme (Fishman, 1980b);

Type B – information presented to planners at all stages of a program to enable them to make choices between alternative strategies (Rubin, 1971);

Type C – judging the effectiveness and nature of processes in complete language planning programs (Tollefson, 1981b).

For a successful programme or project, Kennedy observes that it is important that language policy formulation goes through all the stages of planning, implementation and evaluation. The current study actually examines aspects of the implementation of FMTM and is thus some form of formative evaluation of the policy.

2.1.1 Minority language matters

"Minority language" refers to the language spoken by a minority section of a population and is considered "inferior" in status to some other language (underprivileged) (Price, in Alcock et al., 1977). Wardaugh (1987) shows how more dynamic languages, through everyday usage, can erode the base of a minority language (i.e. an indigenous language) being threatened by languages of a wider currency. He observes that minority people and their languages are frequently treated as second class citizens. Their plight, even where they are not totally ignored, and their distinctiveness are always overlooked in development plans, especially in language matters.

The classification of languages as minority is based on numerical strength and certainly from the dominance of the official languages in institutional communication. It is strictly a numerical subordination of minority groups as well as their marginalisation from the mainstream of national life, socio-economic development and political power. Like the nomadic pastoralist and other migrant groups, their geographical isolation is responsible for the lack of educational opportunities.

One problem in discussing minority groups is simply that of the very restrictive nature of the term itself that often focuses on the numerical strength of the people. Another problem is that associated with cost. It is often argued that time, effort and money that could have been better expended on effectively furthering a minority language and culture is often devolved to more urgent matters (Price, in Alcock, 1977). Similarly, Bamgbose (1991) notes that the all - pervasive influence of the mass media poses a threat to the survival of the minority languages, most of which do not have a newspaper, are not allocated equal programme time slots on the radio and television. Yet minority languages have a right survival.

According to the Barcelona Declaration on Linguistic Rights (UNESCO, 1996) linguistic rights is an issue of major educational, social and cultural importance. It lays the groundwork of a just and equitable linguistic peace throughout the world as a key factor in ensuring harmonious social and cultural relation. The report points out that multilingual education and respect for linguistic diversity are considered conducive for strengthening the spirit of tolerance and to the building of peace between people and communities (UNESCO, 1996:2).

Fishman (1993) acknowledges that although individuals, communities and polities are not equal in power, they should each be equally entitled to use their own language if they are so inclined. He refers to this as complete ethno-linguistic democracy: the right of both parties in an interaction to use their own languages and to receive in their own languages in return, regardless of the

power or size differentials that differentiate between them (Fishman, 1993:11). This implies that speakers are entitled to the use of their language and can be interpreted as the deliberate demand of natural rights. Once a society accepts language as a right, then it sets in motion the machinery to ensure its effective use and development in all spheres of life, including education. It does this through a series of programmes and activities including teacher training, materials production, language engineering, attitude change, and e.t.c. It is interesting to find out how these have been done for Fulfulde.

2.1.2. Survival of minority languages

A very fundamental problem that continues to threaten the maintenance of minority languages such as Fulfulde is economic – that is, their marketability. As long as the H-language, in a diglossic situation, is preferred for some purposes, even by those whose home language is the language, the role of the L-language becomes more and more that of merely serving as a symbol of identification (Price, 1979). Accordingly, Price concludes that the decisive factor in determining the fate of a minority language is the degree of language loyalty shown by the community of speakers. If they continue to use it, it is likely to survive. Sutherland (1979) has observed that the provision of schools using the home language as medium of instruction does not always satisfy group feelings. She showed that attempts to solve the language problem by schools with parallel streams, using different languages as media of instruction do not seem to survive long, either nor does the attempt in South Africa to have bilingual teachers teach in two languages simultaneously. In contrast, the case

of the Jewish education in England and the Blacks in America illustrate the way in which parents provide for the maintenance of their religion, language and way of life, while adapting largely to the majority group.

In an extensive survey of problems and policies relating to minority groups in fifteen countries published by its Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 1983:37-42) observed that the multicultural conditions of most countries require making special provisions for minorities. These include providing an education that relates to their interests, norms and values arrived at through need analysis, minority group involvement, financial and political support.

According to Price (1979), an important institutional means of seeing that the minority language is transmitted from one generation to another is the school. He noted that children should at least be taught in their own language where this is deserved and is practicable. He lamented, however, that the use of minority languages as MI has generally been hampered by a number of problems. These include the lack of specialists who are willing and qualified to teach certain subjects through them, shortage or absence of suitable textbooks for many subjects. Social problems, particularly a backlash against their use by those (some of them native speakers of the language) who argue that it is a waste of time and resources or even not in the best interest of the children (Price, 1979:37). The dilemma, here, of course, is that of finding a solution that is not potentially damaging to the survival of the minority language in the

context of another language. At the same time, Price observes that since the actual or potential benefits of minority languages have not been fully assessed, decisions are not guided by rational calculations of costs as against positive outcomes but are determined solely by political and financial pressures and constraints. In the case of Nigerian languages, especially with regard to Fulfulde and indeed other minority languages decisions are purely political.

It is regretted that although graphization was seen as one of the ways of empowering minority languages to become effective tools in mother tongue education, it is quite expensive and time consuming. The Rivers Readers Project is cited as a good example of the graphization of minor languages through which over 50 books, pamphlets, charts, etc. in 21 local languages were published. It was noted that "the fate of a minority language rests with the speakers. If they care enough about it to develop it as a written language, they will find a means to do so. If they do not, it will remain a spoken medium only or die out in favour of a larger language" (Williamson, 1990). Groups may be enthusiastic about the provision of education that protects their minority interests by teaching in their home language. On the contrary, parental resentment of education in the home language often leads to its rejection, e.g. Welsh in Wales, Igbo and Yoruba in Nigeria.

Many studies have concerned themselves with the effect of positive and negative attitudes on success in L2 acquisition. Pattanayak (1986) reports that positive attitudes towards one's own language and culture have maintained languages in India for thousands of years even under extremely adverse

situations. Evidence of how negative attitudes towards one's own language has let to the extinction of languages abound especially in Africa and Latin America. On the other hand, Scotton (1972:184) analyses the choice of language, attitudes, perceptions of language choice of others and the like, in Kampala and found that, as in Adamawa and Taraba States, negative attitude towards minority languages, and in this case Fulfulde, hinders their use generally. Lambert (1983) has shown that negative attitude provides justification to the minority for inequality as much as it leads to a change of values.

Olshtain (1989) places an appropriate emphasis on attitudes and indicates the powerful nature of instrumental motivation while not denying that the need for group affiliation may also be significant in a society where learners desire to be associated with the prestige of a LWC. In a context of current or prior colonization, Olshtain observes that societal needs for the language of communication may be great, but individual attitudes may be strongly against that language, which is often viewed as the language of the oppressing power. Individual attitudes represent the covert feelings and thoughts about the language itself, the people who speak it natively and their culture. In this case positive attitudes are said to reflect high regard for, and appreciation of both the language and the culture it represents. On the other hand, it was pointed out that negative attitudes tend to create a certain psychological distance between the learner and the subject matter, and can therefore influence the learning/teaching process.

Meanwhile, the minority's own attitude to education depends on what the minority group perceives of its status and the groups' evaluation of elements which give it its identity, e.g. its history, way of life, religion, language (Alcock, in Price 1979). According to Price (1979) the fate of a minority language is the degree of loyalty shown by the community of its speakers. If they continue to use it, it is likely to survive. Otherwise, it will die. It is also cautioned that a dead language generally stays dead! Consequently, the survival of many minority languages must rest largely upon a change in attitudes. The major argument expressed against minority education is the social divisive effect of separate schools.

2.1.3 Minority language literacy

To advocate minority language literacy is tantamount to advocating MT literacy (Robinson, 1990). Fasold (1984) observed that language change can be brought about by various agencies such as religious, ethnic, professional and business organizations and even individuals. One can recall the activities of churches, mosques, government and non-governmental organizations that have influenced language change. For example, missionary activities in Nigeria have given rise to education in many Nigerian languages, and this has led to the production of orthographies, grammar texts, and so on. Ethno-cultural societies have also promoted the languages and cultures of various ethnic groups in Nigeria. Similarly, governments, through their language planning agencies, academies, universities have also put in place institutions that are mandated to plan for its languages. Examples of such agencies are the Institute of Swahili

Research of the University of Dar es Salam in Tanzania, the Language Development Centre of the Nigerian Educational and Research Council, the National Language Institute, the Centres and Departments for the Study of Nigerian Languages in various Universities (Emenanjo, 1990).

2.2 Language in Education

Nowhere is the question of language choice more difficult than in the domain of education. This is because of the roles that education plays in society. Language and education go hand in hand as the former provides the means by which the latter is transmitted. Kennedy (1982) stated that the close relationship between use of a language and political power, socio-economic development, national and local identity and cultural values has led to the increasing realisation of the importance of language policies and planning in the life of a nation. Nowhere is this planning more universal than in education, universally recognised as a powerful instrument of change.

Language in education is described as a subsuming umbrella concept which examines the totality of languages functioning as media of instruction or as subjects for teaching and learning and the various factors that impinge on this function (Ihebuzor, 1995). Language education policies involve decisions on the use of a language as MI or for initial literacy or teaching it as a subject. Which language is selected for which purpose, and for which level of education are decisions to be made by education authorities?

Bamgbose (1985:991) has identified three factors that determine the role and functions of language in education. These are the historical constraint (e.g.

colonial experience), the fact that the LWC is the language of science and technology and sociolinguistic constraints such as language status, size of speakers and state of language development. The multilingual situation in most African countries, including Nigeria, calls for choice and the assignment of different roles to language. This depends on whether a language is official, national, regional, community, or local. In most cases, national or official status guarantees a language a prominent place in education, much higher than the role given to other languages. Similarly, a regional or community language may be assigned a role as a subject or even, in some cases, as a medium of instruction (Bamgbose, 1991: 71-72).

On the other hand, socio-cultural constraints involve the desire to ensure that a people's culture is reflected in the education process. Educators argue that educational policy should give the child an opportunity of learning his language or learning in it. However, this factor is also pitched against that of cost and the need for technological development. Furthermore, a nation's policy is often torn between the "unpleasant choice between the need for economic development and the desire for cultural survival" that unfortunately interferes with the interest of the child which is often ignored. "The question boils down to whether one wants to save the language or save the child" (Mackey, 1984:44- 48). In this instance, size of speakers is often used to categorize languages into "major" and "minor" essentially because the larger the size, the more economical it is to provide all the support services. With such a perspective, the tendency is to neglect or ignore minority languages and condemn them to minor roles/

functions in education. Bamgbose (op cit.) goes further to caution that size can only be an advantage when the language is reduced to writing and materials made available in it that it can be used in education. Bamgbose cites the example of Efik as a language, which in terms of size is smaller than Ibibio, but, because it has an impressive literary tradition, it was selected as the variety used for initial literacy and MI in lower primary classes. The absence of a written tradition notwithstanding, a decision to use a language in education will automatically call for deliberate language activities including devising of an orthography, production of primers and other reading materials, training of teachers, and re-orientating people's attitudes towards the language(s) concerned (Bamgbose, 1991:72). A related problem associated to size is the linguistic composition of school populations, particularly in urban areas where there is a high incidence of mixed classes and this has greatly impeded MT education (Bamgbose, (1991:72).

Concerns for language in education are motivated by the now accepted relationship between language policy - the roles and functions of languages in use in education in different societies - and the implications for their use as subject and as medium of education (Olshtain, 1989). That is, which language or languages are most appropriate for translating the curriculum? The following are said to be the major issues addressed in language planning for education: clarification of language for what, when and where, that is, for instruction, taught as subjects, or as 'carriers' for content subjects (Rogers and

Abbott, in Olshtain, 1990). This was particularly important in multilingual societies.

The issue of language in education continues to occupy the front seat in Nigerian educational debates. In 1977, a symposium on language and language teaching in Nigeria was organized by the Federal Ministry of Education in Kaduna and brought to the fore the renewed interest in language in relation to education since the introduction of UPE in 1976. The publication of the National Policy on Education in 1977, the popular spread of experimental projects in language in education and the language question were also an offshoot of the symposium. Similarly, the Federal Ministry of Education sponsored the Ota Seminar on the Implementation of the Language Provisions of Nigeria's National Policy on Education (NPE) in October 1992 to produce a set of recommendations which would constitute a blueprint for an effective implementation of the language provisions of the NPE. During the seminar, the former Minister of Education, Professor A. B. Fafunwa charged participants to re-examine the implementation of the language policy within the framework of the nation's educational development and national goals and aspirations. This can be achieved by assessing what had been done thus far or are being done and recommend strategies for implementation of the language provisions of the National Policy on Education. This is important especially in relation to adult and general literacy, mother tongue education, the teaching of English in the school system and finally the production of instructional texts for languages and literature (BAI, 1992:1). Similarly, Bamgbose (1992) in his keynote address to

the same conference entitled "General Problems of Implementation of Language Problems of the NPE", identified key problems including areas of weakness in the implementation of the language provisions of the NPE (1977,revised 1981). By then (1992) it had been in operation for over fifteen years but was yet to enjoy a systematic evaluation and monitoring because of the "vagueness of the policy statements, poor linkages between the various agencies mandated to translate these statements into practice". The seminar identified specific poor linkages and coordination between the various agencies mandated to problems in the language provisions of the NPE at the policy and implementation levels and endorsed ten general and forty-four specific recommendations. This review covers only those recommendations that were considered relevant to the present study and they include the following:

1. "Government should continue with its policy of multilingualism.
2. "Government should provide active encouragement for the implementation of MT/LIC medium of instruction policy at the primary school level.

   Specifically, it was further recommended that the order of priority should be MT first and the LIC only when MT is not available. The extension of MT/LIC as a medium of instruction for the six years of primary education should also be allowed. There should also be short and long-term strategies for the provision of language teaching resources materials. Individuals and communities should be encouraged to sponsor the production of materials for the teaching of their languages.

3. "Government should give active encouragement to the training and employment of all categories of teachers of (Nigerian) languages. Specifically, pre-primary and primary school teachers should be trained through the MT/LIC of their would-be-pupils. There is a need for specialist teachers of English to handle the teaching of English as a subject in primary schools.

In addition to the pre-service training, provision should also be made for on-the-job training for both pre-primary and primary school teachers.

It was also felt that model MT/LIC pre-primary schools should be set up by states or local government as a way of encouraging the use of MT/LIC as medium of instruction at this level of education.

For improved job satisfaction, efficiency and retention of language teachers trained in an MT/LIC medium, Government should take steps to ensure that such teachers rise to their fullest career levels as they grow professionally through on-the-job experience, training workshops and seminars.

The strategies currently employed by Colleges of Education in the production of language teachers should also be intensified. Similarly, native speakers who are untrained as language teachers should only be used as teaching assistants and under no circumstances should they replace trained language teachers. Finally, the NTI, the NERDC, Universities and Colleges of Education should mount workshops and vocation courses for the training and retraining of all categories of language teachers.

4. Appropriate curricular agencies should review and /or design more functional curricula for Nigerian languages.

5. "Government should fund research into all aspects of language and language teaching in Nigeria and support such activities through grants to Departments of Linguistics and Nigerian Languages/African Languages in tertiary institutions.

In view of the above, funds should be made available for necessary research into all aspects of Nigerian languages for effective implementation of the language provisions of the NPE.

6. Government should provide adequate funding for the survey of Nigerian Languages project with a view to ensuring its immediate implementation for language planning, language development and language use purposes. In this regard, a survey of Nigerian languages should be seen as the most urgent research project to be carried out. Adequate funding should also be provided to enable University Departments of Linguistics, other tertiary institutions, and the Language Development Centre to carry out basic and applied research in a wide range of Nigerian languages. Local governments should also be encouraged to fund research in the languages of their areas of jurisdiction and to enforce the teaching of these languages. Similarly, state governments should enforce the teaching of languages in their areas along with the three major Nigerian languages. The Federal Government should also encourage initiatives by non-governmental organisations in the sponsorship of research (especially in languages and linguistics).

7. The language provisions of the NPE and their implementation should be constantly monitored and evaluated. Test development and standardisation for Nigerian languages at the primary and secondary levels should be carried out by appropriate agencies.

It is encouraging to note that since the Ota seminar, the following have been done in the specific areas of policy implementation.

a) Provision of approved syllabi for NLs, English, the foreign languages Arabic and French.

b) Setting up of a technical committee on the production of teachers for the 3 major languages.

c) Funding of a national workshop on the production of teachers of the 3 major languages.

2.2.1 Models of language in education policy

Educational policies vary from one country to another, especially those regarding the use of language. Nigeria had experimented with various language policies under the colonial administration (Vischer in Kano in 1909; Lugard in 1916 &1923; Phelps Stoke 1922-1924; Hussey 1930, etc.). These were experiments, which used "one of the widely-spread native vernaculars" as MI particularly for initial literacy. The strength of these experiments lie in the concerted effort made to make sure that there is "an ample supply of textbooks" and teachers. The English language was taught as a subject by native speakers or teachers who were trained to teach it so that it will gradually supersede the MT. In 1977, the National Policy on Education (NPE) re-iterated the use of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction alongside English.

The NPE directs that the first three years of primary education should be in the child's mother tongue or the language of the immediate community (LIC). It also encourages every Nigerian child to learn one of the three major languages Hausa, Igbo, and Yoruba, in addition to the child's mother tongue (NPE, 1981,Section 8). Adopting the transitional bilingual education model, the policy allocates languages for instruction in the following manner:

i. At the pre-primary level, instruction should principally be given in the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community (Section 2:3).

ii. Primary Level – the medium of instruction would initially be the mother tongue (MT) or the language of the immediate community (LIC) and later English (Section 3:4). Evidently, the MT is used only as a transitional medium to pave way for English.

iii. Junior and Senior Secondary – English or LWC becomes the medium of instruction up to the University level and it is expected that major Nigerian languages are only to be learnt as subject at this level.

The policy asserts that the government would embark on language planning and corpus development to achieve its goal of instruction in Nigerian Languages. Similarly, the 1989 Nigerian Constitution also pledges to promote the learning of indigenous languages (Section 19:4). However, scholars have criticized the language in education policies on several grounds. According to Adeyanju (1989), language education in Nigeria encourages "subtractive bilingualism" that becomes too demanding when it encourages language shift. This requires minority language speakers to master at least two major languages in addition to English and their own mother tongue, of course, (a minimum of

quadrilingualism), while speakers of majority languages are required to learn only one other major Nigerian language at the JSS level (minimum of trilingualism bearing English in mind).In a similar vein, implementation practices, vary from one part of the country to the other and, even within the same geographical zone, from one school to the other. Examples are the staff schools attached to tertiary institutions and private schools or schools that operate the full maintenance policy whereby the MT or LIC is used. Such schools may be found in the rural areas, especially areas that are largely monolingual in any of these national major languages. A partial maintenance policy is adopted in some schools in which the MT or LIC is used for the first year, first two or three years before switching to English (Ogbonna, 1996). The practice in the nomadic pastoralist schools is not far from what obtains in the conventional rural schools and that fits the pattern of Fulfulde plus the LIC which may as well be Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Tiv, and so on.

2.2.2 Reactions to language in education policies

Ijaiye (1992) sampled some of the critiques about the language policy statements stipulated in the NPE (1981). According to him the following problems have been identified:

I) The statements are mere statements of intent rather than a serious programme for implementation.

ii) The MT/LIC is only partially maintained in spite of its proven importance in achieving initial and permanent literacy and numeracy.

iii) There is no definite implementation chronogram for all states to follow.

iv) The transition to English after three years is bound to create a "psychological gap which is detrimental to all the cognitive maturation and intellectual development of the child" (Chumbow, 1986).

v) No concrete arrangements are made to train teachers even for the three major languages. Out of the 55,237 teachers required for the three major languages only 6,383 (11.6%) were available.

The validity of these observations is recognised by this study especially that such reactions were part of what prompted the researcher to embark on this study.

Omojuwa (1987) noted that the issue of the medium of instruction problem in Nigeria could hardly ever be discussed "without frequent use of the expressions "ideally," "theoretically" and "in practice". He observed that this is because of the seeming competition between English and Nigerian languages for the medium of instruction functions. According to him, measures taken so far have been unable to resolve the matter. Some of these measures included the delayed English medium and the multimedia approaches, the early English medium the "Straight for English," and the late English medium policies. To resolve the debate, Omojuwa reports that two experimental projects, the Primary Education Improvement Project (PEIP) and the Ife Six-Year Primary Project were set up in 1970 and 1977 respectively. From a similarly critical point of view, Adeyanju (1985) has regretted the lack of specificity on the part of the Federal Government document, the mode of which Adeyanju goes on to identify as paying lip-service. This is purely because it has been observed that

some of the most critical points of the document are not, in any way, matched by a resoluteness to implement them.

However, the official attitude of the Federal Government is unambiguously articulated in the National Policy on Education (NPE, 1977/1981/1985). The document makes the language-related submission that has been summarised in the statement below:

> Government will see to it that the medium of instruction in the primary school throughout the country is initially the mother-tongue or the language of the immediate community, and, at a later stage, English, (FME, 1977/1985).

Just as was observed by Omojuwa (1987), one would have expected some conceptual clarifications of certain statements on the government's declaration. Some of such statements in need of further clarification include the mother - tongue which could have been distinguished from the first language. This is so because in some instances, certain Nigerian pupils come to use a first language that is not necessarily their mother tongue. Take, for instance, an Ebira-speaking child schooling in Air Force Primary School, Lagos, may have to cope with a medium of instruction which could be Yoruba even though this child might have Hausa as a language of his immediate community within the Ikeja environment. However, within the interpretation of the physical location of the school, the language of wider communication is likely to be recognised as Yoruba. If most pupils in that Ikeja environment are fluent users of Hausa as a first language (not mother-tongue) will the school still be obliged to insist on Yoruba which is the mother-tongue of most residents of the Ikeja sub-

metropolitan area? Similarly, the issue of the language of the immediate community again acknowledged by Omojuwa, has not been adequately addressed.

With regard to the development of Nigerian languages as MI, previous work has identified problems of poor, non-uniform implementation of language policy (Emenanjo, 1990). Divergent reasons have also been given for the haphazard manner in which the policy is implemented. They range from "the formidable roles and functions of English which pervade the entire country, the relative underdevelopment of Nigerian languages for educational purposes, the lack of political will, poor planning, ethnicity, etc. Nigeria's linguistic and cultural diversity, the democratic impulse, to the international pull" (Ihebuzor, 1993; Adekunle, 1989; Brann, 1989; Emenanjo, 1990; Essien, 1990; Bamgbose, 1992).

In a recent paper entitled "Nomadic Education and Language Policy Implementation in Nigeria"; Ndukwe (1998) lamented the inconsistent and systematic manner in which educational language policy in Nigeria was implemented. He expressed the need for the National Commission for Nomadic Education (NCNE) to actively involve itself in the development of the numerous languages of education that were relevant to the Nomadic Education Programme. These languages are inadequately developed in terms of graphicization, choice of standard varieties and vocabulary for use as media of instruction and subjects of study in primary education and adult literacy.

Historical factors have also played a key role in shaping language education policies. Bamgbose (1991) has observed that colonial practice has given pride of place to the European languages, while the role of African languages was limited to initial literacy, MI at lower levels, and/or taught as subjects at primary or higher level as well as for adult literacy. Bamgboseconcluded that any change must accord African languages a greater role. Meanwhile, some African countries have embarked on various experiments on the use of the mother tongue in primary schools. The focus of such experiments has been to expand the MT use as MI to the entire primary course and beyond as in the case of Swahili and Somali in Tanzania and Somalia respectively. Secondly, experimentation without policy backup, for example, Wolof in Senegal and Yoruba as Ml for primary education in the Ife Project in Nigeria (see Table 3) is commonplace in many of such African countries. Bamgbose (1991) is of the opinion that initially, literacy should be given in a letter of the alphabet that the child already knows. According to him, depending on factors such as state of development of the language, size of speakers and teacher availability, this language should continue to be used as a medium of instruction for as long as possible in primary education.

Table 2.0: Innovations in Mother Tongue Education in Primary Schools

STAGES	FULL MEDIUM	EARLY MEDIUM	INITIAL MEDIUM
3: Actual	Tanzania (Swahili) Somalia (Somali)	Mauritania (Arabic)	Guinea (Fulfulde, Manding, Susu Kisi, etc) Central African Republic (Sango) Madagascar (Malagasy) Nigeria (Rivers Readers Project)
2: Experimental	Nigeria (Yoruba)	Sierra Leone (Mende, Temne, Limba)	Cameroun (Ewondo, Duala, Fe'efe'e, Nso) Niger (Hausa, Zarma) Senegal (Wolof- Educational Television only)
1: Proposed	-	Mali (Bambara) Togo (Ewe, Kabiye)	Senegal (Wolof, Serer, Fulfulde, Dyola, Malinke, Soninke)

Source: Adapted from Bamgbose (1991).

