

Supervising the Use of Mother Tongue Language in K-12 Education: IP School in Focus

Mary Ann C. Sobrecarey¹, Lorna T. General²

1 & 2 University of Mindanao, Professional Schools, Davao City, Philippines

1 maryannsobrecarey@gmail.com

2 hersheygeneral@yahoo.com

Abstract-The purpose of this phenomenological study was to investigate and analyze the supervision of the use of mother tongue language in K to 12 education in Caraga Davao Oriental. Employing phenomenological approach with 14 school heads, in-depth interview and focus group discussion were conducted which revealed that most of the participants' experiences in supervising mother tongue were frustration with ineptitude, collateral complications, collaboration among teachers, improved student engagement, and compassionate intervention. The coping mechanisms of the participants include being keen and efficient, being scientific and methodical, being creative and resourceful, peer mentoring, and benchmarking. Despite the rigors of life, the respondents shared insights based on their experiences. These include MTB language promotes cultural preservation, teachers need steady support, and administrators need a helping hand. The study implies that their realization after supervising and upon implementing what they have learned, they were amazed of the transformation that happened to their teachers in particular and the schools in general.

Keywords- educational management; supervising; mother-tongue; IP schools; focus; Philippines

1. INTRODUCTION

Lack of teacher-training includes unpreparedness of the teachers to teach their learners with the use of mother tongue as their medium of instruction considering that their pupils have different mother tongues. With pupils who are not all speakers of the same mother tongue, teachers have difficulty when they are not experts of the different mother tongues. In this situation, the teacher would rather use the language that is understandable to the pupils. This weakens the implementation of mother tongue. Since the vernaculars are also deemed auxiliary languages of instruction. The use of non-dominant languages in education is allowed in some countries while the Philippines is the single country to institute a national policy requiring their inclusion in the early grades. As a result, the implementation of Mother Tongue-Based of Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) in the Philippines is being looked at as an example for the rest of the region (Quijano & Eustaquio, 2009)[84].

Furthermore, MTB-MLE has rarely been contested on pedagogical ground, but structural challenges can impede proper implementation of this program. Amidst claims of success with MTB-MLE, Dutcher (2003) admitted that it is ultimately ineffective when there is lack of materials, poor teacher training, and inadequate language development. Ambatchew (2010)[4] also argued that unless a rich environment of books, posters, television and radio programs are created in the medium or media of instruction, the students are doomed to failure. While materials development has been supported by many non-profit or non-governmental organizations, the capacity is

limited to only certain communities. Even still, these organizations have provided stronger material support for 38 mother tongue initiatives than the national government in many circumstances (Bloch, Guzula & Nkence, 2010)[15].

In addition, education in the Philippines begins in a language the learners do not understand, like using English in teaching Science and Mathematics. Because children do not understand the language of education, many of them become discouraged and even dropped out from school. Content of instructional materials is often culturally distant and even unfamiliar to learners resulting to poor or low achievement. Hence the limited education learners received do not prepare them to lifelong learning, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2009)[107].

On the other hand, the native languages spoken in the province of Davao Oriental are Kamayo also known as Mandaya, Cebuano and Chavacano de Davao are also being spoken by some people who migrated from the different provinces. Decisions about which languages will serve as the medium of instruction and the treatment of children's home languages in the education system exemplify the exercise of power, the manufacture of marginalization and the unfulfilled promise of children's rights. It has also been reported that if children are taught in languages which are different from their home language or mother tongue, they drop out from school, have low academic performance, and repeat classes due to a high



failure rate (Mother Tongue-Based MLE conference in the Philippines, 2010).

The superintendent at the time of the study maintains that linguistic marginalization of minority language groups and their political and socio-economic marginalization go hand in hand and that one is the consequence of the other. There is the very real challenge of multiple languages in a classroom. This is not just the challenge of dealing with one minority and one majority language, but of a number of languages whether minority or majority. Students from minority language contexts are most adversely affected by the bilingual Filipino and English policy because they have less exposure to the official languages and often enter school with few verbal skills in either language. As a result of poor language comprehension, students' content knowledge and literacy skills suffer.

There are different studies on the effective strategies of teachers in implementing the MTB-MLE in a multilingual education in support of the policy on mother tongue-based literacy. However, I have not come across of a qualitative research done specifically on the experiences of school administrators supervising the use of Mother Tongue Language in K-12 Education in the local setting. I also traced a research on mother tongue matters through participatory school administration, and management (Garbes, 2012)[48]. It is in this context that urges me to conduct a phenomenological research to describe the use of mother tongue language of K to 12 curriculum and to align the thinking of the school heads on their real roles and how they are using it to transform their schools as envisioned in the provisions of RA 9155. The fact that the implementation moves too quickly and not enough time to develop reading materials in the local languages suggest that more research is necessary for successful implementation of the reform.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

This study explored the strategies employed by the teachers in implementing MTB – MLE and the problems that they have encountered. This study has the following research questions: What are the experiences of school administrators supervising the use of Mother Tongue Language in K-12 Education: IP Schools in Focus; How do school administrators cope with the challenges in supervising the teaching of mother tongue language?; What insights are presented by the study participants in connection with the use of Mother Tongue Language in K to 12 Education?

1.2 Theoretical Lens

The study is anchored on UNESCO (2007) MTB-MLE guidelines, it pointed the success of multilingual language policies at national and local levels is dependent upon the presence of ideological and implementation spaces. On the other hand, implementation spaces are created when content and media for instruction utilize local, contextualized viewpoints rather than the majority, decontextualized perspectives traditionally observed in educational systems.