Research evidence has recently shown that far from hindering learning and language development, the use of the MT enhances achievement (Krashen, 1996). Inspite of this, language education policy has been faced with a lot of problems associated with implementation. One of the problems in language education policy implementation has been identified as the inadequacy of instructional materials especially textbooks. According to Olaofe's (1989) study, the present - day English language class has ushered in new English textbooks. Some of these texts are fundamentally different from the ones used during the periods of the traditional methods and audio-lingual methods. Several of the textbooks have now embraced the eclectic approach. In Olaofe's words:

> In most of these texts, various language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing are integrated into one lesson. So also are the various approaches to language teaching (traditional, audio-lingual, cognitive-code theory, etc)? Still found deficient in many of them is the functional-notional communicative approach.

It is pertinent to note that the NCNE book development project took cognisance of this acclaimed deficiency by adopting the integrated approach to ensure that the objectives of CLT are achieved.

Another issue that has been investigated is the issue of multilingualism in schools. From observation and earlier surveys, it has been reported that most of the major ethnic groups in Nigeria and particularly Adamawa and Taraba States find themselves in multilingual environments (Omojuwa, 1983). Such situations often triggered off mixed usage of two or three languages and ad hoc actions rather than proven methodological procedures and practices (see Onyewotu, 1990) in many of the classrooms. In the words of Omojuwa:

> Mixed usage was widely used particularly in the first five years of primary education, irrespective of the medium policy underlying a school's instructional programme.

To quote Omojuwa again, the prevalent situation has unfolded distinct teacher practices, some of which could be disturbing. He found that communication strategy underlined the use of code-switching and block translation while the use of mixed speech pre-empted medium transition strategy (Omojuwa, 1983:289).

The issue of the language environment and the possible consequences for classroom practice will be discussed further in the relevant sections of this study.

2.2.3 English in Primary Schools in Nigeria

Education at this level is considered very important because it forms the foundation to all other levels. Most importantly, this study is based on the implementation of the language policy at the primary school level. Therefore, it is pertinent to provide a brief review of primary education in Nigeria based mainly on the provisions of the NPE on language education.

Educationists and historians have written abundantly on the state of the Nigerian primary school especially since the beginning of this century. It is observed that enrolment in primary schools has risen nation -wide. According to Falayajo et al (1997) "between 1990 and 1994 it is reported that total enrolment increased from 13,607,249 (7,729,677 boys, and 5,877,572 girls) to 16,190,940 (9,056,367 boys, and 7,134,580 girls), representing an increase of about 16.0 percent. Within the same period, the number of primary schools had risen from 35,443 to 38,649. Table 2.01 below in Falayajo et al (1997) shows the trend in primary school enrolment by sex from 1990 to 1994.

Table 2.01: Enrolment in Primary Schools by Sex (1990-1994)

Year	Gross Enrolment	Male	Female	% Female
1990	13,607,249	7,729,677	5,877,572	43.20
1991	13,766,854	7,741,897	6,024,957	43.76
1992	14,805,937	8,273,824	6,532,113	55.73
1993	15,870,280	8,930,600	6,939,680	56.30
1994	16,190,947	9,056,367	7,134,580	55.93

Source: Statistics Branch, Federal Ministry of Education.

In spite of the expansion at the primary education level, the literacy level remains low estimated at about 56% with women constituting 62% of the illiterate population. Female enrolment ratio in some states are put at 11 to

20% thereby enlarging the disparity in access that exists between boys and girls (Falayajo, et al 1977).

The unavoidable consequences of the overwhelming numbers is the inability of primary schools to provide the appropriate learning exposure for the pupils, in terms of the number of qualified teachers available, adequate and appropriate teaching/learning materials and sufficient classroom space.

The 1992 FME/UNICEF Situation and Policy Analysis (SAPA) on basic education revealed the general decline in the learning environment of public schools, as an appreciable proportion of which had no conventional accommodation. It is reported that about 2.50% of the public schools operated under tree-shades, 47.0% of schools had inadequate furniture, 36% had no writing materials, while majority (about 77%) had no textbooks, (Falayajo, et al 1997).

In the area of the provision of sufficient and appropriate teaching/learning materials for primary education many studies have revealed that the condition of the Nigerian classroom is frighteningly appalling. In his study of teaching/learning materials, Ogunbi (1987) summarised the picture thus:

a) In large measure, teachers neither produce nor use them;

b) The most popular aids are chalk, blackboard and the monotonous teacher's voice;

c) Most schools have no libraries or stores for keeping materials;

d) Teachers are not adequately trained in educational technology; and

e) No incentive by way of remuneration is given for the time spent and materials purchased.

2.2.4 The Nomadic Education Programme in Nigeria

Since the inception of the nomadic education programme in 1990, the NCNE has modestly implemented the broad goals of the programme, which are aimed at meeting the basic education needs of the migrant communities in Nigeria. There are two broad categories: the nomadic pastoralists, whose population is estimated to be 7.2ml; and artisanal migrant fishermen, whose population is put at 2.8ml people (Tahir, 1999). According to the brief, the nomadic pastoralists are made up of the Fulɓe who form the largest group (5.3ml). They are found in 31 out of the 36 states of the Federation while the Koyam, the Badawi and Dark Buzzu are mainly found in the Borno plains and the shores of Lake Chad. The migrant fishermen found along the Altantic coastlines, the riverine areas of Southern Nigeria, as well as the river basins make up the second category of the programme's target group.

Of particular interest to this study is the fact that out of the estimated 10 million nomadic people in Nigeria, 3.6 million are children of school going age. Consequently, it has been observed that the participation of the nomads in existing formal and non-formal educational programme was abysmally low with a literacy rate of 0.2% to 2.0% (Tahir, 1999).

The non-relevance of the school curriculum and the issue of the language of instruction have been affirmed as some of the major constraints to the implementation of the programme (Ndukwe, 1998). It is explained that the

National Curriculum which was tailored to meet the needs of sedentary groups invariably ignored the educational needs of nomadic peoples (Tahir, 1999). This was essentially what necessitated the Federal Government intervention which led to the establishment of the NCNE by Decree 41 of 12th December 1989. The enabling decree mandated the Commission to provide **relevant** and **functional** basic education to the nomadic pastoralists and fishermen's children. In pursuit of this goal, the Commission;

i. Developed/adapted curricula for level 1-6 in eight subjects viz: English, Mathematics, Primary Science, Social Studies, Fulfulde, Islamic Religious Knowledge, Health Education and Handicraft for the nomadic pastoralists schools.
ii. Developed pupil's text for levels 1-6 in the eight subjects for the nomadic pastoralist schools;
iii. Conducts annual teacher training workshops specifically to orientate them on the peculiarities and expectations of the nomadic education curriculum;
iv. Developed Curricular Guides in the four core subjects viz; English, Mathematics, Primary Science and Social Studies for the education of the children of migrant fishermen.

According to the 1999 NCNE Monitoring Report, there were 1,356 nomadic primary schools in 34 states and Abuja with 4,328 teachers and an enrolment figure of 162,002 pupils, out of which 65,789 were girls representing 41% of the total enrolment. The parity rate showed an increase from 54% in 1990 to 85% in 1998. It is further reported that enrolment in nomadic primary

schools has increased by 17,670 in 1991 and 37,010 in 1998 representing an increase of about 24%(see Table 2.02).

TABLE 2.02: PUPILS ENROLMENT IN PASTORAL AND MIGRANT FISHERMEN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN NIGERIA (1990-1999)

Year	No. of Participating States	No. of Schools	No. of Teachers	Enrolment		
				Male	Female	Total
1990	18	329	879	13673	5068	18831
1991	22	473	1489	25942	10559	36501
1992	24	629	2491	33463	16689	50152
1993	25	656	2365	38335	15253	53588
1994	25	754	2822	42738	19094	61832
1995	29	860	2788	56759	35751	92510
1996	29	940	2915	63638	40938	104576
1997	35	1103	3265	71695	47081	118776
1998	35	1323	4218	89931	65855	155786
1999	35	1352	4328	96213	65789	162002

Source: Monitoring, Evaluation & Statistics Department (NCNE) Kaduna.

One of the major problems, apart from under-funding and late release of approved funds, confronting the programme is the dearth of teachers in terms of quantity and quality. That is to say that there are only 4,208 teachers for 1,321 schools (a ratio of about 3 teachers per school) 60% of whom lack the minimum requisite teaching qualification prescribed by government. A breakdown of the distribution of teachers, by qualification is presented in Table 2.03.

TABLE 2.03: STATISTICS OF TEACHERS, BY QUALIFICATION 1990 - 1997

Year	No. of Teachers	QUALIFIED					UNQUALIFIED			
		NCE & Above	GR II Pass	H.I.S	Total	%	GR II Referred	Others	Total	%
1990	886	57	359	70	486	54.8	243	157	400	45.2
1991	1,489	39	439	136	613	41.2	310	566	876	58.8
1992	2,491	50	609	213	872	35	425	1,194	1,619	65
1993	2,362	65	434	124	623	26.4	293	1,446	1,739	73.6
1994	2,919	107	584	143	834	28.6	450	1,635	2,085	71.4
1995	3,170	192	1,068	161	1,421	44.8	712	1,037	1,749	55.2
1996	2,919	216	1,045	139	1,390	47.6	695	834	2,224	52.4
1997	3,355	296	1,089	178	1,563	46.6	750	1,042	1,792	53.4

Source: Monitoring, Evaluation & Statistics Department (NCNE) Kaduna.

The report further noted that the incessant transfer of teachers to conventional primary schools by Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs) further compounds the problems faced by the programme. These notwithstanding, the report revealed that between 1992 and 1998, 28,769 nomadic children made up of 9,418 females and 19,351 males had successfully completed their primary education. 15,429 pupils, representing 54% of the total figure, gained admission into Junior Secondary Schools (see Table 2.04).

TABLE 2.04: RATE OF TRANSITION OF GRADUANDS OF NOMADIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS TO JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL/UNITY SCHOOL (1992-1998)

Year	Total No. of Graduates	No.Admitted	%	No.Not Admitted	%
1992	1,174	524	45	650	55
1993	1,541	742	48	799	52
1994	2,609	1050	51	1029	49
1995	4,430	2363	53	2067	47
1996	5,609	3090	55	2519	45
1997	6,304	3588	57	2716	43
1998	7,632	4072	53	3560	47
Total	28,769	15,429	54	13,340	46

Source: Monitoring, Evaluation & Statistics Department (NCNE) Kaduna.

2.2.5 Situation report on the Nomadic Education Programme in Adamawa and Taraba States

In this section a brief review on the state of the Nomadic Education Programme in the two focal states of this study based on NCNE Monitoring Reports between 1990-1999 is presented in this section.

The reports revealed that the Nomadic Education Programme was launched in 1989 in Yola, the state capital of the former Gongola State which was split into what is presently Adamawa and Taraba states. In 1990, there were 48 schools, 125 teachers and 2,255 pupils made up of 1,772 males and 483 females. It is observed in the reports that between 1991 and 1999, the number of schools increased from 32 to 51 in Adamawa State and 49 to 74 in Taraba State. Similarly, the number of teachers increased from 121 to 168 in Adamawa and 185 to 294 in Taraba State. Within the same period, enrolment figures had risen from 1,783 to 4,106 pupils in A damawa State and 1,524 to 2,731 in Taraba State. Furthermore, it is revealed that out of the 168 teachers

in Adamawa State, 21 are NCE holders, 120 are Grade II (Pass) while 12 are Grade II (Referred) holders. Other categories of teachers include 10 Higher Islamic Studies (HIS) certificate holders and 5 who are uncertificated (see Table 2.05).

TABLE 2.05: STATISTICS OF TEACHERS BY QUALIFICATION, IN ADAMAWA AND TARABA STATES (1999)

S/N	State	Participa-ting	Super-visors	No of Schools	No of Teachers	QUALIFICATIONS				
		L.G.A.				NCE	GDII P	GD II f	HIS	Others
1	Adamawa	19	7	51	168	21	120	12	10	5
2	Taraba	12	9	74	294	19	139	83	20	33
	Total	31	16	125	462	40	259	95	30	38

Source: Monitoring, Evaluation & Statistics Department (NCNE) Kaduna.

It is also observed in the reports that there was a steady increase in enrolment in the nomadic schools in the two states between 1991 and 1999. Accordingly, total enrolment in the schools increased from 2,255 to 13,678 representing an increase of about 83.5%. The report goes on to show that within the same period, the number of schools increased by 1.45% with 51 schools in Adamawa and 74 inTaraba States (see Table 2.06).

TABLE 2.06: ENROLMENT IN PASTORAL AND MIGRANT FISHERMEN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN ADAMAWA AND TARABA (1990-1999)

Year	State		No of Schools		No of Teachers		Enrolment					
							Male		Female		Total	
1990	Gongola		48		125		1772		483		2255	
	Adamawa	Taraba	Adamawa	Taraba	Adamawa	Taraba	Adamawa	Taraba	Adamawa	Taraba	Adamawa	Taraba
1991	"	"	32	49	121	185	1065	1524	718	1207	1783	2731
1992	"	"	43	54	183	200	2610	3402	1304	1701	3914	5103
1993	"	"	41	56	143	197	2001	5000	1116	1600	3117	6600
1994	"	"	47	56	185	202	2489	5233	1551	1870	4040	7103
1995	"	"	49	74	185	168	4911	2259	3061	1370	7972	3629
1996	"	"	49	74	168	168	4572	5081	3400	2891	7972	7972
1997	"	"	50	74	168	168	5689	5340	2283	3162	7972	8502
1998	"	"	51	74	168	228	2145	3537	1961	5715	4106	9252
1999	"	"	51	74	168	294	2145	4842	1961	2769	6067	7611

Source: Monitoring, Evaluation & Statistics Department (NCNE) Kaduna.

2.2.6 Language Policies and Practice in Primary Education

Within the past twenty years some linguists and pedagogues have looked critically at the happenings in the Nigerian primary school with the main aim of characterising one or several of the following features:

1. Teaching/Learning materials.
2. Incoming characteristics of the pupils.
3. Teacher's qualifications and their pedagogical inclinations.
4. Link between the home and the school.
4. Effects of MT on classroom teaching and pupils' learning [Aliyu (1984), Adeyanju (1985), Olaofe (1987), Aboderin (1987), Etim (1987), Omojuwa (1987), Ogunbi (1987)].

Probably one single issue in primary school education in Nigeria that is universally acknowledged as occupying a premium position but which in practice is put on the back burner is the medium of instruction problem. In examining the criteria for the choice of the mother -tongue as a medium as against a second language such as English, Adeyanju (1989) summarised the relevant argument by propounding these recommendations:

1. "Use as a medium of instruction that language which is the language of wider communication or that, which is most frequently learned as a second language (L2). Often this may turn out to be the mother - tongue of many students, depending on the location.
2. Choose the language with the largest body of L1 speakers, i.e., and one spoken by at least 10% of the total population. The aim is to benefit the largest number of pupils. John Stuart Mills' definition of the happiness of the greatest number (Utilitarianism, 1816) seems to apply here.
3. Select a language that has minimum language development (corpus planning), that is a long established writing system, a large diversified vocabulary, a literary tradition, available teaching materials or ones which can be easily developed, availability of teachers who can teach in the language.
4. Ensure acceptability of the mother - tongue, if using it in education is to be effective. But parents for various sociolinguistic reasons have sometimes rejected the use of their mother tongue, especially in the absence of economic, political and prestige value in the mother tongue. Parents also fear that their children may not be able to compete with others elsewhere if the focus is on a local language.

It has been suggested that the mother tongue should be discarded in such a case.

5. *Encourage or adopt a mother tongue if children drop out of school* specifically because a second language is being used. If not, there is not any educational reason to use it. Furthermore, when community attitude is fully supportive and adequate teaching materials, well-trained and highly motivated teachers are available, the use of the mother tongue is on its way to success" (Adeyanju, 1989).

Virtually all the above observations made with regard to the different areas apply to the normal primary schools as they do to the nomadic primary schools. In the case of nomadic schools, Ndukwe (1998) and Tahir (1998) observed that the absence of enthusiasm on the part of the pupils and the lack *of commitment among the teachers often worsen the condition.* Additionally, the other problem of limited qualification of teachers has equally extended to nomadic teachers where the failed grade II are often recruited from the LGA's to teach in nomadic schools (Ugwanyi, 1996). More importantly, teachers are not likely to show interest in the language much less teach in them (Okonkwo, 1983). Furthermore, the use of inappropriate methodology by the teachers was a common feature in the schools. There was the prevalent habit to make the learners to commit to memory certain definitions pertaining to English. Olaofe (1987) puts it succinctly:

> As early as the pupils were in primary education, they were expected to identify, analyse and categorize syntactic structures into their various parts of speech based on the traditional *grammar approach.*

In comparing the audio-lingual with the traditional method, Olaofe (1987) identified the greatest weakness common to both as the absence of authentic language improvisations that would have assured the promotion of pupil-centred activities.

From the above and similar observations, it could be said that the efforts of the primary school teachers and their pupils were directed at knowing about the language, and not language use. This emphasis on linguistic competence is equally at variance with the new directions in language teaching (LT) which stress communicative competence as the goal of instruction. The development of communicative language teaching (CLT) owes a lot to the seminal works of Hymes (1972) and Widdowson (1972).

According to Hymes (1972) before any such communication can take place, language is structured in such a way that communicative competence is demonstrated. Such competence is the one which denotes an ability to function in socio-cultural setting using language (Hymes, 1972; Widdowson, 1978) Littlewood, 1981. The major components of this strategic competence include knowledge of rules that govern language use and all other non-verbal features like turn-taking, eye –contact and head nods (Spencer, 1973). Widdowson (1972) traces the erstwhile stress on linguistic competence to a matter of approach. He argues that the learners need more the ability to communicate and less the ability to construct sentences. He believes that this will lead learners to communicate by encouraging them to perform certain acts of a social nature through the use of language.

Thus, the emphasis on the performative acts. His argument is that:

> We do not communicate by composing sentences, but by using sentences to make statements of different kinds, to describe, to record, to classify and so on, or to ask questions, make requests, give orders. Knowing what is involved in putting sentences together correctly is only one part of what we mean by knowing a language, and it has very little value on its own. It has to be supplemented by knowledge of what sentences count as their normal use as a means of communicating.

Ihebuzor (1997:206) has observed that CLT arose because of the general dissatisfaction with the method and achievement of the grammar - based method (GBM). According to him, GBM is focused on "inculcating linguistic competence and knowledge of grammatical rules" while CLT is essentially focused on imparting actual communicative skills.

2.3 English as a second language at primary school level

As far back as 1972, many studies had examined some of the important factors in English language teaching at all levels, starting from primary through secondary up to the tertiary level. White (1972) stresses that our objectives in English language teaching should follow the lines demarcated by the questions posed below:

1) The extent to which English is known in the country as a whole (How many speakers?)
2) The ways in which it is used (What purpose?)
3) The form (or forms) of the language most commonly employed (What kind or kinds?)
4) The attitudes of the community towards the acquisition and use of English (Why learn it?)

2.3.1 The Use of English as a Medium of Instruction

Many scholars have made arguments regarding the use of English. Schmied (1996) summarizes four arguments, E_1 - E_4 in favour of English as a medium of instruction (MI) and four A_1 - A_4 in favour of African languages as Medium of Instruction (MI) against the backdrop of the position of English in education, especially in Africa. These arguments are summarised as follows:

E_1"High cost" Argument

As a result of the high financial implication of funding education in many third world countries, changes in the educational system have often been avoided. Such changes often affected the curriculum, teacher training programmes as well as the production of instructional materials.

E_2"Anti-tribal" Argument

It is argued that not all citizens, except in rare cases, share a common MI. For example, in countries like Somalia and Nigeria, English becomes an ethnically neutral language of communication. It was for such situations that proposals have been made for an African lingua franca, e.g. Swahili.

E_3"Technological" Argument

Here, a case was made against the lack of modern terminology in most African languages to accommodate scientific and technical fields. Conscious efforts to allow vocabulary expansion and propagation are threatened by enormous cost for developing these languages. It was recommended that African languages need rapid modernisation so that they can acquire

appropriate technical and scientific vocabulary that can support the national curriculum for primary schools.

E_4"International Communication" Argument

Globalisation has earned English the pride of place of being used as a common language for world-wide communication in spite of the radical efforts to develop an artificial world language. That notwithstanding, the question was asked how many Africans are really a part of this international web to warrant English such status?

Counter arguments for English as an international language (EIL) rather than English as a second language (ESL) are also presented.

A_1 "Psycholinguistic" Argument

Based on evidence from psycho-linguistic studies, which show that a child's cognitive development was better enhanced through the MT, great support was given for the mother tongue for fuller development. It was further shown that this is only necessary for early educational development where literacy was achieved in the MotherTongue.

A_2 "Elitist" Argument

It is believed that English in education is an added advantage to children in Nigeria who come from English-speaking homes. Language through English was the vogue and was the in-thing early of the century. But it is also argued that this benefits only a very select few while excluding a majority of African children.

A_3 "Linguistic Imperialism" Argument

As a result of the colonisation of African countries, European languages were imposed on them. Even after independence it is observed that most African countries have not gained their linguistic freedom to enable them assert their indigenous languages. Subsequently, English has developed into a true world language. The political and economic importance of English language teaching to Britain has been explicitly stated in the policy statements of the British Council. The outcome of the British Council's project English 2000 has clearly shown that English remains the preferred language for international communication, thereby strengthening the Council's global promotion of English language teaching (Bowers, 1994). In response to this, Phillipson (1992), using ELT as an example, has labelled the spread of English as linguistic imperialism, which he believes, can be countered through language planning policies. Linguistic imperialism is defined as the dominance of English which is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages"(Philipson, 1992:47).

It is further explained as the exertion of power in favour of English that has led to the neglect of other languages in national language policies and education systems.

Phillipson claims that arguments have been used to:

a) Persuade people of the superior merits of English.

b) Promise goods and services to those who use English: (education, science, technology, progress, accesses to world markets).

c) Support covert threats against maintaining local languages: (e.g. Internal division of conflicts over language, resource costs, difficulties in learning English problems in the world market) (Bourne, 1996 in 96:265).

Furthermore, it is observed that in multilingual settings, English should be in a position of equality with other languages: it should be part of the available linguistic competence on which people may draw for their own purposes (Bourne, in Mercer and Swan, 1996:265). Bisong (1995) has also observed that in Nigeria, as in other countries, parents wishing their children to learn English because it opens up new opportunities do so simply because they want to ensure a good future for their children. He goes on to argue that it should not mean replacing the first language.

On the contrary, Annamalai (1986) claims that English helps maintain divisions and hierarchies within a country: it is used for elite formation and preservation, intra - national and international links between elites, and international identity (Annamalai, 1986). Bourne (1996) agrees with Annamalai's position and observes that the introduction of English into schools works to exclude rather than to include. It also legitimizes differences in economic wealth through an appearance of providing equal opportunities, where in fact one class stands to gain from possessing the cultural capital of easy access to English in the home.

Rogers (1990) caps it all and claims that if the aim really is access to educational opportunity, progress is more likely to be achieved by education in local languages.

A_4 "Cultural Alienation" Argument

English has succeeded, through education in alienating many an African child from its cultural background. It is observed that many features of modern 'western' international life have been successfully incorporated into modern African life. Aliyu (1972) observes that the main weakness of education is the fact that it has not been contextualized. Ideas and thoughts and even technology are imported from the developed countries. Consequently, the aspirations of the learners are for goals that are definitely not Nigerian. This situation was said to be what makes English a more natural language than a Nigerian language as a medium of education. It is pertinent to note here that all Nigerian heads of state, ministers, doctors, teachers, lawyers use English. It has been proven, especially in literature, that it is possible to use English if "adapted" appropriately. It was suggested that, in choosing a realistic linguistic medium for African and indeed Nigerian education, a compromise solution to the problem which will take into consideration the multilingual situation in most African countries, and particularly Nigeria, needs to be worked out (Phillipson, 1992).

2.4 The Mother Tongue Issue in Education (MTM)

Fishman (1989) defines a mother tongue as the expression of the primary identity of the human being. Accordingly, it was the language through which a person perceives the surrounding world and through which initial concept formation takes place. It is also propounded that it is through the MT that the child was slowly socialised into a system of beliefs and practices. Consequently, it was concluded that the MT was that language, the loss of which resulted in the loss of rootedness in traditions.

Empirical evidence on the use of the mother tongue in education, as against a second language remains inconclusive. Fasold (1984: 298-99), summarising research evidence regarding the superiority of the MT, concluded that, forty-five years and numerous studies after the publication of the UNESCO Report, the unanimous opinion seemed to be that nobody knows whether using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction was better than a second language or not. In the case of Africa and indeed Nigeria, the multi-lingual situation further compounds the dilemma regarding the choice of the language of instruction at the primary level. This dilemma further resulted in the adoption of the "compromise" policy being promoted by most African countries and particularly Nigeria (see NPE, 1981) except, for example, in Kenya, Zambia, and at an earlier period in Nigeria, where a "Straight for English" policy was adopted. Based on this consideration of the relative success of various bilingual programmes Phillipson, Skutnabb-kangas and Africa (1986) sketch a model of bilingual programmes and consider their relative success in various cases. They

go on to apply these principles to argue that the decision to use English as the official language in Namibia must be balanced by a policy of extensive use of the MT. Looking at Phillipines' "one nation, one language" policy, Smolicz (1986) also claimed that "attempts to impose one language on all groups are destructive and divisive and the adoption of a lingua franca or an official language need not involve the rejection of other minority languages". It is instructive to note that the reverse is indeed the case in India, Tanzania and even the Phillipines. We should also consider the imposition of English, French and Portuguese in several parts of the world.

Against the background of the relationship between policy and practice, Paulston (1982) argues for the need to base language policy decisions on the best possible understanding of the social and economic context. Pattanayak (1986) goes further to assert that MT education was a fundamental human right and outlined pragmatic reasons for its usefulness and economic value. One must caution here that parental choice could tilt towards an international language with high market value. Melanie and Mikes (1996) suggest a powerful model to investigate the congruence of language instruction policy to children's home situation and to social policy. Similarly, McLaughlin (1984) traces debates on initial instruction and concludes that although MT instruction is necessary, it must be combined with L_2 learning. Bento (1986) examined issues of the revival of Irish as a national language in Ireland and the effort in New Zealand to reverse the trend of Maori language loss in order to illustrate how claims for Ethno-linguistic identity can transcend pragmatic concerns. The case of the

b) Education in L1 assists to develop Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP).

c) Continued L1 development is said to have practical benefits as it helps to develop a healthy sense of biculturalism.

d) Proficiency in two languages has positive effects on achievement

e) Primary language instruction enhances self-concept.

f) Students' ability to speak, understand, read and write their native language is an asset.

g) Students' knowledge on retention of the histories and cultures of their people becomes enhanced through bilingual programmes.

h) Promotion of an English/Fulfulde/Hausa bilingual/multicultural society in some parts of Nigeria will impinge on development of other sectors.

I) Re-emergence or promotion of students' sense of their common Nigerian citizenship can be brought about.

j) Encouragement of the students' sense of cosmopolitan, global citizenship.

k) Promotion of, and advancement of linguistic, ethnic - and racial Minority teachers and teachers aid.

l) Facilitation of the balance of power among classes and ethnic groups in Nigerian society. (Ure 1981; Cummins 1982; Krashen 1985; Adeyanju 1989; Odlin 1989; Lessow -Hurley 1990 and Imhoff 1991).

Unlike Jibril (1990) Afolayan (1976), Bamgbose (1979), Mackey (1984), Adegbija (1989), and (1993), all see MT education as a means of ensuring that learners perform at their maximum ability and receive the necessary psychological support, which the medium of instruction can provide.

It has been posited that the child learns best in the MT because it was the child's natural language of early socialisation (Olagoke 1979). Chumbow (1990) argues that there is a natural flow and continuity if the home and school

language is the same. According to him, less time will be wasted on adjusting to school and the new language. UNESCO (1953) also put forth pedagogical, psychological and sociological arguments to assert the use of the MT in education. Similar arguments are also made by Olagoke (1979) to show how the MT in education not only facilitates a smooth transition from the home to the school but also makes learning faster. He gave a counter argument against the L2, which he claimed slows the child down because of the added task of learning the L2 as well as learning content through it. Olagoke maintained that putting the child through such a task violates the pedagogical principle of starting from the known to the unknown. In support of this argument, Fafunwa (1977) contended that the child suffers double jeopardy and this hampers his mental and social development. Le Page (1964), Jowitt (1953) reinforce the view that educating the child in a L2 divorces him/her from the culture because it invariably fails to relate education to his/her immediate experience and environment. From the foregoing, it can be clearly stated that for all intents and purposes the MT was the best medium of instructions especially at the primary school level.

2.5 Language Testing

First and foremost, all experts are agreed that a good test must meet certain basic criteria, e.g. validity of all kinds (content, concurrent, predictive validity, etc.) and reliability. The first, i.e. validity, measures effectively what it is intended to measure. In this case content validity is especially relevant because it measures the extent to which the syllabus has been comprehensively

covered by the test. Reliability measures the extent to which the test can be trusted to produce the same or similar result when administered to the same group of testees. In this regard, scorer reliability or the consistency of marking every time is especially important.

Language testing in general enables the teacher to know the extent to which teaching objectives stated in the syllabus skill areas learnt in any given course of study. In other words, due to the limitations of tests themselves, test results cannot be expected to always provide all of the needed information regarding school achievement. This last point is especially relevant in the Nigerian context where several inadequacies in the educational system and school environment compound the problem of interpreting achievement test results.

In addition to the above, it is pertinent to observe that there are no standardized national norms for school children in different classes and subject areas by which comparison can be made with any group of children in different parts of Nigeria. There are, for example, no reading and grammar or vocabulary achievement tests nation-wide. Thus, value judgements such as "good," "fair," "very poor" are likely to be subjective, depending on whether good private schools in an urban location or pupils in LEA schools in rural areas are being assessed. Another potentially misleading factor in interpreting achievement test results is the unfortunate confusion observed by Peter Strevens (1977) which equally applies to Nigeria, i.e. the tendency to focus more on the examination

syllabus and to teach or "coach" pupils to the test, rather than focussing on the actual teaching syllabus.

2.5.1 Testing Reading Comprehension and Structure

Part of the justification for using reading comprehension and structure or grammar tests in this present study lies in the fact that the most recent national assessment learning achievement of pupils in primary schools used similar yardsticks. It is for example, useful to ask just how minority pupils such as the nomadic children in Taraba and Adamawa states would compare with the trends observable in Falayajo et al.'s (1997) national assessment. We, therefore, now focus our attention on the specific factors related to these.

Benjamin Bloom (1984) has suggested three kinds of reading comprehension assessment:

(1) Literal or factual recall comprehension questions in which the focus is on testing the extent to which information is grasped. It provides a necessary basis for comprehension of interpretive kind;

(2) Interpretive or Inferential – in which the reader is expected to infer certain conclusion not stated directly in the text; it provides the foundation of reasoned evaluation.

(3) Evaluative – whereby the reader is expected to critically assess what the text contains and to relate it to his own experience. This is the most important type of reading comprehension in terms of the control it can give readers over their own lives within a literate society (Hill and Kate, 1988:60 –61).

Reading comprehension in Nigerian schools is heavily concerned with the first type of questions, i.e. literal ones, which are generally considered lowest in cognitive demand, i.e. recall of information only. The ability to use information provided in a given text and to take a definite critical stand requires not only the comprehension of that information but also the language proficiency to express one's views in one's own language. Many learners, even at university level lack these abilities, partly because their cultures tend to encourage unquestioned reception of adult statements. Schools are characterized by copying notes from authoritarian teachers, who themselves lack a critical attitude to texts generally. Tests containing Bloom's (1984) last two test categories, i.e. the inferential and evaluative, are therefore likely to produce poor results because pupils have not been taught to respond at that level.

2.5.2 Language Tests in Nigeria

Summary of the literacy skills test results reported by Falayajo et al.'s (1997) study, which are of particular interest to the present study, is reported in this review. The MLA study recorded the worst performance in the literacy test. It is reported that this was obvious even from casual observation during the fieldwork which showed that the competency level in English was very minimal. The National Mean score in this test was 25.2 percent which represents performance at a more or less chance level. Of particular interest to the present study is the finding that within the literacy test, performance in writing was the worst with a Mean score of 18.2, while reading comprehension

was highest with a Mean score of 39.2 percent. Similarly, the most devastating finding in the literacy test was the pupil's inability to copy accurately. Only 8.1 percent could completely copy correctly. 39.6% scored zero because they failed to copy one word or punctuation correctly.

By and large, language "achievement tests should measure clearly defined learning outcomes that are in harmony with instructional objectives."(Gronlund, 1982). To this end, items must be as comprehensive as representative as possible. Another issue raised by Harold Madsen (1983:87) is that of ensuring that comprehension test type matches the level of the learners. For example, question type for beginners who can only read simple passages may be mainly of the True/False and the Matching Technique types. True/False items are easier to prepare than open-ended items where learners have to match materials in the passage with materials in the questions, more or less like "copy work", in beginning writing classes. The questions and their answers are lifted right from the original passage. Only little comprehension is required in this regard. Older pupils may be asked multiple choice questions, using passages of increasing lengths, say up to 300 words with an estimated four questions per 100 words. Other forms of literal questions besides multiple choice may be paraphrasing or synthesising items whereby pupils integrate ideas sometimes from more than one sentence or the entire selection. Another variation of the literal type is the multiple choice cloze that requires testees to recognize the word needed to fill the gap. The test can be prepared easily and distracters taken from errors that have been most frequently observed in pupils.

2.6 Research Methods in Education

Before discussing empirical studies in primary language education, a brief review of research methods in language education, particularly the MT is perhaps necessary. While examining the role of research and education, Mouly (1978) (quoted in Cohen and Manion (1980:29) summarises the nature of research thus:

Research is best conceived as the process of arriving at dependable solutions to problems through the planned and systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data. It is the most important tool for data advancing knowledge, for promoting progress, and for enabling man to relate more effectively to his environment, to accomplish his purposes, and to resolve his conflicts. Brown (1988) categorised research in this area into primary research (collecting data by observing a group of students who are learning a language) and secondary research (collecting data from books about students who are learning a language) which are distinguished by their sources of information or data. Furthermore, Mc Donough and Mc Donough, (1997) have distinguished between two senses of the term research: Uncovering and perhaps reinventing the known world, and discovering new things. They are of the view that it is not always helpful to see various research methods as mutually exclusive forms of knowledge. Rather, the methodology used for a particular research undertaking may well combine facets of each (Mc Donough and McDonough, 1997:4-55).

Van Lier (1988:47) sets out the various types of research into two dimensions of control and structure which are expanded into four broad types:

Measuring and Controlling (structured) Watching and Asking/Doing (controlled). Under measuring, he classified surveys, coding and systematic observation, experiments, and quasi-experiments are classified under controlling; observation, case study, protocols, stories and diaries are lumped under watching, while action research, interviewing and elicitation are grouped under Asking/Doing.

According to Brown (1988:2), case studies and statistical studies are subdivisions of primary research. The former are usually longitudinal, that is, they study individual or individuals over a period of time while tracing some aspects of language development. Statistical studies, on the other hand, deal with both individuals and group phenomenon by considering a cross-section of possible behaviours at a particular point or at several points in time.

Surveys and experimental studies are also said to fall into two additional sub-categories of statistical studies. Whereas survey studies focus on a group's attitudes, opinions or characteristics, experimental studies investigate the language behaviour of groups under controlled conditions (Brown, 1988:2). Survey studies employ questionnaires which are distributed to a group of people so that substantial amounts of information can be collected in a relatively short time. On the other hand, the number who respond to a questionnaire may be low which raises the question of how representative the information collected

2.7 Empirical Studies in Primary Language Education

This section provides a brief review of a number of empirical studies on primary language education with special emphasis on Africa and particularly Nigeria. Ackers, J. & R. Matusse's (1995) study on "Language Choice in Mozambique and Senegal" was focused on the growing dilemma in the debate concerning which languages should be the medium of instruction and which should be taught as subjects in schools. Specifically, the study looked at how the official language in two former French and Portuguese colonies was being increasingly challenged by English and the implications of this challenge.

The findings of the study revealed that:

a) Language policy has been a key issue in most of the colonial states in Africa where only a few can boast of having a common language for the majority of the population.

b) Ethnic differences are still mirrored by linguistic differences. The language issue is still potentially a serious threat to national cohesion.

c) Independence from colonial control has not meant independence from linguistic dependency. Therefore, linguistic imperialism still remains an issue. Even in Tanzania where national languages were developed as MI, there has been a recent shift back to using the former colonial language.

d) Ex-colonial languages still have appeal as link languages at the national and international levels thereby sustaining the interest of the elites which may not necessarily reflect the needs of the country as a whole.

2.7.1. Attitudinal Studies

Etim (1985) surveyed the attitude of primary school teachers and headmasters towards the use of the MT as M1 in Plateau State. In the study respondents were drawn from rural and urban setting. Ethnic background of the respondents was also an independent variable in the study. His findings revealed that English ranked higher than Hausa and was preferred as M1 while Hausa, the lingua franca of Plateau state, ranked higher than the MT for speakers of five of the state's languages: Angas, Ankwai, Birom, Eggom and Tarok. The order of preference in terms of language choice was therefore: English, Hausa and MT. Surprisingly, it was the teachers who rejected the MT and Etim explained that the reason for the preferential choice of English and Hausa could be that "for both languages, materials to be used for instructional purposes are readily available". Whilst the reasoning for the rejection is considered logical, the present study advocates that instructional materials in the MT are developed to fully entrench its use in education. In a similar study, Ogbonna (1996) examined parental preference for medium of instruction for the primary level of education. The objective of the study was to show that parents like teachers, educational administrators and policy makers, should also be involved in the educational decision – making process in Nigeria. Based on the study's proposed five medium of instruction options, namely, English, mother tongue, regional/ community lingua franca, bilingual instruction, instruction in English, the mother tongue or regional or community lingua franca in all or selected subjects and mother tongue/regional lingua franca initially and English

later, 211 parents sampled were requested to indicate their preferred medium option. The samples were drawn from Zaria and Sabon Gari Local Government of Kaduna State. The major instrument used was a survey questionnaire that was supplemented with an oral interview with parents. Data obtained from the study were analysed using frequencies and percentages, while hypotheses postulated were tested for significance using Chi – square. The major findings of the study showed that English was the most preferred medium option for eight of the ten subjects, listed in the questionnaire, namely, mathematics, primary science, social studies and physical and health education. Other findings of the study revealed that the mother tongue was the most preferred option for teaching Nigerian Languages and Cultural Activities; No medium was preferred for exclusive use in primary education by an overwhelming majority of parents. Although Nigerian languages were rated low, in all cases, the mother tongue was rated higher than the lingua franca. A higher preference for a maintenance-oriented bilingual education, than a transitionally oriented one was expressed by the parents. The study also showed that gender and level of education did not significantly affect parental media preferences. Rather, the study showed that ethno - linguistic background and type of school attended (public, private, or both) affected parental media preferences. The study also showed that parental media preferences were not consistent with the prevailing language – in – education policy in Nigeria, implying that a uniform medium policy for the entire country is unrealistic.

The findings of the study also indicated that a pragmatic approach to the choice of the medium of instruction should be adopted.

Krashen (1990) reports on the 3 - year experiment, the Dade County study (Rossett, 1998:33), which sampled 508 limited – English students in 12 schools from grades K-2. Six of the schools were randomly assigned to provide content instruction (Mathematics, Science, and Social Studies) in Spanish; the other schools provided the content instruction solely in English using a curriculum designed for limited - English students (a structured Immersion approach). Student progress was assessed using a nationally formed, standardised test. Findings of this study showed that there was no difference in the pattern of achievement of students who were taught in the native language and those taught only in English. Other findings which are noteworthy are the findings that students who received instruction in the native language for only one year scored higher on the tests than students who were instructed in the native language for two or three years; all teachers were bilingual; student attitudes toward learning and toward school in general were comparable for both groups. The study showed that the best way to promote positive self-image and well being among minority students is to have teachers of the same ethnic, linguistic and racial background as the students. Although the present study shares this sentiment, it would rather uphold the views of Tiffen (1975), Porter (1980) and who believe that what these students need even more are the most competent and sensitive teachers, regardless of ethnicity.

2.7.2. The Six-Year Yoruba Project (SYYP) 1970-1977

To investigate the UNESCO (1953) statement that the child learns best in his mother tongue, the Ife primary project used Yoruba as a medium of instruction throughout the six years of primary education in what Fishman (1976) called a maintenance policy. The premise of the study was that the old system had failed to achieve permanent literacy and numeracy (Fafunwa et al, 1989). The project was based at the Obafemi Awolowo University (formerly University of Ife) and co-funded by the Ford Foundation. Its sole aim was to:

> Assess the effectiveness of teaching all primary school subjects, viz.: social studies, science, mathematics, Yoruba language arts and English as a second language in Yoruba, except English, which was to be taught by specialist teachers (Babalola, 1985).

Teaching and learning materials were produced in Yoruba and teachers trained to meet this objective. English was taught as a subject using trained "specialist" teachers and enriched materials to allay the fears of parents who felt that competence in English would be badly affected as long as parents continued to prefer English for their children because of its marketability. The experiment was said to have generated data that convinced the Project that "the African child will learn better and develop his talent faster if he is taught in his mother tongue". It also claimed that over three thousand students have passed through the Project with a good proportion of them completing post-graduate studies. In a reaction to this, Adeyanju (1985) stresses that the claim that the mother tongue is superior to education through the second language medium is based on non-conclusive evidence. In Adeyanju's own view, the pattern of

success can go in either direction. Evaluating the Ife Project, and stressing the important role of teachers, their pedagogic linguistic competence in particular, Afolayan (1976) observed that "even the most adequate books in the hands of inadequate teachers are practically useless". As it were, the provision of materials and the training of specialist teachers turned out to be the most productive aspect of the project. Since it was clearly stated that ESL problems were not associated with the English language but with the circumstances of its teaching (i.e. teachers, materials), what the project was really saying was that for successful mother tongue education and effective teaching of English as a second language, we need adequate trained bilingual teachers as well as suitable materials to reflect the distinct roles of the mother tongue and English. The Ife project thus underscores the critical role that the efficiency of teachers plays in any educational endeavour. Finocchiaro (1971) declared that "the teacher is the most important single - person - the important variable in the instruction process".

From the foregoing, one can see clearly that the Ife Project is an illustration of a possible maintenance model of bilingual education or the Postponed English Medium policy (PEM). Fafunwa (1989) and Bamgbose (1992) concluded that, given the will, financial and community support, Nigerian languages can be used and maintained as the media of education even for teaching science. Like the Yoruba experience it will enable these languages to cope with the new demands made upon them, therefore, making them viable instruments for instruction.

A strong case is made by the present study for the use of Fulfulde in the pastoralist schools and particularly in the two focal states.

2.7.3: The Rivers Readers Project (1983)

This is a typical example of an innovation in MT education involving the use of minority languages. Unlike the Ife Project, the Rivers Readers Project demonstrates the equality of languages, whether "major" or "minor", "large or small". According to Williamson (1983:4), it was sponsored by the then Rivers State Government and designed to introduce initial literacy in language/dialects spoken by small population of primary school children (Bamgbose 1991:89). This led to the production of primary school readers and other support teaching and learning materials in as many local languages of the state as possible. The aim was to use them as media of instruction for other subjects to enable children to begin reading in their own languages before learning English. Williamson (1983) reported that the Project produced fifty books, pamphlets and charts in over twenty languages in the state. She noted the multilingual situation in Rivers State where many people speak two, three or more local languages and observed that none of these languages are spoken widely enough to be generally acceptable to the extent that four languages were adopted for broadcasting: Ikwere, Izon, Kalabari and Kana. It is also because of this linguistic complexity that several languages of the immediate community were adopted for use in the school as well as in the church. Apparently, too, this was the genesis of the Rivers Readers Project.

Although the project enjoyed considerable local support, it had to restrict itself to "large" languages that have a well-established orthography. It failed to achieve its major aim that was to have every child first learn to read in his/her first language for the simple reason that these languages were not accorded much importance in the schools and teachers were not trained to teach in these languages. However, not only did it succeed in publishing teaching/learning materials in several local languages, it also harnessed community interest and participation. Consequently, the lesson to be learnt here is that, "it is not impossible to use even small languages in primary education if there is a willingness to devote time and effort to it. That a project of this kind demands the active support and encouragement of both the government and the owners of the language" (Williamson; 1976:153). Furthermore, the project has demonstrated the equality of languages, whether "large" or "small", to the extent that it is to the advantage of the child to learn as far as possible through the medium of his or her first language.

2.7.4 Tests of Learning Achievement

Against the backdrop of the perceived falling standards of education and the absence of a standardised yardstick for measuring the quality of primary school learning, the Situation and Policy Analysis (SAPA) (1993) and the *Monitoring of Learning Achievement (MLA) projects* were contracted under the 1991/95 FGN/UNICEF co-operative agreement programme with UNESCO as technical adviser. The findings of SAPA supported the need, as recommended within the Jomtien 1990 framework for national action to develop more

effective and reliable mechanisms for monitoring performance at the basic education level. On the other hand, MLA as a follow-up to this recommendation sought to develop standardised instruments for quality control. The MLA project was set in the primary sub-sector being the cutting edge of education where the foundation is laid for qualitative education. Consequently, its objective was to find the level of achievement of some primary school pupils in certain skills viz.: Numeracy, Literacy and Life Skills, paying particular attention to the effect of contextual variables such as teacher characteristics, their school as well as family background on the learning achievement of pupils. Learning achievement tested only in English, in the study, was seen to reflect the extent of exposure to formal education and school quality. Findings from the project were reported as general national results as well as results of sub-groups from the national sample. Pupil's responses to the questionnaire revealed that English was considered the best subject (64.3 percent); followed by reading (39.4 percent). Some of the reasons given for this were that "teacher teaches well ", "subject is not difficult and subject will help in gaining admission." It is recorded that except in English, most pupils did not have textbooks in most school subjects and 12.2 percent indicated that they lacked textbooks in all subjects completely. However, 78% of the pupils received at least one hour of extra coaching a day.

The study also revealed that 80% of the teachers in the sample had either a Teachers' Grade II Certificate or the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE). 10% percent of the teachers had no teaching qualification. Only 63.3% of the teachers had copies of the pupils' textbooks in English while only 37.9% had the

corresponding teacher's guide. Poor conditions of service and irregular payment of salaries were reported by 62.0 percent and 57.9 percent respectively as being the major factors affecting attitude towards teaching.

Unlike the nomadic schools, the average class size for the schools sampled were 40. Very few headmasters reported availability of charts/posters (15.1 percent), and maps (13.3 percent). Parents (25.6 percent) expressed displeasure with the inadequate teaching facilities and 11.7 percent complained about overcrowded classrooms. Furthermore, 67.5 percent of the parents reported that they arranged for extra lessons for their children after school hours. Less than 50 percent of them provided textbooks for any of the subjects.

On the whole, it is concluded that the very low- level achievement observed was largely due to the very low- level literacy competence on the part of the pupils. Though not necessarily a study of language education at primary level, the project has revealed convincing evidence to show the decline in the quality of teaching and learning at primary level which happens to be the underlying thought of this present study as well.

2.7.5 Studies on Language Use

Various scholars have conducted a number of studies on language use in Nigeria. One of such studies is a 1978 study on the use of Hausa focussed on selected primary schools in Zaria described by Adeyanju (1983). The study found that there was varied practice in terms of the use of Hausa. There were two sets of schools: the first set were the schools where Hausa was used as a medium of instruction and belonged to the Local Education Authority (L.E.A).

The pupils were mainly Hausa –speaking children. On the other hand, there were also those schools that had a mixture of native and non- native speakers of Hausa.

Meanwhile, Dada (1986) surveyed language use involving Yoruba and English both in and out of the classroom by teachers in some primary schools in Oyo State. Findings of the study showed greater use of Yoruba especially in such out-of-classroom activities such as prayers, announcements, sending pupils on errands and discussing pupils personal problems with them than English. The two languages used in classroom instruction were English and Yoruba. It was found that English was used more than Yoruba in classes four to six. For example, there was a ratio of 89% to 11% uses for English than Yoruba respectively. However, there was an obvious dominance of Yoruba in the lower classes. The study also found that more English was used for written activities than for oral activities. Dada's study showed that more English and less Yoruba was used in the upper classes; but more Yoruba and less English in the lower classes. This finding is in keeping with the provision of the policy regarding the use of the MT in the lower classes (1-3) and English in the upper classes (4-6).

In a related study, Olorunselu (1993) conducted a study on language use in a number of primary schools in Zaria and Sabon Gari areas of Kaduna State. Findings of the study revealed that rural and urban schools where Hausa is the dominant language used Hausa as a MI in the first three years. Typically, the "Straight for English" approach adopted in some schools in Sabon Gari Town and the ABU staff school in Samaru is in response to the diverse linguistic

backgrounds of the children. Interestingly, it is reported that in one of the schools in Sabon Gari, Hausa was the predominant language of instruction and was interpreted into English for the benefit of the non-Hausa speakers. These findings are possibly an indication of the case of mismatch between policy and practice, among others, and which may be traceable to the neglect of the peculiar needs of schools and communities. This present study should shed additional light on this problem.

Bamgbose (1991), reports of Walusimbi's study which showed that long periods of English teaching did not necessarily result in greater mastery. Rather, the teacher factor was more important than the length of English teaching or even materials. Like the present study, Walusimbi (1972) used a test of competence, administered together with a questionnaire, to selected schools in Uganda. He found that, in spite of the concentration on English teaching and its use as a medium of instruction, no significant differences were recorded between reading competence in English and in an indigenous language (Walusimbi, 1972:123-142).

Aliyu (1977), in an attempt to provide new and relevant insights into the subtle characteristics of Nigerian languages, conducted a study to find out the degree of multilingualism amongst Nigerian pupils whom he describes as both the "carriers" and "victims" of multilingualism. The objective of the survey was to establish the number of individuals who are competent in at least two Nigerian languages plus English. There was no assumption that every Nigerian school child speaks English. Three different methods are employed in this study.

These include interviews to identify the socio-linguistics trials that typify inter-personal contact. Attempts were also made to ensure adequate coverage of pupils and students in various settings and context. Accordingly, research assistants who were socially close to the subjects conducted these interviews. To clarify the actual depth of multilingualism observations were carried out to establish how much and in what situations the subjects used the different languages they understand. Specific attitudinal trends were measured using various strands of inquiry.

Additionally, questionnaires were distributed to twenty-five schools in five states (Kano, Kaduna, Plateau, Benue and Kwara) including only two primary schools in each of the states. The first and second years of all the post-primary institutions were used in the study. A 69% questionnaire response was achieved. The findings revealed that 73.76% of the school population claimed to know at least three languages - two indigenous ones plus English. 12.17% pupils confirmed they knew at least two languages including English. On the other hand, 14.05% stated they knew only one language. Interestingly, the figures reduced drastically when the level of proficiency in the languages was considered suggesting that most multilinguals are just functional ones. Only 49.27% indicated that they could read and write in at least three languages including English. 27.53% were not sure whether they were literate multilinguals while 12.73% positively confirmed they were not literate in any of the indigenous languages they knew but were in English. Aliyu explains that the limited knowledge of especially the indigenous languages might be due to the

non- existence of the written form of the languages in question or the degree of contact with and use of the indigenous languages claimed to be known (Aliyu, 1977:66).

In considering whether official government policy had provided the natural setting for multilingualism or not, it was revealed that 6.75% replied that the acquisition of several languages was due to the policy adopted by the schools they attended. The low number is said to suggest that pupils strayed away from institutions that overtly stated a medium of instruction that was unattractive to them. Other factors responsible for the acquisition of several languages included home background (58.10%) and education history (35.13%). To establish the relationship between language and culture, 42.02% revealed that they had acquired certain cultural traits of the speakers of the other indigenous languages that they know; 27.55% did not know whether they had or had not and 30.43% asserted that they had not. Attitudes as significant determinants in language learning and frequency of use were also measured by the survey. It revealed that, 30.28% of the pupils confirmed they detested others' cultural traits, 44.92% were not sure what their own feelings were while 24.78% knew they certainly did not detest others' ways of life (Aliyu, 1977:67).

2.7.6 Studies on Programmes for Special Groups

Lar (1985) represents the first large- scale empirical study into the area of nomadic education as a special group in Nigeria, which is relevant to this study. It was an analytical case study of nomadic education in Plateau State that attempted to identify pitfalls, inadequacies or successes of the project in Plateau

State with a view to modifying it. However, it did not focus on any specific curriculum issue such as curriculum development, teacher efficiency, pupil's performance, approach to education, other educational provisions (adult constraints of the project). The study covered 3 local government areas where experimental schools were set up. Questionnaires, tests in English, Maths, Social Studies and Health Science and observation methods were used by the study. The findings of the study showed that the policy did not indicate the point at which the project was to be evaluated. It also indicated that policy did not provide for research, evaluation and adult participation. Similarly, the findings showed that teachers, particularly the Fulɓe, were found to be more committed than the non-Fulɓe teachers are. It also revealed that pupils were interested in school and showed signs of progress in learning. Their highest score was in English (86.3). Although the curriculum met the needs of nomadic children – culturally, academically and socially, it did not include PHE and Religious Knowledge. The study reported that there was lack of textbooks in most subjects perhaps due to financial constraints that were the bane of the programme. However, the project enjoyed parental support and that the parents favoured mobile schools. Finally, although the teacher-training programme was well designed and implemented, the teachers were not involved with the Adult Education Programme. Some of the recommendations of the study included the need for evaluating the project at each of the phases. Additionally, it recommended the maintenance of the mobile schools and the adoption of the shift system to enable all children to benefit from the project. It also

recommended that children who go on long-term herding should be given assignments and issued with identity cards.

Of interest to this study is the finding that the language of instruction in the nomadic schools was Hausa and English instead of Fulfulde. Consequently, the study recommended that Fulfulde should be used in the first three years and English taught as a subject. The study revealed some of the reasons given for not using Fulfulde which included the non-availability of Fulfulde teachers, the lack of initiative and lack of proficiency to use Fulfulde as a language of instruction. As a result of this, the language policy as stipulated by the NPE could not be implemented.

The central role of teacher competence in the implementation of LE policy has been stressed in the Ife (1970) and Lar (1985). Studies. Imasuen (1989) examines this area in greater depth. The study surveyed the necessary bilingual teacher competencies and the development of primary bilingual teacher's preparation programme. The study identified 33 competencies in four categories which were administered to five groups of respondents totalling 230 i.e. Grade II Teachers, College Tutors (22), Primary School Supervisors (15), ATC Lecturers (31), NCE Students in Kano and Zaria (102), Primary School Teachers (62). The 33 competencies were categorized into those considered by respondents as essential, desirable nor essential. Chi - square was applied at the .05 level of significance by the study. The findings of the study showed that the null hypothesis was accepted for the 21 competencies for which there was cumulative agreement among all of the five groups. That is, the competencies were either

essential (13) or desirable (8). Of the four competencies, the language and pedagogy competencies were rated higher than the cultural and community relations ones were. Within the group analysis revealed that the highest level of agreement (51%) was evident among the lecturers while the Grade Two tutors registered the lowest level of agreement (33.3%). About (50%) of the respondents indicated that they spoke as many as three languages while 10% percent spoke as many as six thereby confirming Nigeria's multilingual situation. The study recommended the of a pilot BE teacher's preparation programme; redesigning the existing teacher preparation to include BE courses; properly defining the goals and objectives of bilingual education in a revised National Policy of Education specifying the type of BE for Nigeria (transitional or maintenance). For further research, the study recommended the study of selected primary teacher preparation programs for effectiveness of products. Additionally, it suggested a study of the language needs of primary school using classroom interaction analysis.

A study of the effect of medium transition on the educational achievement of the Primary School pupils, from L_1 to L_2 use and a comparison of the educational outcome of transitional and maintenance bilingual programs; evaluation of a competency – based teacher education model of pupils is also recommended (Imasuen, 1989:302-303). Teacher Education Programme based on the identified essential and desirable competencies obtained in the 33- item instructions under the following four components; namely, a review of the NCE

program, the training model; a Bilingual Education Studies (BES) syllabus and a course implementation plan should also be established.

2.8 Summary and Implications of the Reviewed Literature

The literature review covered the following broad areas: general language policy planning, its determinants, its implementation and enabling contexts; language in primary education policies and practice; language testing; research methods and empirical studies in language education particularly at the primary school level. Within this broad framework, the context in which language in education policies are formulated and implemented showed how such policies and practices have affected minority languages especially at the primary school level. Language in education policies and implementation are seen as a reflection of the status, roles and relationships between languages and their speakers. Language policy is also considered as the pre-occupation with communication both at the internal and international levels. This is borne from the recognition of the importance of language in the pursuit of societal goals of development, classification, mobilization, nationism and nationalism.

Language roles in society, especially in multilingual and diglossic contexts, were reviewed, including societal bilingualism and the necessity for choice. The review also stressed the fact that it is status planning that determines code planning. The importance of demography, especially the role of population in the under developed status of minority languages, is also highlighted. LP issues such as LWC, LIC, LF and how they act forward in influencing the implementation of language in education policies were also

brought to the fore. Standardization, lexical expansion, codification, installation, etc. are the dimensions of corpus planning, which were considered by the review.

Language in education being the main thrust of this study and particularly as it affects MLs such as Fulfulde, the role of attitude in language survival is also considered. Language policy in Nigeria, its provisions, interpretations, and the actual attempts that have been made to implement it, the relevance, nationality and even equity of the policy as well as the arguments that have been advanced on MT education were also reviewed. This section of the review also briefly looked at the constraints in the implementation of this policy, bearing in mind the important role and status of English in Nigeria. Again, arguments that were put forward on the ground of language size, cost or pragmatic considerations to retain English as the MI in post primary three were also discussed.

The review also examined research methods in education, why researchers adopted particular methods/strategies and with what results. This led to the discussion of reports on empirical studies in language in education in Africa and particularly Nigeria. The reviewed studies that were relevant to the present study included those concerned with textbooks, teacher supply, attitudes, environment, finance, administrative ineptitude, etc as factors in the success or failure of the implementation of the language provisions of the National Policy on Education. The review glossed over the problems of primary education, including the special intervention programme for nomadic peoples in

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Research Design

This study seeks to examine the implementation of language education policy and practice at the primary school level. Specifically, it is a composite study with primary focus on performance of Fulfulde and English bilingual children and teachers, particularly in reading comprehension and grammar, in nomadic primary schools in Adamawa and Taraba States. This is supplemented by a survey of state of the art use of Fulfulde in primary education.

This chapter describes the research design and procedures used in this study. The population, sampling technique, research instrument design, validation, and administration as well as the methods of data analysis are briefly described in it.

3.1 Sample

3.1.1 Description of sample population

The sample for this study was primarily made up of primary school pupils and teachers in Adamawa and Taraba States whose mother tongue is Fulfulde and who have acquired basic literacy skills. The two states were selected as the population of this study mainly because there is a relatively high concentration of Fulfulde speaking populations. This rural-based population was selected inorder to capture a linguistically homogenous population that satisfies the required geographical spread.

3.1.2 Description of sample and sampling procedure

For the purposes of this study, the sample was made up of two groups. The first was the sample of pupils and teachers who were administered each of the two sets of reading comprehension and grammar tests. The sample of pupils and teachers were drawn from class five in twenty-three nomadic primary schools in Adamawa and Taraba states. Purposive sampling was used for the selection of the schools for testing. This selection was guided by the fact that the sample includes pupils and teachers both male and female who speak Fulfulde as a first or second language. Secondly, the pupils should have acquired basic reading abilities in Fulfulde and English. This will ensure a full range of scores that could be used for the correlation tests as well as to avoid any sample bias that might affect the findings of this study.

3.2.0 Pupils

A purposive sampling approach was adopted in selecting the pupils based on Baker (1989). Essentially, the researcher handpicked the pupils to be included in the sample on the basis of their typicality (Cohen& Manion, 1980). By so doing the researcher was able to satisfy the specific needs of this study. This involved identifying all nomadic primary schools in these two states. In doing this, the researcher sought to ensure that there was parity/equality in the number of schools to be selected. Schools selected had to satisfy two broad criteria namely linguistically homogeneous schools and schools which satisfy the required geographical spread in terms of geographic coverage of LGAs. It is

pertinent to note that nomadic primary schools are rural-based and generally belong to the LGAs and their communities, the few exceptions were owned by state government. By applying these criteria, the researcher was able to select 13 schools in each of the two states giving a total of 26 schools. Three schools had to be dropped in the course of data analysis because of poor returns from Taraba, consequently only 23 schools made up of 13 out of 50 schools from Adamawa State and 10 out of 74 from Taraba State were finally included. Pupils in class three and five were identified for the language tests. However, during the initial pilot testing stage, primary three pupils were eliminated due to very low and uneven performance in the tests, which left the researcher with only primary five pupils for the study. The final sample therefore consists of primary five pupils drawn from each of the 23 schools who were exposed to the tests of reading comprehension and grammar in English and Fulfulde. A total of 138 pupils took the tests in Taraba State and 174 from Adamawa State giving us a sample of 312 pupils for the study.

3.2.1 Teachers

All teachers and head-teachers in the selected schools were used as sample. Forty-seven (47) teachers from Adamawa State and 37 from Taraba State took the language and the reading comprehension tests in Fulfulde and English.

3.3 Procedure for Data Collection

The nature of this study and its objectives suggested a broad-based approach to data collection involving a combination of data collection techniques. Essentially, the research approach adopted two survey methods.

In addition to the two main approaches for data collection, the researcher gathered supplementary evidence using anecdotal notes. This was used for explanatory variables for the level of achievement acquired in the reading and grammar tests in the 2 languages: This became necessary in order to enrich/back up her data. These data touched on the following areas:

1. Made copious notes on the adequacy or otherwise of the teaching/learning environment.
2. Observations from these supplementary sources were used to provide an enabling context for a fuller appreciation of the major findings.

This procedure enabled the researcher to use a combination of techniques to collect multiple sets of data, both qualitative and quantitative.

3.4 Instrument Development

Three sets of instruments were used for this study. These were (I) pupils' test, (ii) teachers' test. In addition, the researcher used anecdotal notes to collect the supplementary data used in the discussion of the findings of this study. These are described below:

3.4.1 Tests

Testing teachers and pupils in the L2 situation is fraught with certain constraints such as difficulty in selection of test type, determining the amount of contents to be covered by the questions, selecting the appropriate medium-whether spoken or written and choosing the correct mode-multiple choice or open- ended types.

In the case of the given tests and sub-tests in this study a suitable passage which had been test-tried was used in conjunction with discrete sentences. While the former examined reading comprehension using different levels of questions to test various strands of understanding the individual sentences focused on the main areas of grammatical selections and correct vocabulary items. Taken together the results from the reading test could be based on the testee's integrative knowledge/skill in the two languages (Fulfulde and English) whereas the performance in the individual sentences could be indicative of the testee's sensitivity to key vocabulary or semantic selections.

In collating the results, an item analysis of each question was done to assess the degree of difficulty or otherwise of each item. That way the outcome could inform on whether certain items were problematic for most testees or for only the weak ones. In the end both general and specific statements could be made from the outcomes. (Oller, 1979, Aliyu, 1987, Heaton, 1988).

The researcher developed two sets of global and discrete tests using grammar and reading comprehension sub-tests in Fulfulde and English for both

the teachers and pupils. These tests were to assess global proficiency and discrete unit performance in the two languages. The test items were largely discrete though one section of the test made up of items (21-25) which required students to order jumbled sentences could be said to be integrative and pragmatic. This portion of the test was actually designed to test the subject's actual communicative ability. Oller (1979), Weir (1988), and Baker (1989) have all critically examined the advantages of such pragmatic integrative testing and have agreed on their utility in eliciting actual communicative language ability in learners. The following steps were followed in the design of the test items:

a. Detailed analysis of the expected terminal language proficiency at the primary three levels.

b. Identifying language skills to be tested.

c. Generating items to sample these skill areas, viz. grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension.

The tests are described in greater detail below.

3.4.2 Fulfulde language test

An initial test of 50 multiple-choice items was developed in Fulfulde. This test covered grammar and vocabulary. The instrument was then trial-tested with Fulfulde speaking pupils in primary three and five in two nomadic schools in Kaduna and Zaria and an item analysis carried out. Items on which more than 60% of pupils failed were dropped. The 50-item test was then given

to educate native speakers of Fulfulde with experience in teaching who were requested to go through it for content validity.

Based on their positive comments, 20 items for the teachers and 35 items for the pupils were then selected. Further analysis was done using a test retest method. This involved giving the test to four Fulfulde pupils in primary five in Kaduna. After a break of two weeks, the same test was re-administered to the same pupils. A positive correlation of 0.69 was recorded between the scores of the two tests, indicating a high degree of reliability in the test instrument, which was then used for data collection.

On the other hand, an initial test of 40 multiple choice items was developed in Fulfulde for the teachers. The test covered grammar and reading comprehension. The test instrument was trial-tested with Fulfulde speaking teachers in two nomadic schools in Kaduna and Zaria, and an item analysis carried out. Items on which more than 60% of teachers failed were dropped. The 40-item test was then given to educate native speakers of Fulfulde with experience in teaching who were requested to go through it for content validity.

Based on their positive comments 20 items were then selected. Further validation was done using a test-re-test method. This involved giving the test to four Fulfulde teachers in primary three and five in Kaduna. After a break of two weeks, the same test was re-administered to the same teachers. A positive correlation of 0.76 was recorded between the scores of the two tests, indicating

a high degree of reliability in the test instrument that was then used for data collection.

3.4.3 Fulfulde reading comprehension test

A short reading passage consisting of 150 words with eight questions at the end was designed by the researcher to test the ability to read for information, vocabulary or word power and inferencing.

Initially, the passage was trial tested at various times using 20 Fulfulde speaking pupils and teachers from two nomadic schools on the outskirts of Kaduna and Zaria and an item analysis carried out. An item analysis of the questions and those items that discriminated highly were adjudged suitable for the test. Such items were retained for the test while those that failed to discriminate were dropped. Specialists drawn from universities and colleges of education were also used to ascertain the content validity of the test. Their comments regarding the structure and number of questions at the end of the passage were positive. On the basis of this content validation, the test was then administered to the learners and teachers.

3.4.4 English language and reading comprehension tests

A similar procedure for designing and validating the Fulfulde grammar and reading comprehension test instruments was adopted for the English grammar and reading comprehension tests.

A correlation coefficient of 0.71 was obtained for the two tests administered. This high positive correlation was then taken to indicate instrument validity.

3.4.5 Test Equivalence

In spite of the language differences between English and Fulfulde, test equivalence between the English and Fulfulde tests of Grammar and Reading Comprehension, was ensured by the following procedures:

1. Questions and items in the two languages covered exactly the same language skill areas.
2. The number of items on the test was identical.
3. The language difficulty level of the items as well as the syntactic complexity of items in the tests in the two languages was checked for similarity. For example, items 21 to 25 in the English Grammar test are matched with items 21 to 25 in the Fulfulde Grammar test.

   For example, during the validation exercise, these items had the difficulty indices for Fulfulde and English, respectively:

ITEM	FULFULDE	ENGLISH
21	25%	39%
22	43%	46%
23	38%	39%
24	20%	66%
25	47%	49%

Also the researcher ensured that the reading comprehension passages were at the same level of syntactic complexity based on Weir (1988).

3.5 Data Collection

All sets of instruments and tests used for the collection of data were administered by the researcher with the aid of research assistants drawn from the two sampled states. Research assistants were trained in test administration drawn from the co-ordinators and supervisors office of the Nomadic Education program in the two states. They collected data in all the schools except the ten schools which the researcher covered herself.

3.6 Instrument Administration

3.6.1 Language proficiency tests

Each language testing session lasted for about one hour. The tests for the teachers and pupils in the schools were administered simultaneously. Pupils and Teachers were introduced to the requirements of the two tests. During the two tests the researcher and her assistants walked up and down the classroom to ensure that the pupils were working correctly. At the end of the tests, the test papers were collected. Scripts were marked using a specific marking scheme and scores recorded for both teachers and pupils in the sampled schools.

3.7 Data Collation and Analysis

All the sets of data collected for the purpose of this study were compiled, analyzed and discussed. The analysis was done as follows: The common statements assessing perceptions regarding Fulfulde language policy and implementation and the hypothesis postulated were tested using appropriate statistical tests, that is, t-test and Pearson Product Movement Correlation

Coefficient. T test was used to test for significant differences in the performance of testes in the different tests whilst Pearson r was used to check for the degree of relationships in performance in different tests by testes. The suitability of these two statistical procedures for testing significant differences and relationships respectively is well accepted (see Cohen & Manion, 1980). Research questions (2, 5a, 5b, 6 and 8) regarding language difficulties, preferences and constraints to the implementation of the Fulfulde medium policy were summarized and

analyzed descriptively in the first instance. All hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 probability level. This probability level is usually considered as appropriate for hypothesis testing in non-experimental type research.

The findings from the study are presented and discussed in chapter four.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, we intend to present the results from the study. This will be in line with the research questions and the results obtained from testing the hypotheses formulated for the study.

It will be recalled that the research questions and hypotheses covered the following areas:

1. Achievement levels of pupils in separate tests of Fulfulde and English reading comprehension and grammar referred to as FREAD, FGRAM, EREAD and EGRAM respectively.
2. Comparison of and relationships between pupils' achievements in English and Fulfulde respectively.
3. Achievement levels of teachers in tests of English and Fulfulde grammar and reading respectively.
4. Comparison of and relationships between teachers' achievement levels in English and Fulfulde.
5. Identifying specific areas of language difficulty in both Fulfulde and English experienced by pupils and teachers in the sample.

The findings of this study are presented first as general results and then discussed as results of sub-groups from the two states. In these discussions, the researcher attempted to relate the supplementary data compiled in the form of anecdotal notes as well as those reviewed from the various sub-sections of the

literature to come out with an integrated explanation for these findings. The presentation of findings followed the above order and in the sequence of the research questions and hypotheses.

4.1: Achievement Levels of Pupils

Based on Research Question 1 and the hypotheses formulated the pupils were subjected to two tests, namely, reading comprehension and grammar in Fulfulde and English and the results were as presented below:

Research Question One

What is the level of grammatical competence and reading comprehension in Fulfulde and English attained by the pupils?

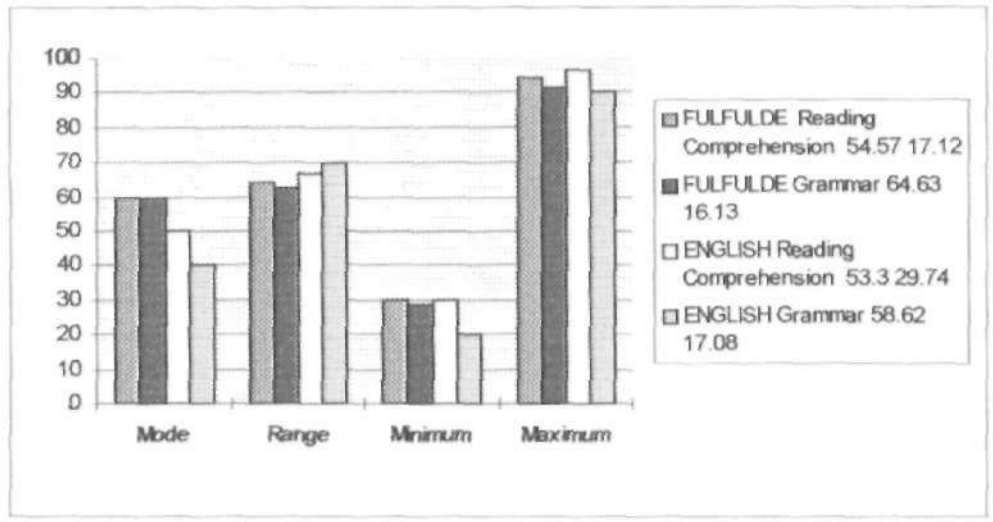
As stated in Chapter 3, the levels of grammatical competence and reading comprehension for the two languages of interest in the study – Fulfulde and English - were measured, using four sets of instruments.

The scores of the pupils in these measures are reported in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1.

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics of Scores of Pupils on Fulfulde and English Reading Comprehension and Grammar.

	FULFULDE	FULFULDE	ENGLISH	ENGLISH
Descriptive Statistics	**Reading Comprehension**	**Grammar**	**Reading Comprehension**	**Grammar**
Mean	54.57	64.63	53.30	58.62
S.D.	17.12	16.13	29.74	17.08
Mode	60	60	50	40
Range	64.28	62.86	66.67	70
Minimum	30	28.57	30	20
Maximum	94.29	91.43	96.67	90

Fig. 4.1: Fulfulde and English Reading Comprehension and Grammar Compared with 55% Criterion.



With a mean score of over 53.3% on the four measures, it could be said that the pupils in the sample were slightly above average in their competency levels in reading comprehension and grammar in both Fulfulde and English. This mean score of 53.3 for English was very well above the national mean of 25% reported in the nation-wide study by Falayajo et al. (1997:v). Overall, performance in Fulfulde was better than in English. Noteworthy is the modal score, that is, the most frequently occurring score in the distribution. The results in Fig 4.1 showed that the modal score for English reading comprehension is 50%. Since many of the pupils had scores of 50%, the performance on this measure could, therefore, be described as average. In contrast, the modal score for Fulfulde reading comprehension is 60%. This high score is not to be celebrated given the fact that the pupils were performing at two years below their chronological and ability levels. This pattern of results agrees with the finding of a recently concluded national survey involving primary 4 pupils. In

that survey (Falayajo, et al, 1997), it was shown that pupils performed better in English reading comprehension than English grammar, scoring 39.2% in reading and 18.2% in grammar respectively.

Hypothesis One:

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of pupils in tests of Fulfulde and English in (I) reading comprehension and (ii) grammar.

This hypothesis was tested by comparing, using t-test, the mean scores of the pupils in Fulfulde and English in (I) reading comprehension and (ii) grammar. The results are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: t-test for Fulfulde and English in (I) Reading Comprehension and (ii) Grammar.

Measure	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test
Fulfulde Reading Comprehension	312	54.57	17.12	0.65 (Ns)
English Reading Comprehension	312	53.30	29.74	
Fulfulde Grammar	312	64.63	16.13	4.52 (s)
English Grammar	312	58.62	17.08	

*P>. 05

Table 4.1 shows that the pupils had a higher mean score in FREAD (54.57) than EREAD (53.30). This difference was not found to be statistically significant because the calculated 't' value of 0.65 is less than the table value of 1.96 [df = 622, p > .05]. On the basis of this result, the null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho1 (I)], was upheld, that is, not rejected. Although this mean score appears to be an average score, when we recall that the test items were drawn from the primary three English and Fulfulde syllabuses, we can say that the pupils are reading below their chronological age. One would assume

that the syllabuses themselves were appropriately graded for this class of pupils. If so, this would suggest that the pupils are experiencing some difficulty in this area.

With regard to the comparison of grammatical competence in the two languages, a similar pattern is discernible for the pupils' performance in FGRAM and EGRAM. The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 4.52 which is more than the table value of 1.96 [df=622; p<. 05]. The observed difference in mean scores between FGRAM (64.63) and EGRAM (58.62) was, therefore, statistically significant. The null hypothesis [Ho 1(ii)] was therefore rejected.

Data in Table 4.1 showed that there was no significant difference between the scores of the pupils in both Fulfulde and English Grammar and Reading Comprehension respectively, since the t-test results failed to show any significant difference at the 0.05 alpha level. Hypothesis 1 was, therefore, rejected. The performance in the area of grammar was higher and in favour of Fulfulde.

Research Question Two:

Is there any significant difference in the scores of boys and girls in tests of Fulfulde and English (a) reading comprehension (b) grammar respectively? The study sought to find out whether there was any significant difference in the achievement levels of pupils in the sample on the basis of sex. Specifically, it sought to test Ho2 and Ho3 as follows:

Hypothesis Two:

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of boys and girls in tests of Fulfulde (a) reading comprehension; and (b) grammar respectively.

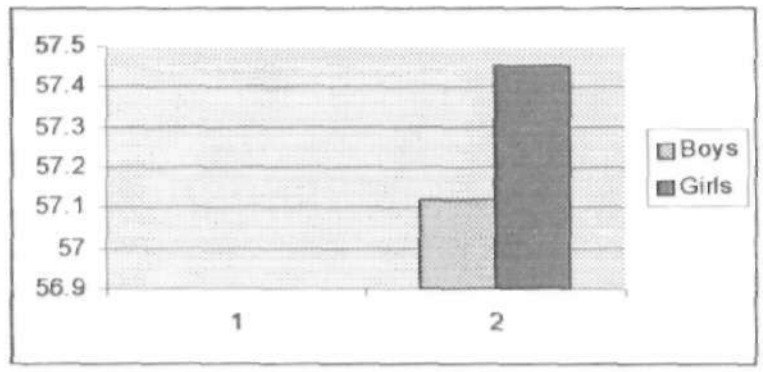
Hypothesis 2 was tested using t-test comparison of the scores of boys and **girls in the sample in Fulfulde reading comprehension and Fulfulde grammar.** The results are presented in Tables 4.2 and 4.3 and Figure 4.2 and 4.3 respectively.

Table 4.3 t-test for Fulfulde Reading Comprehension and Fulfulde Grammar Scores of Boys and Girls in the Sample.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Boys	241	57.12	11.04	0.24	622	Ns
Girls	71	57.45	10.17			

Ns = not significant

Fig. 4.2: Fulfulde Reading Comprehension Scores of Boys and Girls in the Sample



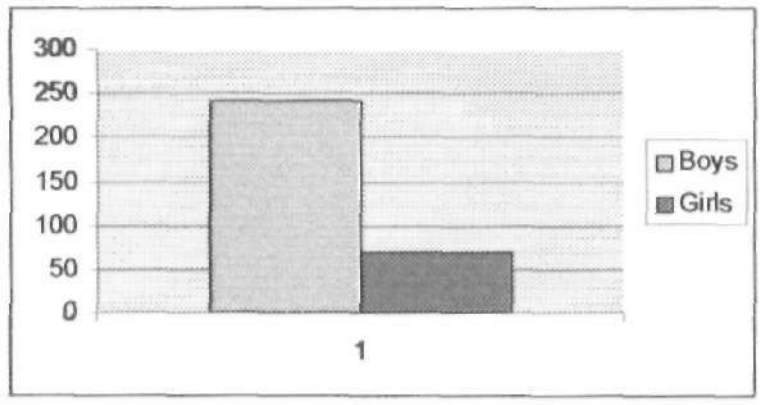
The results in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.2 showed that, although girls had a **slightly higher mean score in reading comprehension (57.45) than boys (57.52),** this difference was not found to be statistically significant. The calculated "t" value of 0.24 is less than the table value of 1.96. Ho2a, was, therefore, not **rejected. This showed that there is no significant difference in the performance** in FREAD as a result of gender.

Table 4.4: t-test on Fulfulde Grammar Scores of Boys and Girls in the Sample.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Boys	241	52.48	8.98	*2.48	622	S
Girls	71	55.66	9.76			

*P<. 05

Fig. 4.3: Fulfulde Grammar Scores of Boys and Girls in the Sample.



The result of the t-test on Fulfulde Grammar scores showed a significant difference between boys and girls, with girls having a higher mean score (55.66) than boys 52.48). Therefore, Ho 2b, was rejected because the calculated 't' value of 2.48 was higher than the table value of 1.96 [df=622; P> .05].

Hypothesis Three:

There is no significant difference in the mean scores of boys and girls in tests of (a) English Reading Comprehension; and English Grammar respectively.

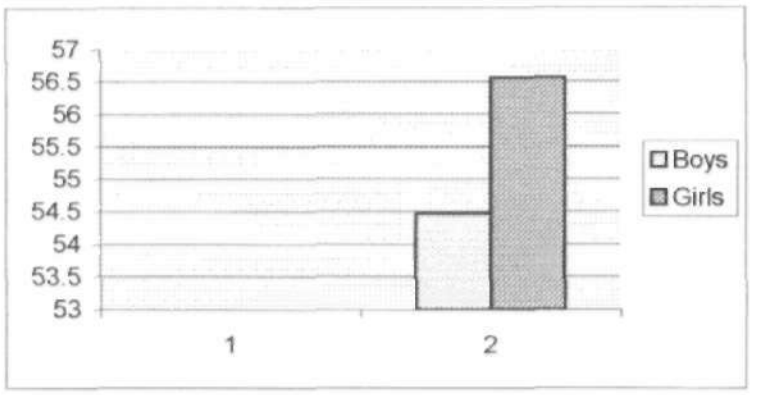
Hypothesis 3 was tested using t-test comparisons of the scores of boys and girls in the sample in English reading comprehension and grammar respectively. The results are presented in Tables 4.4 and 4.5 and Figures 4.4 and 4.5 respectively.

Table 4.5: t-test for English Reading Comprehension Scores of Boys and Girls in the Sample.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Boys	241	54.46	8.98	1.63 (Ns)	622	Ns
Girls	71	56.56	9.76			

Ns = not significant

Fig. 4.4: English Reading Comprehension Scores of Boys and Girls in the Sample.



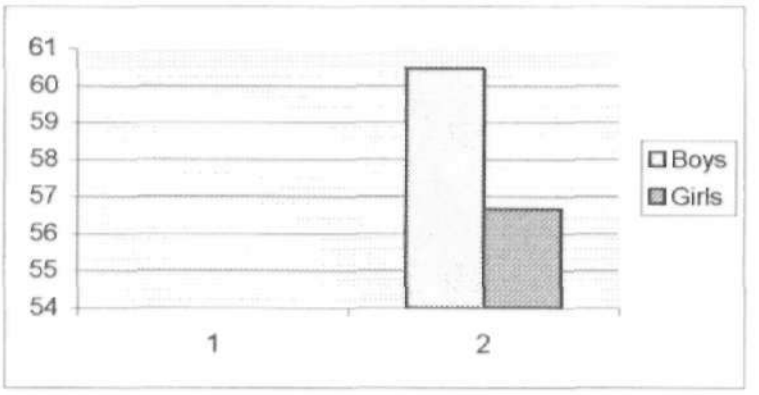
The results showed that girls had a higher mean score in reading comprehension (56.56) than boy's (54.46). This difference was found not to be statistically significant because the calculated 't' value of 1.63 is less than the table value of 1.96 [df = 622; p>. 05]. On the basis of this result, the null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 3(a)] was not rejected.

Table 4.6: t-test for English Grammar Scores of Boys and Girls.

Group	N	Mean	SD	t- test	Df	Decision
Boys	241	60.46	17.18	1.72	622	Ns
Girls	71	56.66	16.14			

Ns = not significant

Fig.4.5: English Grammar Scores of Boys and Girls in the Sample



On the contrary, the results on Table 4.6 and Figure 4.5 respectively showed that boys had a higher mean score of 60.46 than girls; 56.66, on the English grammar test. The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 1.72 which is less than the table value of 1.96 [df = 480; P < .05]. This observed difference between the scores of boys and girls was therefore not statistically significant. On the basis of this, the null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 3(b)] was not rejected. It is generally believed that girls perform better than boys in language. This is because they are more verbal in their interaction with their mothers in the developmental years. Girls are also much more focussed on schoolwork in the early years than boys who are generally action – oriented and restive.

Hypothesis 4

There will be no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of (a) Fulfulde reading comprehension and (b) Fulfulde grammar.

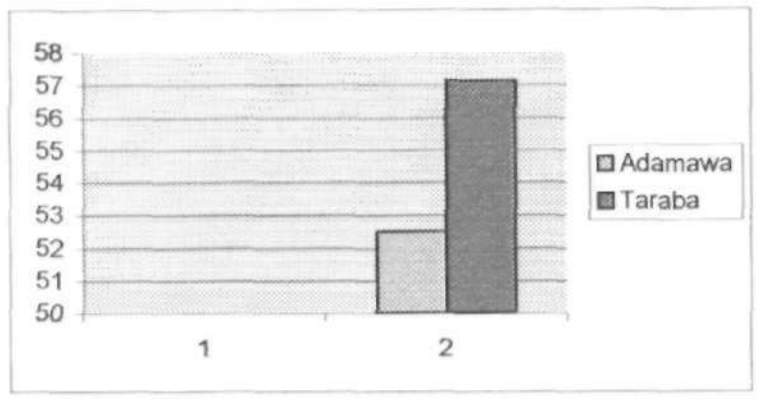
Hypothesis 4 was tested using t-test comparisons of the achievement scores of pupils in the sample from Adamawa and Taraba states in Fulfulde reading comprehension and grammar. The results are presented in Tables 4.7 and 4.8 and Figures 4.6 and 4.7 respectively.

Table 4.7: t-test on Fulfulde Reading Comprehension Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	174	52.5	15.85	*2.96	480	S
Taraba	138	57.14	18.30			

*P < .05

Fig. 4.6: Fulfulde Reading Comprehension Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.



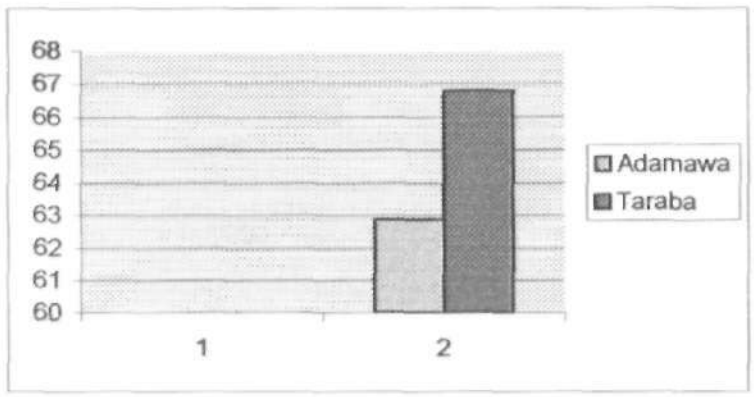
The results showed that there is a significant difference in the pupils' scores in this measure in the two states. The obtained t-value of 2.96 is more than the table value of 1.96 at 622 degree of freedom. At the 0.05 probability level, this difference is significant. Therefore, Ho 4 (a) was rejected. The results showed that the overall performance of pupils from Taraba State in Fulfulde reading comprehension is better than that of pupils from Adamawa State.

Table 4.8 t-test for Fulfulde Grammar Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	174	62.87	16.24	*2.16	622	S
Taraba	138	66.8	15.78			

*P<. 05

Fig.4.7: Fulfulde Grammar Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.



The results on Table 4.8 and Figure 4.7 showed a higher mean score (66.80) on Fulfulde grammar for pupils from Taraba State than those from Adamawa State (62.87). The *t*-test results gave a calculated *t*-value of 2.16, which is more than the table value of 1.96. The observed difference in the mean scores was therefore statistically significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 4(b) was rejected. Schools in Taraba were better organised, administered and staffed, and the motivation among teachers and pupils was generally higher.

Hypothesis 5

There is no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of (a) English reading comprehension, and (b) English grammar.

Hypothesis 5 was tested using t-test comparisons of the achievement scores of pupils in the sample from Adamawa and Taraba States in English

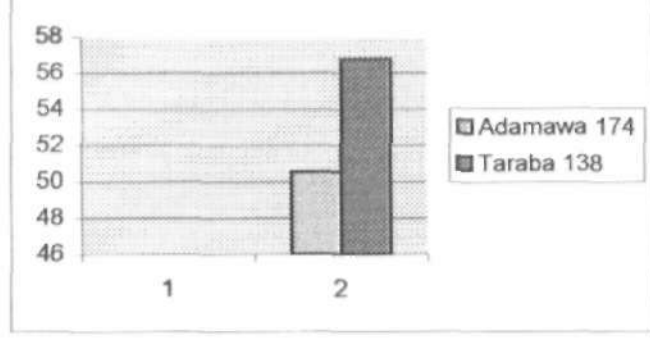
reading comprehension and grammar. The results are presented in Tables 4.9 and 4.10 and Figures 4.8 and 4.9 respectively.

Table 4.9 t-test for English Reading Comprehension Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	174	50.51	17.99	1.72	622	Ns
Taraba	138	56.76	39.57			

Ns = not significant

Fig. 4.8 English Reading Comprehension Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba State.



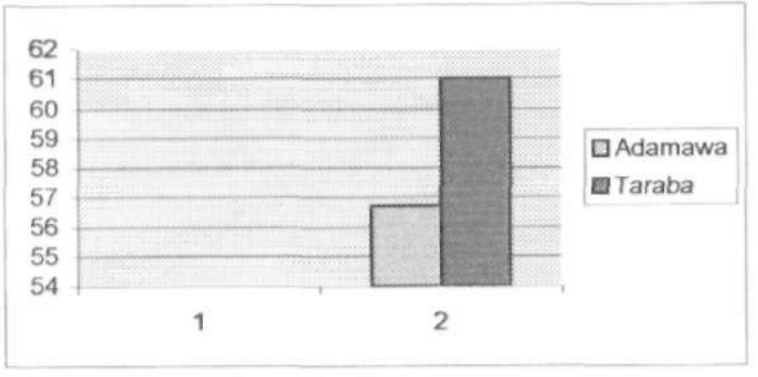
The results on Table 4.9 and Figure 4.8 showed a higher mean score (56.76) on English reading comprehension for pupils from Taraba State than those from Adamawa State (50.51). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 1.72, which is less than the table value of 1.96. The observed difference in the means scores was therefore statistically not significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 5(a) was, therefore, not rejected.

Table 4.10: t-test for English Grammar Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	174	56.71	18.01	*2.25	622	S
Taraba	138	60.99	15.6			

*P<. 05

Fig.4.9: English Grammar Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.



The results on Table 4.10 and Figure 4.9 showed a higher mean score (60.99) on English grammar for pupils from Taraba State than for those from Adamawa State (56.71). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 2.25 which is more than the table value of 1.96 [df = 622; P < .05]. The observed difference in the mean scores was therefore statistically significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 5 (b) was rejected.

Hypothesis 6:

There is no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States in tests of Fulfulde and English.

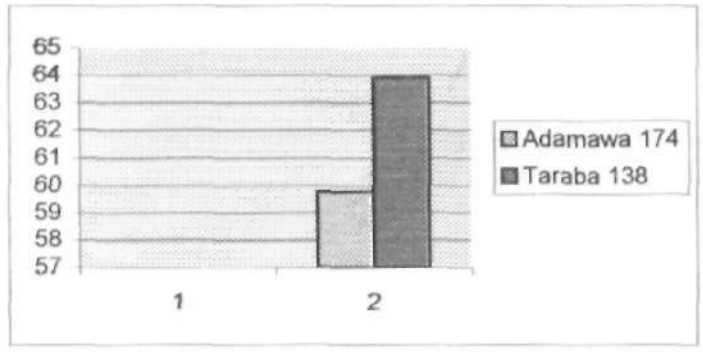
This hypothesis was tested by comparison, using t-test the mean scores of pupils in Fulfulde and English in (1) reading comprehension; and (ii) grammar. The results are presented in Tables 4.11 and 4.12 and Figures 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4.11 t-test for Fulfulde Grammar and Reading Comprehension Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	174	59.76	12.64	*2.96	622	S
Taraba	138	63.91	12.05			

*P<. 05

Fig. 4.10: Fulfulde Grammar and Reading Comprehension Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.



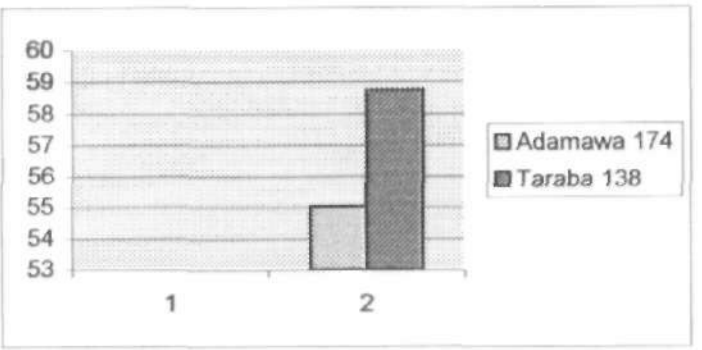
The results on Table 4.11 and Figure 4.10 showed a higher mean score **(63.91) on Fulfulde grammar and reading comprehension in favour of pupils** from Taraba State than those from Adamawa State (59.76). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 2.96 [df = 622; P < .05] which is higher than the table value of 1.96. The observed difference in the means scores was therefore statistically significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 6] **was, therefore, rejected. Overall performance in Fulfulde is therefore better for Taraba State. We have already cited purely pedagogical and psychological** factors as possible explanations for better performance by pupils in Taraba than **their counterparts in Adamawa. It remains to add possible sociolinguistic factors** of the prevalence of Hausa, which competes strongly with Fulfulde in Adamawa.

Table 4.12 t-test for English Grammar and Reading Comprehension Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	174	55.02	14.77	1.92	622	Ns
Taraba	138	58.75	18.58	(Ns)		

Ns= Not significant

Fig.4.11: English Grammar and Reading Comprehension Scores of Pupils from Adamawa and Taraba States.



The results on Table 4.12 and Figure 4.11 showed a higher mean score (58.75) on English reading comprehension and grammar for pupils from Taraba state than those from Adamawa state (55.02). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 1.92 which is less than the table value of 1.96 [df = 622; P > .05]. The observed difference in the mean scores of the two measures was therefore statistically not significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 6] was, therefore, not rejected.

4.2 Achievement Levels of Teachers

It will be recalled that the teachers were also subjected to two tests, namely, reading comprehension and grammar in Fulfulde and English. Based on Research Question 6, hypotheses were formulated.

Research Question 3:

What is the level of grammatical competence and reading comprehension in Fulfulde and English attained by the teachers?

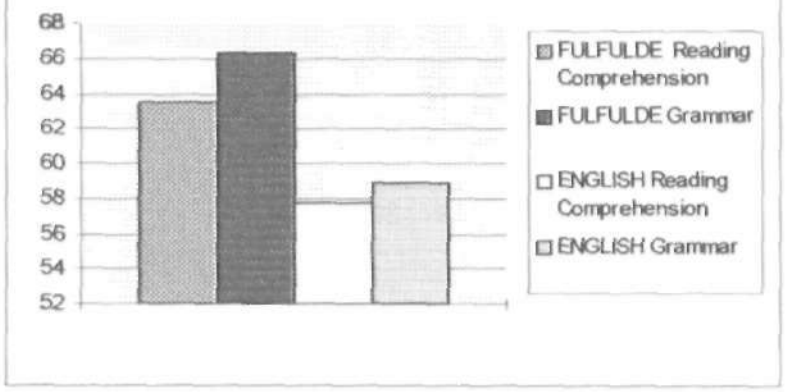
Specifically, and as stated in Chapter 3, the levels of grammatical competence and reading comprehension for the teachers in the two languages of

interest in the study – Fulfulde and English, were measured using four instruments. The results are reported in Table 4.13 and Figure 4.12, respectively.

Table 4.13: Descriptive Statistics of Scores of Teachers on Fulfulde and English Reading Comprehension and Grammar.

	FULFULDE	FULFULDE	ENGLISH	ENGLISH
Descriptive Statistics	Reading Comprehension	Grammar	Reading Comprehension	Grammar
Mean	63.49	66.26	57.70	58.89
S.D.	18.29	13.68	17.76	15.17
Mode	50	60	70	40
Range	64.28	62.86	66.67	70
Minimum	30	28.57	30	20
Maximum	94.29	91.43	96.67	90

Fig. 4.12: Mean Scores of Fulfulde and English Reading Comprehension and Grammar of Teachers.



With a mean score of over 55% on the four measures, it could be said that teachers in the sample were above average in their competency levels in reading comprehension and grammar in both Fulfulde and English. As was the case of the pupils, performance was better in Fulfulde than in English. Noteworthy is the modal score of 70% on English reading comprehension by teachers as seen in Table 4.13, which is well above average.

In contrast, the modal score for Fulfulde reading comprehension is 50%.

Hypothesis Seven

There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers in tests of Fulfulde and English in (a) reading comprehension; and (b) grammar.

This hypothesis was tested by comparing, using t-test, the mean scores of the teachers in tests of Fulfulde and English in (a) reading comprehension; and (b) grammar. The results are presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: t-test Comparing the Mean scores of the Teachers in Fulfulde and English in (a) Reading Comprehension and (b) Grammar.

Measure	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test
Fulfulde Reading Comprehension	84	63.49	18.29	*2.08
English Reading Comprehension	84	57.70	17.76	
Fulfulde Grammar	84	66.26	13.68	*3.30
English Grammar	84	58.89	15.17	

*P > .05

Table 4.14 above shows that the teachers had a higher mean score in Fulfulde reading comprehension (63.49) than in English reading comprehension (57.70). This difference was found to be statistically significant because the calculated "t" value of 2.08 is greater than the table value of 1.96 [df = 164; p>.05]. On the basis of this result, the null hypothesis of no significant difference at .05 [Ho 7(a)] was rejected.

In comparing, the grammatical competence in the two languages, the t-test results gave a calculated value of 3.31. This is more than the table value of 1.96. The observed difference in mean scores between Fulfulde grammar (66.26) and English grammar (58.89), was therefore, statistically significant.

The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 7 (b)] was rejected. This high mean score for the teachers evidently shows that the teachers did not have any problems with Fulfulde Grammar either.

Hypothesis Eight

There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States in tests of Fulfulde in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.

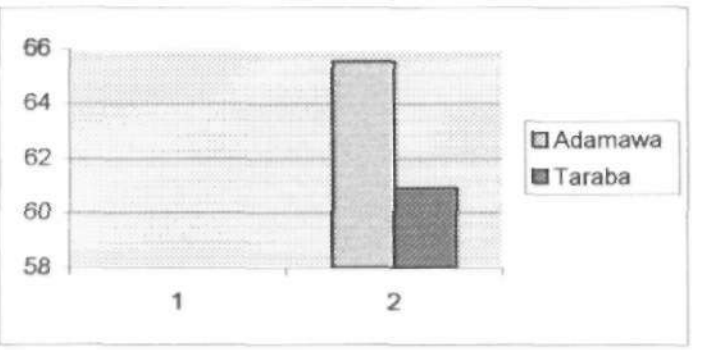
Hypothesis 8 was tested using t-test comparisons of the achievement scores of teachers in the sample from Adamawa and Taraba States in Fulfulde **reading comprehension and grammar respectively. The results are presented in** Tables 4.15 and 4.16 and Figures 4.13 and 4.14, respectively.

Table 4.15: t-test for Fulfulde Reading Comprehension Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	47	65.53	19.38	1.18	164	Ns
Taraba	37	60.90	16.72			

Ns= not significant

Fig. 4.13: Fulfulde Reading Comprehension Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.



The results showed that there is no significant difference in the teacher's scores in this measure in the two states. The obtained t-value of 1.18 is less

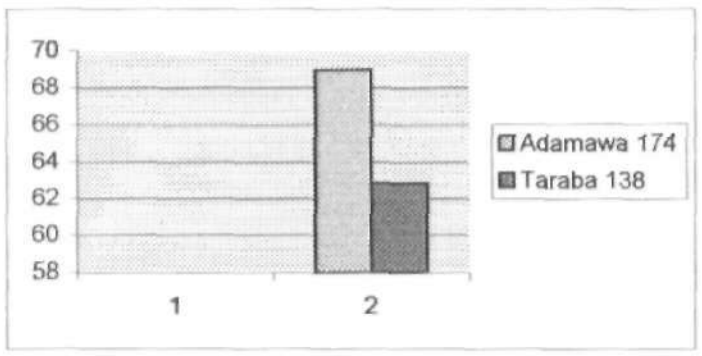
than the table value of 1.96 at 164 degree of freedom. At the 0.05 probability level, this difference is not statistically significant. Therefore, Ho 8 (a) was not rejected. The results showed that the overall performance of teachers from Taraba State in Fulfulde reading comprehension is better than that of teachers from Adamawa State, even though the difference is not statistically significant.

Table 4.16: t-test for Fulfulde Grammar Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	47	68.97	13.36	*2.08	164	S
Taraba	37	62.82	13.47			

*P > .05

Fig.4.14: Fulfulde Grammar Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.



The results on Table 4.16 and Figure 4.14 showed a higher mean score (68.97) on Fulfulde grammar for teachers from Adamawa State than those from Taraba State (62.82). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 2.08 which is more than the table value of 1.96 [df 164; p > 0.05]. The observed difference in the means scores was therefore statistically significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 8(b)] was rejected.

Hypothesis 9

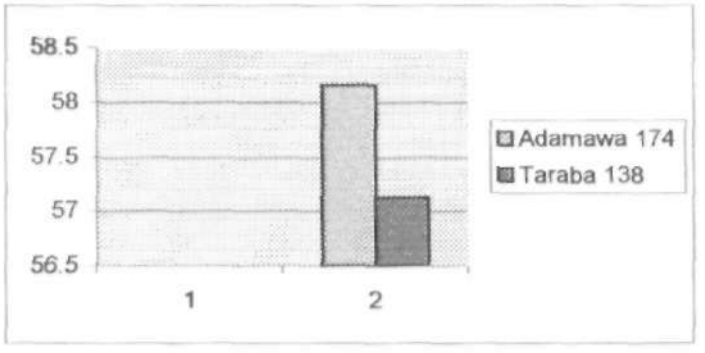
There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of English in (a) reading comprehension; and (b) grammar. Hypothesis 9 was tested using t-test comparisons of the achievement **scores of teachers in the sample from Adamawa and Taraba states in English** reading comprehension and grammar. The results are presented in Tables 4.17 **and 4.18 and Figures 4.15 and 4.16 respectively.**

Table 4.17 t-test for English Reading Comprehension Scores of Teachers *from Adamawa and Taraba States.*

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	47	58.16	19.07	0.27	164	Ns
Taraba	37	57.12	16.18			

Ns = not significant

Fig. 4.15: English Reading Comprehension Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.



The results on Table 4.17and Figure 4.15 showed a higher mean score **(58.16) on English reading comprehension for teachers from Adamawa State** than those from Taraba State (57.12). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 0.27 which is less than the table value of 1.96 [df=164; $p < 0.05$]. The

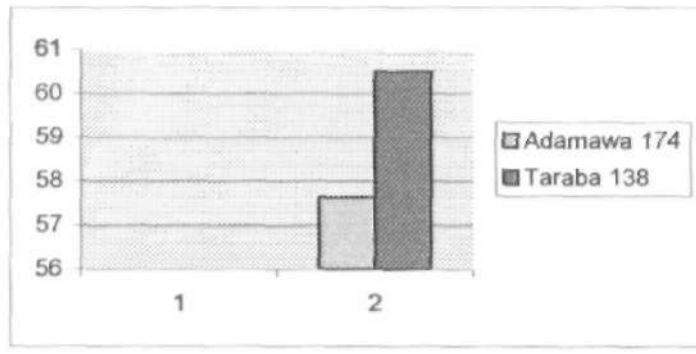
observed difference in the means scores was, therefore, not statistically significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 9 (a)] was, therefore, not rejected.

Table 4.18 t-test for English Grammar Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	47	57.63	16.88	0.18	164	Ns
Taraba	37	60.50	12.72			

Ns= not significant

Fig.4.16: English Grammar Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.



The results on Table 4.18 and Figure 4.216 showed a higher mean score (60.50) on the English grammar test for teachers from Taraba State than those from Adamawa State (57.63). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 0.18 which is less than the table value of 1.96 [df=168; $p > .05$]. The observed difference in the means scores was, therefore, not statistically significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 9 (b)] was rejected.

Hypothesis 10

There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States in tests of Fulfulde and English.

This hypothesis was tested by comparing, using t-test, the mean scores of teachers in Fulfulde and English in (1) reading comprehension; and (ii) grammar.

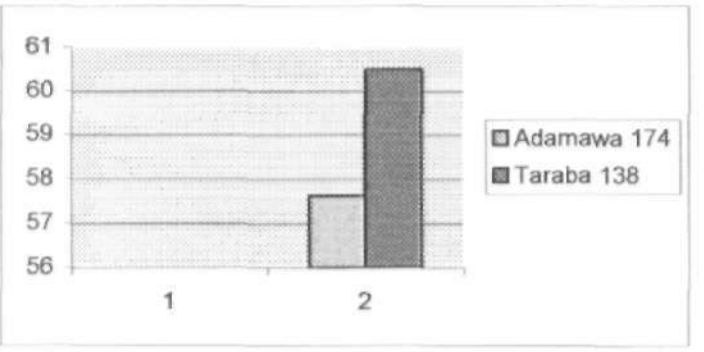
The results are presented in Tables 4.19 and 4.20 and Figures 4.17 and 4.18.

Table 4.19: t-test for Fulfulde Grammar and Reading Comprehension Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	47	57.63	16.88	0.18	168	Ns
Taraba	37	60.50	12.72			

Ns= not significant

Fig. 4.17: Fulfulde Grammar and Reading Comprehension Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.



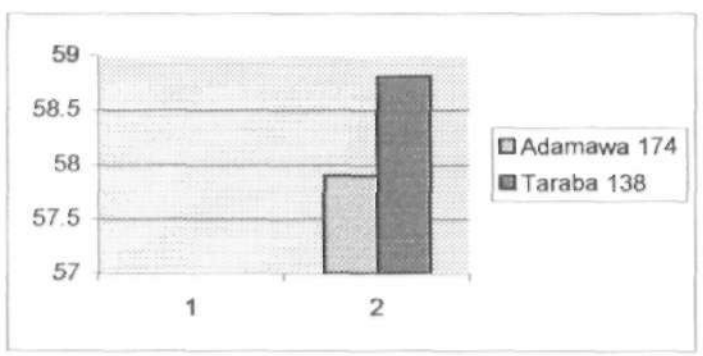
The results on Table 4.19 and Figure 4.20 showed a higher mean score (61.86) on Fulfulde grammar and reading comprehension in favour of teachers from Taraba State than those from Adamawa State (61.25). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 0.18 [df= 168; p > .05] which is less than the table value of 1.96. The observed difference in the means scores was, therefore, not statistically significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 10] was, therefore, not rejected. Overall performance in Fulfulde is therefore better for Taraba State.

Table 4.20: t-test for English Grammar and Reading Comprehension Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	t-test	Df	Decision
Adamawa	47	57.9	17.98	0.28	168	Ns
Taraba	37	58.81	14.45			

Ns = not significant

Fig.4.18 English Grammar and Reading Comprehension Scores of Teachers from Adamawa and Taraba States.



The results on Table 4.19 and Figure 4.21 showed a higher mean score (58.81) in English reading comprehension and grammar for teachers from Taraba State than those from Adamawa State (57.9). The t-test results gave a calculated t-value of 0.28 which is less than the table value of 1.96 [df= 168; p > .05] The observed difference in the mean scores of the two measures was, therefore, statistically not significant. The null hypothesis of no significant difference [Ho 10] was, therefore, not rejected.

Hypothesis 11

There is no significant relationship between scores on Fulfulde and English reading comprehension and grammar tests.

To test this hypothesis further analysis involved the use of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to test for correlation between achievement levels in the four areas:

1. EREAD Vs EGRAM
2. FREAD Vs FGRAM
3. EGRAM Vs FGRAM
4. EREAD Vs FREAD

The results as well as the correlation coefficients are presented in Table 4.21 for pupils and Table 4.22 for teachers.

Table 4.21: Correlation Coefficient for the Different Tests by Pupils.

	FGRAM	FREAD	EGRAM	EREAD
FGRAM		0.040	0.094	0.038
FREAD	0.040		0.154**	0.111
EGRAM	0.094	0.154**		0.134**
EREAD	0.038	0.111	0.134**	

** = Significant at 0.05 p. level

As can be seen in Table 4.21 statistically significant correlation coefficients ($p < .05$) were found for Fulfulde reading comprehension (FREAD) and English grammar (EGRAM), as well as between English reading comprehension (EREAD) and English grammar (EGRAM).

Table 4.22: Correlation Coefficient for the Different Tests by Teachers

	FGRAM	FREAD	EGRAM	EREAD
FGRAM		0.040	-0.021	0.115
FREAD	0.040		-0.226	0.241
EGRAM	-0.021	-0.226		0.169
EREAD	0.115	0.241	0.169	

A close look at Table 4.22 showed no statistically significant correlation from the teachers' scores on the four measures - FGRAM, FREAD, EGRAM, and EREAD. Therefore, at the 0.05 probability level, Ho 11 was upheld.

4.3 Areas of Difficulties in Reading Comprehension and Grammar Tests in Fulfulde and English for Pupils and Teachers

One of the aims of this study was to investigate the areas of difficulties of pupils and teachers in the sample as reflected in Research Question 4.

Research Question 4:

What are the specific language difficulties encountered by pupils and teachers in Fulfulde and English reading comprehension and grammar tests?

To answer research question 10, an item analysis was done on the performance of pupils and teachers in the sample on all the items in the two language tests. The percentage number of pupils who got each item wrong was calculated as a way of assessing their points of difficulty. Furthermore, a cut off point of 55% was used to establish the areas of difficulty for the pupils. Where more than 55% of the pupils got an item wrong, it was considered an area of difficulty. Where between 45% to 54% got an item wrong, this area was seen as an area of relative difficulty? In reaching these cut-off points, the researcher was influenced by two vital constraints:

i. The simplicity of the test items, and

ii. The fact that the tests were based on competencies expected of pupils in primary three.

EREAD and FREAD for Pupils

The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.23 (P) for English and Table 4.25 (P) for Fulfulde respectively.

Table 4.23 (P): Mean % of Scoring Items on EREAD for Pupils.

Item	%Right	%Wrong
Information	59.55	41.09
Vocabulary	54.97	45.03
Inference	48.29	51.71

Table 4.23 (P) clearly shows that the pupils can hardly read for information and have low vocabulary in English. This is reflected by the

percentage of pupil's (41.09) who got items 1 and 2 and 5 and 6 wrong in the English reading comprehension test. Another area of relative difficulty is reading at the inferential level.

Table 4.25 (P): Mean % of Scoring Items on FREAD for Pupils.

Item	%Right	%Wrong
Information	49.52	50.48
Vocabulary	56.09	43.91
Inference	40.06	59.94

Similarly, Table 4.25 (P) above shows that 50.48% of the pupils got items 2 and 3 wrong in the Fulfulde reading comprehension test, clearly showing relative difficulty with reading for information. The two tables also revealed the relatively low vocabulary level of the pupils. The tables show that 45.03% got items 5 and 6 and 43.91% got items 7 and 8 wrong on the Fulfulde and English reading comprehension tests, respectively. Again relative difficulty associated with problems of inference was recorded in the reading comprehension test. Some 59.94% and 51.71% of the pupils were seriously affected by problems of inference in the two tests respectively.

EGRAM and FGRAM for Pupils

The results of this analysis for the pupils are presented in Table 4.24 (P) for English and 4.26 (P) for Fulfulde respectively.

Table 4.24 (P): Mean % of Scoring Items on EGRAM for Pupils.

Items	%Right	%Wrong
Structure	43.01	56.94
Vocabulary	38.51	61.49
Spelling	50.64	49.36
PLK	36.49	63.51
Lexicon/Phonological	40.71	59.29

Results on Table 2.24 (P) showed that 63.51% of the pupils had the most difficulty with items 21-25 that tested language skills in an integrated form [i.e. Pragmatic Language Knowledge (PLK)], on the English grammar test relative to items 10 and 20 on the same test where 49.36% had difficulty with spelling. The table also shows that 59.29% of the pupils had lexicon phonological problems. Relative difficulty was also encountered for vocabulary where 61.49% pupils got items 9, 14 and 35 wrong.

Table 4.26(P): Mean % of scoring Items on FGRAM for Pupils

Item	%Right	%Wrong
Structure	64.26	35.74
Vocabulary	64.97	35.03
Spelling	45.51	54.49
PLK	46.67	53.33
Interference	69.87	30.13

On the contrary, the above table shows that 54.49% demonstrated spelling problems followed by 53.33% who had difficulty with the integrated language skills (PLK) items. Only 35.74% and 30.13% of the pupils had difficulty with structure and lexicon phonological items in the Fulfulde grammar test.

This level of difficulty experienced with a test drawn from competencies specified for primary three learners is such that allows the researcher to infer

and conclude, at a largely qualitative level, that learners certainly do not possess the skills that underlie the competencies expected of them at primary 5 level.

4.3.1 Areas of Difficulties in Reading Comprehension and Grammar Tests in Fulfulde and English for Teachers.

In response to research question 4, an item analysis was done on the tests for teachers in the sample in the two languages. As in the case of the pupils, the mean percentage number of teachers who got each item wrong was calculated as a way of finding their points of difficulty. Furthermore, a cut off point of 65% was used to establish the areas of difficulty for the teachers. Where more than 65% of the teachers got an item wrong, it was considered an area of difficulty. Where between 55% to 64% got an item wrong, this area was seen as an area of relative difficulty? In reaching these cut-off points, the researcher was influenced by two vital constraints:

i. The simplicity of the test items, and

ii. The fact that the tests were based on competencies expected of pupils in primary three.

EREAD and FREAD for Teachers

The results of this analysis for the teachers are presented in Tables 4.23 (T) and 4.25 (T) for English and 4.24 and 4.26for Fulfulde respectively.

Table 4.23 (T): Mean % of Scoring Items on EREAD for Teachers.

Item	%Right	Wrong
Information	56.85	43.55
Vocabulary	50%	50%
Inference	32.54	67.46

Based on the above analysis, it is clearly shown that teachers do not possess the requisite language skills. It also shows that 50% of the teachers had relatively low vocabulary while 43.55% of them cannot read for information. This is evidenced from their scores on items 1 and 2 on the English reading comprehension test. An alarming 67.46% of the teachers cannot read at the inferential level and this is reflected in their performance on items 9 and 10 (See Appendix). This level of difficulty experienced by the teachers is in consonance with the areas of difficulties experienced by the pupils which perhaps goes to show the spill over of the teacher's poor performance in reading comprehension and grammar to the pupil's performance. This result clearly shows that the teachers do not possess the appropriate language skills expected of them. They can hardly read for information as shown in the percentage of those who got items 2 and 3 and items 1 and 2 wrong in the Fulfulde and English reading comprehension tests, respectively. Their vocabulary level is also rather low given the percentage who got items 5 and 6 in the Fulfulde test and items 7 and 8 in the English reading comprehension test, respectively.

Table 4.25 (T): Mean % of Scoring Items on FREAD for Teachers.

Item	%Right	%Wrong
Information	49.11	50.89
Vocabulary	63.1	36.9
Inference	47.62	52.38

Similarly, the above table shows that a lower percentage of teachers, 50.89%, cannot read for information while a higher percentage of 52.38%, cannot read at the level of inference on the Fulfulde reading comprehension

test. A relatively low level of difficulty in vocabulary, 36.9%, is recorded for items 5 and 6 on the Fulfulde test for the teachers (See Appendix Q3).

EGRAM and FGRAM for Teachers

The results of this analysis for the teachers are presented in Table 4.24 (T) for English and Table 4.26 (T) for Fulfulde, respectively.

Table 4.24 (T): Mean % of Scoring Items on EGRAM for Teachers

Item	%Right	%Wrong
Structure	63.62	39.39
Vocabulary	52.08	47.92
Spelling	39.68	60.92
Lexicon/Phonological	44.84	55.16
PLK	5.119	48.81

The above table shows that 60.92% of the teachers had the most difficulty with spelling on the English grammar test followed by 55.16% indicating problems associated with discriminating lexical or phonological items on the same test. The analysis also shows that 48.81% had difficulty with the integrative items (PLK) on the test. Relative difficulty in the area of vocabulary, 47.92% and 39.39% in structure closely follows this, respectively.

Table 4.26 (T): Mean % of Scoring Items on FGRAM for Teachers.

Item	%Right	%Wrong
Structure	54.18	45.82
Vocabulary	50.2	49.8
Spelling	47.2	52.8
PLK	43.15	56.85
Lexicon/Phonological	46.03	53.97

On the teachers' performance on the Fulfulde grammar test, Table 4.26 (T) clearly shows that 56.85% had the most difficulty with items 18-22 (see Appendix) which tested integrated language skills (PLK). Similarly, the table

revealed that 53.97% and 52.8% had lexical, phonological and spelling problems respectively. Therefore, teachers had the most difficulty with the integrated items, relative difficulty with the lexical / phonological items well as spelling problems on the FGRAM test.

4.4 DISCUSSION ON THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This study is based on the assumption that language is central to education and serves as an instrument for determining the outcome of learning. Where the language of instruction happens to be the mother tongue, then much more is expected to be achieved through it in learning. Equally important is the assumption that learning achievement can be used to mirror the efficacy or otherwise of an instructional system. Indeed, there is ample research evidence in support of this. In order to verify this further, the present study administered tests of learning achievements to guage the learning outcomes in nomadic primary schools. It was hoped that this would go a long way in improving the quality of education. In discussing the findings presented in this chapter, certain preliminary observations need to be made.

The first is that almost every recent survey of the state of Nigerian schools and achievement tests have reported a near- hopeless situation of endless inadequacies and poor performance in key subject areas, i.e. English and Mathematics, or more simply, literacy (reading and writing) and numeracy. It is only when these earlier findings are borne in mind that the performance of subjects in this present study look less abysmal. For example, whereas Falayajo

et al. (1997:v) had reported a nation-wide score of 25.2% in reading comprehension, the present study recorded a score of 54.37% and 53.30% for reading in Fulfulde and English respectively. One must quickly add also that the scores reported here for nomadic pupils in Adamawa and Taraba were based on tests devised on syllabuses for pupils in their third year of school, rather than on primary five syllabuses, as would normally have been the case. The performance would, therefore, still be considered quite unsatisfactory. This, in turn, must be interpreted in the context of general pervasive inadequacies in schools, especially in respect of teachers and instructional materials. The absence of any significant difference in statistical terms between mother tongue and English language scores implies that, the advantage, which the mother tongue factor would have shown may have been neutralized by overwhelming school deficiencies. All the same, the slight numerical superiority of scores in Fulfulde over English may still be a pointer to the kind of high achievement to be expected, if everything had been equal, especially if Teachers' Colleges had prepared teachers adequately for teaching in local languages and schools had been fully equipped. A strange situation now exists in nomadic schools where teachers without specialized training in instruction through the mother tongue or in the teaching of the language as a subject are expected to achieve meaningful results with pupils under their care.

The findings presented above are discussed in this section in line with the objectives of the study. These include:

a) Assessing the level of achievement and language competence of pupils and teachers.

b) Examining the differences in achievement levels in reading comprehension and grammar.

c) Determining the language difficulties encountered by pupils and teachers in both Fulfulde and English.

4.4.1 Level of Achievement and Language Competence

In the area of reading, most of the subjects answered correctly questions directed at reading for literal meaning and reading for specific information. These are normally low- level questions in terms of their intellectual demands. The answers are given in the text and merely only need to be spotted out. Questions demanding the reformulation of ideas make higher cognitive and linguistic demands. The candidate may possess full comprehension of what the ideas are in the first instance, make logical deductions before inference and possess the structure and his response. The performance of the candidates was less impressive on questions connected with reading for reformulation of ideas and reading for inference.

The findings also showed that the pupils performed better in Fulfulde grammar than Fulfulde reading comprehension. A plausible explanation is that pupils have not developed a reading culture especially in Fulfulde because of the dearth of reading materials in Fulfulde.

The questions on grammar related to grammatical signals used to suggest changes in meaning such as in plural verbs for plural nouns and use of tense or

adverbs to mark the time of occurrence of specific incidents (see Aliyu, 1982 & Appendix D1, Questions 4,5,7). Covert grammatical methods are used to teach grammatical forms. Invariably, these have as their reference point textbooks in English. Secondly, the cloze procedure when used in any language relies most heavily on contextual clues. It is only the exceptionally gifted learners that attempt to reconstruct the incomplete sentence in their own correct way thereby playing down what we might call their own grammatical sense. These findings are in accord with the anecdotal notes made in the course of data collection specifically those made on classroom observation and textbook evaluation, both of which clearly show the absence of instructional materials in Fulfulde. Native speakers of any language, of course, will always have the advantage of an intuitive knowledge of its grammatical structure.

The returns made on the personal data about the teachers showed that the Taraba teachers were academically more qualified than their counterparts in Adamawa. Most of the Taraba schools in the sample had teachers with either a TC II or NCE as their qualification (see Table 2.15). Interviews held with the teachers revealed that one third of the teachers had an average of nine years teaching experience and have been teaching in the nomadic schools for at least two years. Equally significant is the observation confirmed during the classroom observation that the qualified Taraba teachers turned their academic qualification into professional advantage. More often than not, such teachers varied their classroom techniques such as miming and carefully selected illustrations to teach the items. Invariably too, the atmosphere of the classrooms

were relaxed and a careful observer would notice nothing less than the feel of learning. One can therefore predict that the Taraba teachers would perform better.

4.4.2 Level of Performance of Pupils and Teachers

One of the most revealing findings of this study was that both the pupils and their teachers were reading far below their academic level given the fact that the two language proficiency tests administered were meant for class 3. This points to the fact that reading is not an aspect of Nigerian culture and that schools have not so far inculcated reading as an automatic response when free time is available. During the administration of the tests, it was found that the subjects could not read the instructions written in Fulfulde and English. It was also stunning to find that pupils in class 3 in most of the schools could neither recite letters of the alphabet sequentially nor recognise them when they were displayed on the blackboard. This was quite in tune with the findings of Falayajo's group nation-wide, i.e. that only 8.1% of subjects could copy out five sentences accurately and that as many as 39.6% scored zero in this regard. To expect such pupils to interpret a passage in their own words would be well above the ability of most subjects. The implication of this is that the pupils are expected to have acquired adequate literacy skills in both the MT and English at this level. One would tend to agree with Falayajo et al. (1997) who noted that with the present language in education policy, pupils come into contact with English language from the first day they start school. During this time, they are taught all the academic subjects in the MT, while English is taught as a subject.

By the time they are in class 5, it is assumed that they are literate in both the MT and or the LIC/LWC whichever may be the case. With such a policy in place one would wonder why the performance in the language tests was so abysmal. A ready explanation could be attributed to the level of implementation of such a policy. A close look at the anecdotal notes copiously made by the researcher during the classroom observations revealed the glaring absence of appropriate language teaching materials such as textbooks and teaching syllabus (Curriculum for Nomadic Primary Schools). It was also observed that most of the pupils and teachers did not have copies of the pupils' text and the accompanying teachers' guide. Another plausible reason for the unimpressive performance of both the teachers and pupils may be the way the languages were taught. It was noticed that the teachers make the situation worse by the compounding problem of the pattern of interaction between the teachers and pupils whereby the teacher dominated 80% of the classroom interaction. This brings to mind the findings of both the Ife Six-Year Yoruba project and the MLA project, which attested to the unsatisfactory manner in which English is taught especially in the primary schools. This finding is in agreement with those from the literacy sub-test of the UNESCO/UNICEF/FGN monitoring of learning achievement which was concluded in 1997, and is a serious source of disquiet for any language educator, education administrator involved in language education in general and minority languages in particular.

In Nigeria, most males were given more attention than their female counterparts. The girls were half- trading and half-schooling. Additionally, they

spent more time with their mothers. Teachers in those early years expected their female pupils to perform less successfully than the males (Pygmalion Effect). However, in recent times, this prejudicial gender-related attitude has started wearing off.

The significant difference in reading comprehension in favour of Fulfulde might be due to the fact that the pupils' MT is Fulfulde through which they have received initial instruction. [There is also evidence to show that the underlying process of reading in different languages is similar (Krashen, 1996:24-26)]. That is to say that there is a possible transfer of skills from L1 to L2.

A skill in one particular area of language tends to impinge positively in other areas (Matthew's Hypothesis). For instance, pupils who are very good in listening tend to have it transferred to the area of reading comprehension especially when such readers are faced with contexts to determine meaning and identify and weigh the importance of a sequence of points or items.

In practice too, especially in the early learning situation it has been found that those who are word shy (akin to dyslexia) get easily put off when faced with demanding literacy tasks (Goodman, 1993).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This study was motivated by certain fundamental psycho-sociolinguistic, professional and scholarly factors. More specifically, the study intended to examine the efficacy and practical reality of language use in education component of the NPE (1981) i.e. that the MT or LIC/LWC should be used in education during the first three years. The study sought to verify this. After over twenty years, no concrete evidence has been found to assess the implementation of this policy, especially among minority language groups such as the Fulɓe. Therefore, this study was focussed on the use of Fulfulde in nomadic primary schools in Adamawa and Taraba states. It was believed that the outcome of this study would provide some feedback in respect of the practical reality of implementing the language aspects of the NPE as cited above. It was also believed that since the policy on education emphasised literacy and communication skills in both the MT & English as some of its key objectives, the study should focus on reading comprehension and grammar skills. The involvement of teachers was predicated on two factors. The first was that the teachers themselves should be proficient in literacy and communication skills in whatever language medium they were expected to use. Unless they were competent in these themselves, they would not be able to achieve the

goals of the policy on education in these skills. Secondly, since the MT is to be used, the teachers themselves need to be native-like in their proficiency in both the spoken and literacy aspects, of the language hence the focus on reading and grammar skills. The researcher herself is not only a native user of the language but an educationist with many years of familiarity with literacy matters as they affect the subjects of this study. In order to achieve the above, related literature in the field was extensively reviewed, the purposes being to identify what had been done on this issue here and elsewhere on a similar group, the methodology used, the findings, and to identify any research gaps. The review led to the identification of specific problems such as:

a) poor achievement levels and weak language proficiency levels among Fulɓe pupils and teachers;

b) unsatisfactory learning outcomes;

c) inadequate teaching and learning materials.

A number of hypotheses were derived from these problems and they included the following:

1. There is no significant difference in the mean scores by pupils in the tests of Fulfulde and English in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.

2. There is no significant difference in the mean scores of boys and girls in tests of (a) Fulfulde reading comprehension and (b) Fulfulde grammar.

3. There is no significant difference in the mean scores of boys and girls in tests of (a) English reading comprehension and (b) English grammar.

4. There is no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of Fulfulde in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
5. There is no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of English in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
6. There is no significant difference in the scores of pupils from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of Fulfulde and English.
7. There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers in tests of Fulfulde and English in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
8. There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers from Adamawa and Taraba states in tests of Fulfulde and in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
9. There is no significant difference in the scores of teachers from Adamawa andTaraba states in tests of English in (a) reading comprehension and (b) grammar.
10. There is no significant relationship between scores on Fulfulde and English reading comprehension and grammar tests.

To test these hypotheses, the researcher undertook a broad-based study that employed a combination of observation and survey methods. Earlier studies done to assess literacy and communication skills at the primary level have adopted a single line approach without achieving the triangular effect intended by this study. That is to say, that in today's reality it is not accurate to say that only one variable is totally responsible for the poor learning outcomes recorded in our institutions of learning especially at the primary level.

5.1 Summary of Findings

Based on the objectives of the study and the analyses presented in chapter four the following emerged as the key findings of this study:

5.1.1 Pupil's achievement in Fulfulde and English

The findings revealed broad levels of achievement by the subjects. Subjects (boys and girls) had been subjected to two tests, namely reading comprehension and grammar in Fulfulde and English respectively. Pupils performed slightly better in Fulfulde and grammar where they obtained mean scores of 54.37% (reading) and 64.63% (grammar) respectively than in English where they had mean scores of 53.30% (reading) and 58.62% (grammar) respectively (See Table 4.1). More importantly, the modal score of 60% for Fulfulde (reading and grammar) was clearly superior to those of English, i.e. 50% (reading) and 40% (grammar) respectively. Pupils also had difficulty in English vocabulary structure, spelling, pronunciation, and reading. Judged by the expectations of the syllabuses in Fulfulde and English, these mean scores indicate only average performance, assuming that the syllabuses themselves were appropriately graded for the class used. It will be recalled that the tests administered were based on the primary three curriculum.

The performance of candidates was especially less impressive on questions connected with reformulation of ideas and reading for inference. In spite of this, the performance in English was twice as high as that found in the nation-wide score of 25.2% as reported by Falayajo et al. (1997:v). This raises certain pivotal questions: Could it be that the subjects' proficiency in reading in

the mother tongue, here Fulfulde, is already exacting a positive transfer influence on English? (Krashen, 1998) Could it be that these English test items were too simple or that those of Falayajo and his team were too difficult for their respective subjects? We would naturally expect the subjects to perform better in their mother tongue than in English, under normal circumstances.

It is pertinent to ask if the result in the mother tongue show better performance in reading and grammar, how can this superior performance be transferred to performance in English reading and grammar? Part of the answer would be in the increased self-esteem through success in the mother tongue that children would be aware of and which could facilitate a more confident approach to English learning. Another is in better -trained teachers who can effectively facilitate transfer of skill from one language to another. This is best facilitated where the same teacher teaches these skills in both languages and is therefore able to streamline his/her teaching accordingly.

Further analysis showed differences in achievement in the two states involved in the study. For example, there was higher achievement recorded in Taraba State for both pupils and teachers than in Adamawa State. The differences in the achievements between the two states may be purely accidental or possibly due to certain observable differences in their commitment to education. There appeared to be a better learning atmosphere in Taraba State than in Adamawa and more teachers were better qualified in the former than in the latter.

5.1.2 Teachers' Level of Achievement in Fulfulde and English

In assessing teacher achievement, a cut-off point of 65% was used to determine level of difficulty. That is, where more than 65% of the teachers got an item wrong, that item was considered difficult, while scores between 55% -- 64% reflected relative difficulty. Data analysis showed that teachers had quite similar difficulty with pupils as listed above. Teachers' level of achievement in both languages was low, suggesting an inability to teach both reading comprehension and grammar effectively. For example, as many as 50% and 43.55% had relatively low vocabulary and comprehension scores respectively. The explanation could be that these teachers did not receive adequate teaching themselves while in training and/or never studied Fulfulde in any reasonable manner as was done in the Ife Yoruba Project, for example (see Fafunwa et al., 1989). The availability of sufficient reading materials in libraries is another factor. Other teacher errors were those of phonological interference, spelling, and structure. An alarming 67.46% could not read at the inferential level. Clearly, this may have partly influenced pupils' performance. Low performance in reading is interpretable in several ways in addition to environmental inadequacies. For example, it has been observed that "written language mastery is more than mastery of skills – it is the acquisition of a communication system" (Hasentab; in Simon, 1985:367). Strevens et al. (1982) pointed out that, although verbal abilities were important, the dominant problem in learning to read was that of abstracting meaning from an abstract set of symbols, and that the characteristics of the orthography played a less critical role than had been

proposed (p.179, cited in Krashen, 1996:24 – 25). They had earlier pointed out that similar factors predicated good reading in different languages. If as they also opined, that the amount of general information the children knew was a significant factor in predicting reading scores, it could be argued that the children in this study generally lacked such information.

Statistical analysis confirmed that performance in the two tests was influenced, significantly by gender and location. For example, it was found that, although girls' performance in the language tests was generally better than that of boys, especially in Taraba State schools, the difference between the two states was not statistically significant.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Our recommendations therefore are based on the need to come up with suggestions capable of addressing these negative factors which constrain the successful implementation of the Fulfulde MT policy. The suggestions are in the following areas:

1. Government should show a renewed commitment to the implementation of the language policy as contained in the NPE (1996) by providing adequate funding to all the relevant agencies associated with its implementation. To enhance this, Government and its Agencies should collaborate with cultural associations and language societies (BAI, 1996). Fulfulde language should be available to every student who wishes to learn in it, and government should provide the resources necessary to implement this.

2. There is a need for the vigorous implementation of policy provisions. These areas are well spelt out in the NPE and strategies for their implementation are stated in the BAI document. Specifically, therefore, with regard to Fulfulde teaching, more community involvement and mobilization, through advocacy, should be mounted to acquaint all practitioners in Fulfulde speaking areas at both the policy and practical implementation level with the language provisions of the NPE. Consequently, the NCNE adapted curricula for nomadic primary schools in the eight approved primary schools subjects should be distributed and fully utilized by all the nomadic schools. One must hasten to add that the pupil's textbooks and the accompanying teachers' guides should also be produced, distributed and utilized by all the schools.

3. Realistically, no education programme can rise above the quality of its teachers who are called upon to implement it. Inevitably, the teacher factor becomes a critical one in the success of the FMTM policy and much more effort is needed to raise their level of competence in this area.

Therefore, it is important that well-structured teacher training programmes are put in place to produce the right calibre of teachers who will implement the new curriculum. NCNE, in collaboration with NCCE should replicate the special teacher education programme for nomadic teachers mounted at FCE, Yola and Minna. This will ensure that the teachers obtain the NCE minimum requirement as well as the right attitude and competence to teach in nomadic schools as opposed to the

regular schools. It also calls for a review of teacher education syllabuses and teaching methods. Furthermore, since the available nomadic Fulbe who are teachers are few, there is a need to train non-nomadic people as teachers. Local opportunities for teacher training should be provided in order to encourage greater numbers of fluent speakers of Fulfulde to train as bilingual teachers (e.g. Fulfulde and English, Fulfulde and Hausa, Fulfulde and Yoruba etc).

For already practising teachers, a series of refresher courses focusing on appropriate classroom interactions, the creation of learning environment and on the assumptions and methodology of communicative approaches to language teaching, are essential for the successful implementation of the policy.

Nomadic Education teachers, particularly the Grade 11 Referred, need to take advantage of the in-service training programmes mounted by the NTI and other Institutes and Colleges of Teacher Education to upgrade their qualifications.

4. Furthermore, there is a need to produce instructional materials, adequate in scope and relevance, and motivating supplementary readers for teaching and learning Fulfulde and other languages at the primary school. These texts must satisfy the other criteria of interest, readability, clarity, coverage, adequacy of illustrations and learnability in their conception and design. The NCNE would need to work in partnership with agencies such as NPEC, NTI and the Institutes of Education to

produce these desirable texts. One of the drastic measures that must be taken will be to ensure that all the nomadic primary school teachers have a copy of the teachers' guide. This needs to be written in a robust manner to accommodate the teachers' qualification. In this way, both the low and high quality teachers can use the guide to achieve reasonably good learning outcomes. It will be necessary in future to determine sub-regional reading levels so that they can be used to gauge accurately against the one set at the national level.

5. Finally, a policy will survive or crash, depending on the attitude of the people towards it. Since attitudes underlie all successful attempts in LT, attitudes towards the MT should be changed to forestall the slow pace of implementation of the language policy. There is a need for some form of social engineering aimed at inculcating and sustaining positive attitudes among Fulɓe youths towards their language. This is the most effective way such a campaign would arrest the disturbing incidence of language shift among Fulɓe youths already alluded to in this study. To that extent, a definite societal reward system on both short-term and long-term bases for the use of the mother tongue and the teaching of Nigerian languages must be articulated in order to sustain the level of motivation in schools. This is partly because neither the so-called patriotic policy nor the educationally justifiable policy declaration to use the mother tongue, whichever it may be, can succeed in the context of a more prestigious international language such as English, for example. The NCNE, in

collaboration with language planning agencies, individuals and cultural groups should be actively engaged in the development of the MTs of the various nomadic groups both as MI and subjects of study. Specifically, NCNE should focus on standardisation, graphization and lexical modernization (Ndukwe, 1998).

6. The school environment should be made more conducive to learning through adequate provision of books, facilities and equipment as well as general rehabilitation of buildings in the schools.

7. Continuous assessment (CA) procedures especially for the primary languages should be developed and distributed to teachers for evaluation purposes.

5.3 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has examined the implementation of the FMTM policy and has thrown up possible areas of further research. Three such areas are:

1. Effect of attitude on achievement.

2. Differences in attitudes of the different types of Fulɓe.

3. It will equally be useful, given the evolving socio-linguistic context, to do a language needs assessment of the language needs of Fulɓe students including an examination of their perception of its utility and

pedagogical feasibility. Findings from such studies will certainly add to the emerging literature on FMTM education.

4. Effect of the transition from L1 to L2 on the achievement levels of pupils.

5. Considering the need to have a proper profile of the languages of the nomadic groups, it is recommended that a sociolinguistic survey of the various linguistic groups be conducted in order to provide reliable data on which realistic language plans can be made.

5. One of the major findings of this study was the inability of the subjects to read both the Fulfulde and English test papers. Further research needs to be done to ascertain whether the MT was used as a MI while learning English.

6. Rather than waiting for the government to bear all the responsibility for training qualitatively, the pupils and teachers in the nomadic primary schools, LGAs should be persuaded to shoulder some of the responsibility.

7. Cultivation of individual and group participation inorder to galvanize and promote interest in the activities of the nomadic schools.

8. The critical position of unsolicited researchers, folklorists, pamphleteers and philologists should not be underrated. They could fill the yawning gap created by the dearth of teaching/learning materials.

9. The NCNE should intensify its mobilization and enlightenment activities inorder to strengthen the role of NGOs, CBOs in the revival of the Fulfulde language.

10. The Rivers Readers' Project could serve as a reference model for sensitising Government and the community to the realisation of the need that programmes should have a wide organisational framework.

5.4 CONCLUSION

This study has examined FMTM education by looking at patterns of achievement within it, including attitudes of different categories of implementers, towards it. The findings have brought to the fore the unsatisfactory nature of a curriculum implementation effort which has been marred by low levels of achievement and a-not-so-supportive socio-pedagogic environment. Based on our findings, we have suggested practical as well as policy measures designed to correct the situation. It is our hope that policy makers and practitioners would give these suggestions the attention they deserve since by so doing they will be encouraging the implementation of the provisions of the National Policy on Education and the emergence of true linguistic democracy in a multilingual country such as Nigeria.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: LIST OF SCHOOLS, PUPILS AND TEACHERS IN ADAMAWA STATE

S/N	Name of Schools	Location	LGA	No. of Pupils	No. of Teachers
01	Ardo Musa Nomadic Primary School.	Hong	Hong	13	4
02	Kwampani Nomadic Primary School.	Guyuk	Guyuk	17	4
03	Ngbekendewe Nomadic Primary School.	Demsa	Demsa	18	4
04	Gelgeli Nomadic Primary School.	Gombi	Gombi	6	3
05	Dingai Nomadic Primary School.	Gombi	Gombi	17	3
06	Lagai Nomadic Primary School.	Gombi	Gombi	11	3
07	Mamukan Nomadic Primary School.	Jada	Jada	17	3
08	Sakingo Nomadic Primary School.	M/Belwa	M/Belwa	16	5
09	Douvendu Nomadic Primary School.	Girei	Girei	11	4
10	Matsumin Nomadic Primary School.	Maiha	Maiha	9	3
11	Mbilla Malabu Nomadic Primary School.	M/Malabu	Malabu	20	4
12	Ardo Garandiya Nomadic Primary School.	Sebore	Yola South	9	2
13	Douleggal Nomadic Primary School.	M.Belwa	M/Belwa	10	5
TOTAL				174	47

APPENDIX B: LIST OF SCHOOLS, PUPILS AND TEACHERS IN TARABA STATE

S/N	NAME OF SCHOOL	LOCATION	L.G.A	NO. OF PUPILS IN CLASS	NO. OF TEACHERS
1	Ardo Gaji Nomadic Primary School	Tem	Sardauna	20	3
2	Ardo Gori Nomadic Primary School	Firfir	"	12	6
3	Koko Nomadic Primary School	Zing	Zing	13	3
4	Ardo Kola Nomadic Primary School	Wuro Modibbo	"	10	4
5	Jongore Nomadic Primary School	Jongore	Lau	19	5
6	Nyanari Nomadic Primary School	Nyanari	Yorro	12	4
7	Mandu Nomadic Primary School	Kakara	Kakara Sardauna	20	3
8	Baba Gasa Nomadic Primary School	Baba Gasa	Lau	13	3
9	Nwonko Nomadic Primary School	Nwonko	Wukari	12	3
10	Labbare Nomadic Primary School	Labbare	Wukari	7	3
TOTAL				138	37

APPENDIX C1: ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEST ITEMS FOR TEACHERS IN NOMADIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS (CLASS 5)

Choose the word that best completes the sentence:

1. Audu advised the pupils to make a ... effort in their work.
   a. quick b. good
   c. known d. systematic

2. One of the tables ... moved away by the labourers.
   a. were b. have
   c. has d. was

3. Hassan reads the alphabet ... faster than his twin-brother does
   a. more b. most
   c. very d. much

4. When the pupils were not seen the teachers carried the load...
   a. theirself b. themselves
   c. themselves d. theirselves

5. Nowadays, it is common to see some ladies wearing ... clothes.
   a. men' b. men's
   c. man d. man-made

6. We know the man ... daughter got married last month.
   a. which b. whom
   c. whose d. who

7. Sulaiman is different ... his elder brother
   a. than b. to
   c. with d. from

8. The Headteacher advised that every person should come to school ... time.
   a. at b. on
   c. for d. with

9. The two lorry drivers ... sounded their horn before the accident.
   a. both b. they
   c. who d. all

10. Some ... elephants were transported by air to London.
    a. baby b. babies
    c. baby's d. babyish

11. Soon ... their arrival the concert started.
    a. early b. later
    c. half way d. after

12. I read my book yesterday. The correct pronunciation of the work "read" is the same as:
    a. red b. raid
    c. rid d. ride

13. The man knows a lot of philosophy. The first sound in the underlined word is:
    a. p b. h
    c. f d. I

14. Many pupils bring corn to school during the rainy season. The word underlined begins with the following sound:
    a. k b. c
    c. d d. h

15. In performing the little drama the teacher asked the class to follow her cue. The underlined word has the same pronunciation as:
    a. quay b. queue
    c. queer d. cool

16. Mairo can knit very well. This means that she is...
    a. talented b. neat
    c. serious d. big

17. An express letter was brought to the Headteacher's office. This means that the letter was:

18. Salihu was always holding the class back. This means that Salihu was:
    a. slow b. strong
    c. sensible d. impatient

19. The teacher told the pupils not to tear ... pages from their exercise books.
    a. in b. off
    c. of d. away

20. Dahiru ran ..... fast that nobody could catch up with him.
    a. that b. rarely
    c. so d. such

APPENDIX C2: ITEM ANALYSIS FOR ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEST FOR TEACHERS.

State	Question Number	Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Adamawa	Vocabulary 1	34	2	6%
	Tense 5	34	2	6%
	Pronunciation 4	33	3	8%
	Number 2	31	5	14%
	Tense 3	28	8	22%
	Adverb 20	26	10	28%
	Preposition 8	25	11	31%
	Number 9	25	11	31%
	Adjective 10	25	11	31%
	Vocabulary 18	25	11	31%
	Pronunciation 6	24	12	33%
	Adverb 11	24	12	33%
	Vocabulary 17	24	12	33%
	Vocabulary 19	23	13	36%
	Pronunciation 12	22	14	39%
	Pronunciation 13	21	15	42%
	Pronunciation 14	21	15	42%
	Vocabulary 16	20	16	44%
	Preposition 12	18	18	50%
	Pronunciation 15	8	28	78%

APPENDIX C2 (Contd)

State	Question Number	Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Taraba	Pronunciation 6	26	11	30%
	Preposition 8	25	12	32%
	Vocabulary 1	24	13	35%
	Preposition 7	24	13	35%
	Adverb 20	24	13	35%
	Pronunciation 4	22	15	41%
	Vocabulary 16	22	15	41%
	Pronunciation 12	21	16	43%
	Tense 3	20	17	46%
	Adverb 11	20	17	46%
	Pronunciation 14	18	19	51%
	Vocabulary 18	18	19	51%
	TN 5	16	21	57%
	Vocabulary 19	16	21	57%
	Number 2	12	25	68%
	Pronunciation 13	11	26	70%
	Number 9	10	27	73%
	Adjective 10	10	27	73%
	Pronunciation 15	10	27	73%
	Vocabulary 17	8	29	78%

APPENDIX D1: ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEST ITEMS FOR PUPILS IN NOMADIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS (CLASS 5)

For each sentence below select the correct answer from the list given:

1. When Hafsat visited Lagos, she saw some boats that were far away on the...
   a. seal b. sieve
   c. see d. sea

2. Malik's father has a large ... of cows
   a. heard b. hard
   c. head d. herd

3. The Headteacher ... a letter to the parents.
   a. rode b. wrote
   c. write d. ride

4. The woman ... the fish before it was dark.
   a. fried b. tried
   c. pride d. try

5. Yesterday, Mahmud ... near my sister.
   a. sat b. sit
   c. seat d. side

6. The teacher arranged his books ... called out the names.
   a. which b. that
   c. were d. and

7. Some children ... driven home last week.
   a. was b. will
   c. were d. are

8. The birds enjoy ... about in the morning.
   a. plying b. flying
   c. prying d. crying

9. The ... was very bright last night.
   a. moon b. noon
   c. milk d. brook

10. Some pupils help their parents to ... in the market.
    a. search b. saves
    c. cell d. sell

11. The teacher asked for ... pencil to write with.
    a. warn b. won
    c. one d. worn

12. In the word photograph, the first two letters are pronounced as:
    a. p b. v
    c. f d. h

13. The mother got a new ... for Hadiza's uniform.
    a. zip b. sip
    c. jip d. dip

14. ..... the bell goes, the pupils come out for break.
    a. Why b. So
    c. When d. That

15. The person who repairs the door or table or bench is called a...
    a. Carpenter b. Carpentry
    c. Car-painter d. Car-owner

16. Singer is to singing as ... is to cooking.

17. The writer is to the book as the driver is to the...

18. Sabo likes his ... shoes very much
    a. rude b. read
    c. red d. raid

19. The teacher stretched ... his right hand.
    a. out b. of
    c. away d. at

20. The Headteacher ... all those pupils who were late.
    a. beet b. beat
    c. bight d. bit

Read the following stories and put the sentences in their correct order. The first one has been done for you.

Example:

1. Many people tried to help.
2. The fire spread to some houses nearby.
3. The house near the clinic caught fire.
4. But some went along to steal.

The correct order of the above story is as follows:

1. The house near the clinic caught fire.
2. The fire spread to some housed nearby.
3. Many people tried to help.
4. But some went along to steal.

21. A. The nurse treated Maryam.
    B. She went to the clinic.
    C. Maryam had fever last week.
    D. The Doctor was not present.

22. A. Sanusi has his birthday party.
    B. The party ended in the evening.
    C. Plenty of food was served.
    D. Many people attended the party.

23. A. Mustafa took his water bottle along.
    B. Mustafa went to the stream last Saturday.
    C. Mustafa was very angry.
    D. Mustapha did not get any clean water.

24. A. The pupils were given some to read.
    B. The class teacher got many storybooks.
    C. Some were full of colourful pictures.
    D. Some had many nice stories.

25. A. The farmers planted some seeds.
    B. It rained last week.
    C. They grew very fast.
    D. The farmers looked after their crops.

The following words are given in sets of four items, one of them is a general term. Underline the general term. The first one has been done for you.

A. Yellow
B. Green
C. Blue
D. Colour

26. A. Person
    B. Baby
    C. Woman
    D. Uncle

27. A. Monkey
    B. Dog
    C. Animal
    D. Cat

28. A. Maize
    B. Food
    C. Cassava
    D. Rice

29. A. Ardo
    B. Pendo
    C. Names
    D. Jauro

30. A. Ruler
    B. Stick
    C. Rope
    D. Things
31. A. Katsina
    B. Towns
    C. Bauchi
    D. Lagos
32. A. Small
    B. Big
    C. Large
    D. Size
33. A. Evening
    B. Morning
    C. Afternoon
    D. Time
34. A. Boil
    B. Roast
    C. Try
    D. Cook
35. A. Number
    B. Many
    C. Few
    D. Several.

APPENDIX D2: ITEM ANALYSIS FOR ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEST FOR PUPILS.

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Adamawa	Spelling	10	140	7	5%
	Spelling	11	140	7	5%
	Spelling	1	138	9	6%
	Vocabulary	9	130	17	12%
	Inference	4	124	23	16%
	Inference	8	122	25	17%
	Spelling	2	120	27	18%
	Tense	7	120	27	18%
	Pronunciation	12	120	27	18%
	Spelling	3	116	31	21%
	Vocabulary	14	116	31	21%
	Spelling	17	114	33	22%
	Tense	5	112	35	24%
	Conjunction	6	110	37	25%
	Vocabulary	33	110	37	25%
	Vocabulary	34	110	37	25%
	Vocabulary	15	100	47	32%
	Vocabulary	16	100	47	32%
	Vocabulary	32	100	47	32%
	Preposition	18	98	49	33%
	Conjunction	13	96	51	35%
	Vocabulary	31	96	51	35%
	Vocabulary	35	96	51	35%
	PLK	20	95	52	35%
	Vocabulary	28	92	55	37%
	PLk	21	90	57	39%
	PLK	23	90	57	39%
	Lexicon/Phonological	19	86	61	41%
	Vocabulary	27	86	61	41%
	Vocabulary	29	85	62	42%
	PLK	22	80	67	46%
	Vocabulary	26	78	69	47%
	Vocabulary	30	76	71	48%
	PLK	25	75	72	49%
	PLK	24	50	97	66%

APPENDIX D2 (Contd)

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Taraba	Spelling	1	128	10	7%
	Lexicon/Phonological	4	128	10	7%
	Conjunction	6	128	10	7%
	Vocabulary	9	128	10	7%
	Vocabulary	14	128	10	7%
	Vocabulary	15	128	10	7%
	Tense	7	126	12	9%
	Spelling	2	120	18	13%
	Lexicon/Phonological	8	120	18	13%
	PLK	20	120	18	13%
	Tense	5	118	20	14%
	Spelling	10	118	20	14%
	Conjunction	13	118	20	14%
	Spelling	11	115	23	17%
	Vocabulary	28	92	26	22%
	Vocabulary	16	110	28	20%
	PLK	21	90	28	24%
	Vocabulary	29	85	28	25%
	Vocabulary	27	86	30	26%
	Preposition	18	100	38	28%
	Spelling	3	98	40	29%
	Vocabulary	26	78	40	34%
	Vocabulary	30	76	40	34%
	Spelling	17	96	42	30%
	Lexicon/Phonological	19	96	42	30%
	Vocabulary	31	96	42	30%
	Vocabulary	32	88	50	36%
	Pronunciation	12	86	52	38%
	PLK	23	90	52	37%
	Vocabulary	33	84	54	39%
	Vocabulary	34	84	54	39%
	PLK	22	80	62	44%
	Vocabulary	35	75	63	46%
	PLK	25	75	72	49%
	PLK	24	50	112	69%

APPENDIX E1: **ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION TEST**

Name: .....

School: .....

Date: .....

Tudun Wada is a small town in Kano State. It is near Bagauda. Tudun Wada is famous for different crops. Adamu owns a big land. He plants cotton and maize on his land. Any visitor easily notices Adamu's fields. At times cows pull the tools used on the field.

In 1976 cotton and maize became very low in price. Adamu started selling kerosene. He opened a big station. Adamu put two boys in the station. They were doing very well. But in 1977 thieves went to the station. Everybody felt very angry and sad.

Immediately, Adamu sold all his remaining belongings. He left for Yola. Ten years later Adamu returned to Tudun Wada. He started a school. He began to teach small children about Allah. The School soon grew in size. Many went to learn. But some just went to look.

Questions:

1 a) Give a good title for this story.....

b) The towns name in this story were:.....

2. What was Adamu's first job?

3. Give the name of any tool that you know

.....

4. Why did Adamu start selling kerosene?

5. What happened to Adamu's kerosene station?

6. Where did Adamu go? .....

7. Another word for belongings is .....

8. "The school soon grew in size". This means that the school became

.....

9. Adamu's three jobs were:

a. .....

b. .....

c. .....

10. Which year did Adamu return to Tudun Wada?

.....

APPENDIX E2: **ITEM ANALYSIS FOR ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION TEST FOR PUPILS.**

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Adamawa	Information	3	124	50	29%
	Vocabulary	7	112	62	36%
	Information	6	100	74	43%
	Inference	4	98	76	44%
	Inference	9	80	94	54%
	Information	1	74	100	57%
	Information	5	66	108	62%
	Information	2	65	109	63%
	Vocabulary	8	65	109	63%
	Inference	10	38	136	78%
Taraba	Information	2	110	28	20%
	Vocabulary	8	108	30	22%
	Information	6	104	34	25%
	Information	3	100	38	28%
	Inference	4	90	48	35%
	Information	5	70	68	49%
	Vocabulary	7	58	80	58%
	Inference	9	48	90	65%
	Inference	10	48	90	65%
	Information	1	46	92	67%

APPENDIX E3: **ITEM ANALYSIS FOR ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION TEST FOR TEACHERS.**

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Adamawa	Information	3	30	6	17%
	Information	2	28	8	22%
	Information	4	26	10	28%
	Information	5	24	12	33%
	Vocabulary	8	22	14	39%
	Information	1	20	16	44%
	Information	6	20	16	44%
	Inference	9	20	16	44%
	Vocabulary	7	18	18	50%
	Information	10	10	26	72%
Taraba	Information	3	32	5	14%
	Information	5	30	7	19%
	Information	2	28	9	24%
	Vocabulary	8	28	9	24%
	Inference	9	26	11	30%
	Inference	1	24	13	35%
	Information	4	24	13	35%
	Information	6	22	15	41%
	Vocabulary	7	16	21	57%
	Inference	10	15	22	59%

APPENDIX F1: <u>POONDIRDI SUKAABE /BIKKON DI FULFULDE</u>

Inde .....

Inde Jangirde .....

Suudu/Aji .....

Jiha .....

Hukuma pamara .....

Subtu kebbitinirgol jumla fuu nder kalimaaji tokkinaaɗi ka din ɗon.

1. No Buuba yeewiri ruulde ni o anndi ..... toɓai.
   - A- iyeende
   - B- henndu
   - C- ndiyam
   - D- maayo
2. Haaro ..... tawaaka.
   - A- oorii
   - B- ɗaani
   - C- jalii
   - C- finii
3. Mawɗo moodiɓɓe ..... amin yahii Makka.
   - A- luumo
   - B- na'i
   - C- janngirde
   - D- suudu
4. Yaapendo ..... kosam.
   - a- yoogoyii
   - B- teenoyii
   - C- lootoyii
   - D- sippoyii

5. Nde Buulo ..... sey ɓe fuh ɓe nde'iti siruw".

   a- janngi

   B- jali

   C- telɓi

   D- doggi

6. To nagge waatay neɗɗo boo.....

   A- saaɗay

   B- halkay

   C- dillay

   D- maayay

7. Nyaamuɗo dey.....

   A- haarata

   B- ɗaanoto

   C- janngata

   D- jeeɗotoo

8. Bello ɗon maɓɓiti ..... jannga.

   A- suudu

   B- deftere

   C- reediyo

   D- binndirgol

9. Leelewal sey ..... yi'etee.

   A- lewru

   B- naange

   C- jemma

   D- fajiri

10. Moy ..... leɗɗe kojole?

   A- teeni

   B- yoogi

   C- winndi

   D- nyaami

11. Moddibbo jaɓii ..... ngam winndira.

    A- sawru

    B- binndirgol

    C- ndaangol

    D- horde

12. Waandu nanndii e .....

    A- mbaalu

    B- neɗɗo

    C- ginnaaɗo

    D- fowru

13. Nagge Njobdi ..... keenya.

    A- rimii

    B- ɗaanoto

    C- hani

    D- nguuri

14. Biɓɓe janngirde Labbaare leldaama ..... daga Kaduna ngam njannga.

    A- defte

    B- nyiiri

    C- ndiyam

    D- ceede

15. Kala mardo nagge fuh on woni.....

    A- demowo

    B- Ardo

    C- gaynaako

    D- pullo

16. Gimoowo yimata ..... boo sey defa.

    A- ɓirudo

    B- janngudo

    C- ɗaaniido

    D- defoowo

17. Dawa sey mallumjo, kusel boo sey .....

A- duroowo

B- banngaaro

C- laanyowo

D- moodibbo

18. Awdi ɗaanake haa ɗon .....

A- hara

B- sinngini

C- woya

D- jeedïi

19. Nyaako haari'en yoomtinay ..... muum'en hannde.

A- geroodɛ

b- na'i

C- pucci

D- ngesa

20. Moodibbo ..... sakitiiɓe warki janngirde fuh hannde.

A- hirsay

B- latay

C- ɓoccay

D- mbaray

21. Janngu habaruuji garooji ɗï'i nden codindiraadï/a windiraadï no haani. A waɗanaama arandewol kam misaalu.

a- Duudɓe ndogganii wallitoyki.

b- Yiite nge layi sey nde nanngi ci'e taariiɗe ɗon kam fuh.

C- Saare wonnde kombi hurgordu kam nanngii yiite.

d- Ammaa woɓɓe boo nguyka yaari ɓe.

22. Ndaa no jusbol ngol haani wona:

a. Saare wonnde kombi hurgordu kam nanngii yiite.

b. Yiite ngen layi sey nde nanngi ci'e taariiɗe kam fuh.

c. Duuddɓe dogganii wallitoyki.

d. Ammaa woɓɓe boo nguyka yaari ɓe.

23. a- Naasjo nyawndi Mayrama.

b- O yahii nyawudordu.

c- Piyal nanngii Mayrama.

d- Doktaajo kam walaa ɗon.

24. A- Sanuusi waɗɗii huunto/lamar mawhuudu.

B- Huumto ngon sakake alaasara.

C- Nyaamduuji keyɗi nyaamnaa.

D- Lenyol ɗuuɗgol moobtake ngam huumto ngon.

25. A- Mustafa dillidii e kolbaaru ndiyam muum.

B- Mustafa yahii maayo/caangol asawe saaliinde.

C- Mustafa sunii masin.

D- Mustafa hebaayi ndiyam laaɓɗam.

26. A- Bikkon kon ta'anaama e njangata.

B- Jannginoowo woodi defte kubaruuji ɗuuɗɗe.

C- Goɗɗe keewu mbeeluuji/footooji nooni noonidinaa ɗi.

D- Goɗɗe boo kubaruuji beldi mari.

27. A- Remooɓe aawii aawdi ngonndi.

B- Dum toɓii keenya.

C- Ndi haaftii saa'atan.

D- Remooɓe ɓen ɗon ayni aawe muum'en.

28. Kalimaaji garooji ɗii boo fuu ɗi ngadaama nay nay nder yabbere woore, ammaa gootol mooɓay ɗi, ɗi fuh. Diidu les maagol.

A waɗanaama arandewol dow misaalu, bano nii:

A- oolum

b- haako haakojum

C- asamaajum

D- lawni

29. A- nedɗo
    B- baddel
    C- debbo
    D- Bappa
30. A- waandu
    B- ɓoosaaru/kutiiru
    C- ndabbawa
    D- faatuuru/muujuuru
31. A- wutaandu/masardu
    B- nyaamndu
    C- mbayji
    D- maaroori/maaro.
32. A- Ardo
    B- Penndo
    C- Inde
    D- Jawro
33. A- darnirgal diidol/ruula
    B- sawru
    C- ɓoggol
    D- kuuje/are
33. A- Katsina
    B- gure
    C- Bawci
    D- Leegos
34 a- pamarum
    B- mawɗum
    C- jaayɗum
    D- mawnirka/njaajirka.
35. A- kiikiɗe/alaasara
    B- fajiri/subaka

C- nyalawma

D- wakkati

36. A- dolla

B- wula

C- sa'a

D- defol

37. A- lammba

B- ɗuuɗɗum

C- seɗɗa

D- ɓurnaa

APPENDIX F2: **ITEM ANALYSIS FOR FULFULDE GRAMMAR TEST FOR PUPILS.**

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Adamawa	Vocabulary	1	140	34	20%
	PLK	24	140	34	20%
	Vocabulary	31	140	34	20%
	Phonological/Lexicon	4	130	44	25%
	PLK	21	130	44	25%
	Preposition	13	128	46	26%
	Vocabulary	34	128	46	26%
	Vocabulary	35	126	48	28%
	Vocabulary	28	124	50	29%
	Tense	2	122	52	30%
	Lexicon/Phonological	16	122	52	30%
	Vocabulary	32	122	52	30%
	Vocabulary	33	120	54	31%
	Vocabulary	11	120	60	33%
	Vocabulary	6	120	64	35%
	Lexicon/Phonological	8	120	64	35%
	Vocabulary	3	120	72	38%
	Tense	4	120	72	38%
	Vocabulary	9	120	72	38%
	Tense	18	120	72	38%
	Lexicon/Phonological	19	120	72	38%
	PLK	23	120	72	38%
	Vocabulary	29	120	72	38%
	Spelling	10	100	74	43%
	Tense	12	100	74	43%
	Conjunction	15	100	74	43%
	Spelling	20	100	74	43%
	PLK	22	100	74	43%
	Vocabulary	26	94	80	46%
	Vocabulary	17	92	82	47%
	PLk	25	92	82	47%
	Vocabulary	7	90	84	48%
	Vocabulary	27	88	86	49%
	Vocabulary	5	78	96	55%
	Vocabulary	30	78	96	55%

APPENDIX F2 (Contd)

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Taraba	Lexicon/Phonological	14	130	8	6%
	Vocabulary	1	128	10	7%
	Vocabulary	33	120	18	13%
	Tense	2	118	20	14%
	Vocabulary	6	118	20	14%
	Lexicon/phonological	8	118	20	14%
	Vocabulary	11	118	20	14%
	Lexicon/Phonological	16	118	20	14%
	PLK	21	118	20	14%
	Preposition	13	116	22	16%
	PLK	24	116	22	16%
	Vocabulary	35	114	24	17%
	Vocabulary	28	112	26	19%
	Vocabulary	34	116	28	19%
	Vocabulary	31	110	28	20%
	Vocabulary	3	98	40	29%
	Tense	4	98	40	29%
	Vocabulary	7	98	40	29%
	Tense	18	98	40	29%
	Lexicon/Phonological	19	98	40	29%
	PLK	23	98	40	29%
	Vocabulary	29	98	40	29%
	Vocabulary	32	98	40	29%
	Vocabulary	5	86	52	38%
	Vocabulary	17	86	52	38%
	PLK	22	86	52	38%
	Vocabulary	26	78	60	43%
	Vocabulary	9	76	62	45%
	PLK	25	76	62	45%
	Spelling	10	66	72	52%
	Tense	12	66	72	52%
	Conjunction	15	56	82	59%
	Spelling	20	56	82	59%
	Vocabulary	27	56	82	59%
	Vocabulary	30	20	118	86%

APPENDIX G1: <u>POONDIRDI JANNGI NOOƁE DI FULFULDE (Be hitaande 5)</u>

Inde .....

Inde Jangirde .....

Suudu/Aji .....

Jiha .....

Hukuma pamara .....

Subtu timmitinirngol kaandungol

1. Jaa'e wa'ake puccu ndanewu .....
   - A- tal
   - B- coy
   - C- soosay
   - D- masin
2. Fulɓe ɗuuɗɓe ..... Makka rowani.
   - A- njahay
   - B- yahii
   - C- njahii
   - D- njahata
3. Ndaarnooɓe ..... laggudi.
   - A- pewii
   - B- nyaami
   - C- laɓii
   - D- moorii
4. Fowru woyii ..... majji.
   - A- ceede
   - B- mbeewa
   - C- haayre
   - D- raande

5. Rawaandu nde darii gaɗa waalde umsi, sey nde na'i .....

   A- nyaari

   B- ndoggi

   C- mbooki

   D- kaɓi

6. Faatuuru ..... ɓurii.....

   A- ngel + ngela

   B- ɗo'o + to'o

   C- ndu'u + nduya

   D- ɗu'um + ɗuma

7. Wukku koo ngole fuh to haani nasta. tal, cur, cir, coy, pul, pat, cip cak, fuh, ciɗok.

   a. Nde raneere .....

   b. Deftere hesere .....

   c. Ndi timmii .....

   d. Nde heewii .....

   e. Kaaɓo boɗeejo .....

   f. Haayre mutii .....

8. Subtu kala innde fuh soomoore muuɗum nder garooji ɗi'i kebbinira jumla ma.

A	B	C
Inde	Soomoore	
Maayo	ko'o	
Na'o	Ngoo	
Nyalahol	ɗi'i	
Ndihal	ɗe'e	
Nyiiri	ɓe'e	(woodii/mboodii)
Baali	nge'el	
Juuɗe	ka'al	
Binngum	ko'on	
Fulɓe	ngu'um	
Kaaɗel	ndi'i	

9. Jumlaaji noy keɓata nder haatummere nde'e:

	Pewii Yahii Njalii	
A, Mi, O, Be, On, En	Jalii Warii Ngarii Fewii	luumo, mawɗo, haal.

10. Tefan koo ngole njaadu muuɗum nder kalimaaji garooji ɗi'i hakkunde A be B.

A	B
Pullo	Jeaaɓe
Ngesa	Makka
Luumo	Pulaaku
Mbedu/nyorgo	Gawri
Kosam	Laanyowo
Deftere	Mooddibbo
Moota	Nagge
Hijjooɓɓe	Soorooɓe
Allah	Tummude

Subtu koo ngole e ngol yaadi nder garooji les ɗi'i.

11. O wii liinam gulaangal ngal do mi yewa ko'e am.
    - A- kusel
    - B- leggal
    - C- paɗal
    - D- gerogal

12. Keccam sey kecco.
    - A- ndiyam
    - B- kosam
    - C- nebbam
    - D- ɲiiyam

13. Mbakkaandi kurkitataa.
    - A- ngaari
    - B- gawri

C- asugumri/njakarari
D- nyiiri

Subtu kebbitiniraa.

14. Mo Allah wuji.....
    A- yoorrata
    B- nyorwata
    C- Furɗata
    D- nywata

15. Walaa tagoowo sey .....
    A- Nasaaraajo
    B- Jawmirawo
    C- Annabiijo
    D- Waloojo

16. Ko nastani be'el nastanay .....
    A- paaɓel
    B- powel
    C- ɓaalel
    D- paatuyel

17. Tonaa ɗum jemma ni, too ɗum .....
    A- Fajiri
    B- Zuura
    C- Asira
    D- naange

18. Tefan koo ngole lawlum hakkande A bee B.

A	B
Daneejo	Majjuɗo
Annduɗo	Geeto
Gorko	Debbo
Juuɗ ɗo	Dammuɗo
Takɗo	Less
Nyawɗo	Caahiiɗo
Maayɗo	Jamo
Pewoowo	Tagaaɗo
Dow	Baleejo
Coldo	

19. Hebbitinir jumlaaji garooji ɗi'i bee kalimaaji jaaɗooji.

a. To a 'yeewi cuurɗe ni ..... don les.

i- yiite
ii- leɗɗe
iii- yulɓe
iv- ashana

b. Nde ma'yyere ma'yyi fuh ..... kalbay.

i- malimallooje
ii- iyeende
iii- riggaango
iv- leelewal

c. Limngal Fulfulde nay haaɗi ko tokkii fuu ɗum .....

i- jowi
ii- joyi
iii- jeego'o
iv- limngal

20. Kala kalimawol gonngol nder 'A' fuh debbum maagol ɗon nder 'B' too teerindirai:

A	B
Tatiiri	Bota
Asugumri	Mboorta
Muusa	Demmo
Njawɗiri	Nyalahol
Ramnde	Cofal
Fiiri	Leɗɗe
Nyaari	Tokkere
Yinake	Colli
Lati	Liingu
Hari	Wamnde
Waɗɗii	Na'i
Toɓii	Daaniiɗo
Wurwaama	Nyallunde
Ndulaama	Ryeende
Kaɓɓaama	Maayo

APPENDIX G2: **ITEM ANALYSIS FOR FULFULDE GRAMMAR TEST FOR TEACHERS.**

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Adamawa	Noun Clause	2	32	15	32%
	Noun Clause	1	30	17	36%
	Vocabulary	4	30	17	36%
	Noun Clause	3	28	19	40%
	Vocabulary	5	28	19	40%
	Noun Clause	18	28	19	40%
	Vocabulary	13	26	21	45%
	Vocabulary	16	26	21	45%
	Vocabulary	17	26	21	45%
	Vocabulary	20	26	21	45%
	Vocabulary	14	25	22	47%
	Noun Phrase	12	24	23	49%
	Spelling	19	24	23	49%
	Tense	11	22	25	53%
	Pronunciation	9	20	27	57%
	Vocabulary	10	20	27	57%
	Adverb	21	20	27	57%
	Vocabulary	6	18	29	62%
	Vocabulary	7	15	32	68%
	Interference	8	13	34	72%
	Conjunction	15	12	35	74%
	PLK	22	12	35	74%
Taraba	PLK	22	8	29	22%
	Conjunction	15	10	27	27%
	Vocabulary	13	13	24	35%
	Vocabulary	7	14	23	38%
	Interference	8	14	23	38%
	Noun Phrase	12	15	22	41%
	Adverb	21	15	22	41%
	Vocabulary	6	16	21	43%
	Pronunciation	9	16	21	43%
	Vocabulary	20	16	21	43%
	Vocabulary	10	17	20	46%
	Tense	11	17	20	46%
	Spelling	19	18	19	49%
Taraba	Noun Clause	27	19	18	51%
	Vocabulary	14	21	16	57%
	Vocabulary	17	21	16	57%
	Vocabulary	5	23	14	62%
	Vocabulary	16	23	14	62%

APPENDIX G2: **ITEM ANALYSIS FOR FULFULDE GRAMMAR TEST FOR TEACHERS Cont.**

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Taraba	Noun Clause	18	25	12	68%
	Noun Clause	1	27	10	73%
	Vocabulary	4	27	10	73%
	Noun Clause	2	30	8	79%

APPENDIX H1: **FULFULDE READING COMPREHENSION TEST**

IYAALU AaDAMU

Woodi demowo fere wi'eteeɗo Aadamu. Aadamu ɗon joodii nder wuro wi'etengo Laamorde. Aadamu ɗon remta butaali nder ngesaa muuɗum. Oɗon mari debbo go'oto wi'eteɗo Buulo.

Buulo e Aadamu ndaidii ɓiɓɓe tato,worɓe ɗiɗo, debbo go'oto. Inde biɗɗo debbo man Faatu. Hanko woni afo maɓɓe. O woodi duuɓi sappo e joyi. Aadamu e Buulo fuh ngiɗii ɓiɓɓe maɓɓe masin. Be ɗon nder ngeendam ceyniiɗum e de'itol hakkiilo koondei.

JAABU EMƊE ƊE.

(1) Noi inde wuro Adamu'en?

(2) Ngale Aadamu huuwata?

(3) Ɗume O remata ha ngesa maako?

(4) Noi inde deboo Aadamu?

(5) Biɓɓe noi Aadamu mari?

(6) Noi ngurndam Aadamu woni e iyaalu mako?

(7) A yiɗi no Aadamu joo'ɗi di be iyalu mum na?

(8) Ko waaɗi?

APPENDIX H2: **ITEM ANALYSIS FOR FULFULDE READING COMPREHENSION TEST FOR PUPILS.**

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Adamawa	Information	3	140	7	5%
	Information	1	138	9	6%
	Vocabulary	5	138	9	6%
	Information	7	138	9	6%
	Information	4	136	11	7%
	Information	2	120	27	18%
	Vocabulary	6	100	47	32%
	Interference	8	90	57	39%
Taraba	Interference	7	134	4	3%
	Vocabulary	5	132	6	4%
	Vocabulary	3	130	8	6%
	Information	4	128	10	7%
	Information	1	126	12	9%
	Information	2	100	38	28%
	Vocabulary	6	98	40	29%
	Lexicon/Phonological	8	88	50	36%

APPENDIX H3: ITEM ANALYSIS FOR FULFULDE READING COMPREHENSION TEST FOR TEACHERS.

State	Question Number		Right	Wrong	% Wrong
Adamawa	Lexicon/Phonological	8	25	12	32%
	Vocabulary	6	23	14	38%
	Information	3	20	17	46%
	Information	1	19	18	49%
	Lexicon/Phonological	8	18	19	51%
	Information	2	14	23	62%
	Information	4	11	26	70%
	Vocabulary	5	10	27	73%
Taraba	Vocabulary	6	28	8	22%
	Lexicon/Phonological	8	26	10	28%
	Information	2	22	14	39%
	Lexicon/Phonological	8	20	16	44%
	Information	3	17	19	53%
	Information	1	16	20	56%
	Information	4	12	24	67%
	Vocabulary	5	8	28	78%