Furthermore, seven challenges in planning, implementing and sustaining an excellent mother tongue-based education are elements of the implementation of the program. These are multiple languages with multiple dialects, absence of concrete orthographies, shortage of mother tongue speakers with teaching materials, scarcity of written literature, various mother tongues, large class sizes, and deficiency of curriculum and instructional materials (Abadzi, 2006)[1].

1.3 Delimitations and limitations of the Study

This qualitative study using phenomenological approach breezed through the lives of the school heads that were products on supervising the use of mother tongue language. The study was conducted in the first semester of School Year 2015-2016 with 14 participants who are all recipients of the course using purposive sampling technique. The data were gathered from seven school heads, through in-depth interviews and seven school heads in through focus group discussion. Both in-depth interview and focus group discussion were utilized in order to stimulate the informants to share their experiences and other important information. The study was delimited on the experiences and sharing of the participants. More importantly, this study does not generalize the findings, results and other circumstances that came out during the period when the study was conducted.

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Research Design

In this study, I applied qualitative- phenomenology. Phenomenology is concerned with the study of human perception of events or phenomena from the actual happenings in the real world. It is reliving the experiences of the participants involved in the study and going deeper into their thoughts, identifying the essence of the experience as described by the participants through lengthy discussions (Campbell, 2011[19]; Creswell, 2007; Speziale& Carpenter, 2007[97]; Willis, 2007)[114].

In phenomenological research, the use of bracketing was applied to minimize presuppositions to prevent potential harmful effects of presumptions that may affect the research process, thereby improving the precision of the research study. The researcher must be vigilant at all times; aware of his/her own views and the preexisting beliefs on the study; must learn to set aside his/her own prior knowledge and experiences to fully capture the experiences being told by the participants with an open mind (Starks & Trinidad, 2007[99]; Taylor &Francis, 2012[103]; Tufford& Newman, 2010)[106]. In conducting this qualitative study, I was interested to know how things happened and how people interpret their experiences and how they find meaning in these experiences.

The foundations of qualitative data included interviews, observations and documents (Creswell, 2007; Giorgi, 2009[50]; Locke, Silverman & Spirduso, 2010[73]; Suter, 2012)[101], emphasizing two ways of collecting data if one wanted information about the lived experience of a



phenomenon from another person, the traditional face to face interview and the written account of the experience, both could not be broken down quickly by a statistical software. In my study, I used specific methodologies such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, and note taking, with that, it gives much attention to details and importance of the emotional content to open up an array of human experiences of the subjects involved in the study. According to Giorgi (2009)[50], what one seeks from research interview in phenomenological research is a complete description as possible of the experience that a participant has lived through.

This made the phenomenological approach very good and surfacing deep issues. It focused on what the participants have in common in their experiences of the phenomenon. My objective here was to extract a common theme from the experiences of the subjects, convert these experiences to a description of the universal essence of the phenomena and grasp the very nature of the thing. To recognize a multifaceted phenomenon, I considered the multiple "realities" experienced by the participants themselves—the "insider" perspectives (Williamson, 2013)[113].

2.2. Role of the Researcher

Behind the theory, method, analysis, ontology, epistemology, and methodology of qualitative research stand my personal biography as a speaker on behalf of my informants. As narrated by Denzin (2003)[36], the researcher is the primary research instrument in a qualitative investigation. Therefore, it is of no small matter for the future readers of my study to have an understanding of the relationship between me and my subject. I identified and described my perspective and recognized and dealt with the biases I held on the subject.

2.3. Research Participants

The participants of my research study were the 14 selected school heads from Division of Davao Oriental, whom I had chosen through purposive sampling as my participants based on pre-selected criteria relevant to the research study (Richards & Morse, 2007[88]; Saunders, 2012[92]; Speziale & Carpenter, 2007)[97] of the seven interviewees, there were six females and four males.

To obtain a good quality of qualitative research, I opted to get just a considerable number of participants for my study with ten informants for the in-depth interviews and eight participants to engage in focus group discussions. Focus groups are considered to work well with approximately eight people (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2009)[55]. I believed that this is already a considerable number of participants, adequate to give credible information and significant results and findings.

Moreover, Creswell (2006) recommended that researchers could adopt 5 to 25 individuals who had experienced the same phenomenon for in-depth interviews. Relative to this, (Englander, 2012)[44] stated that in qualitative research, the researcher pursues knowledge by profoundly penetrating to the core of the experience, to seek the

essence of a phenomenon, not "how many" people who have experienced such phenomena.

2.4. Data Collection

The interview instrument was developed to guide me in soliciting valuable information from the participants of the study. The most common sources of data collection in qualitative research are interviews and observations (Creswell, 2009; Locke et al., 2010; &Rossman, 2005)[90]. As enumerated by Creswell (2003)[29], data collection procedures follow these four categories: observations, interviews, documents, and audio-visual materials.

Silverman (2010) mentioned that one should not expect qualitative data collection to be quick. Collecting good data takes time to achieve data saturation. If researchers are doing qualitative research, they must plan to be in the environment for enough time to collect good data and understand the nuance of what is occurring.

The in-depth interview is undoubtedly the most common source of data in qualitative studies. The person-to-person format is most prevalent, but occasionally group interviews and focus group discussions are conducted. Interviews range from the highly structured style, in which questions are determined before the interview, to the openended, conversational format (Merriam, 2005)[79]. Frequently, the interviewer asked the same questions to all the participants, but the order of the questions, the exact wording, and the type of follow-up questions may vary considerably.

Before the actual interviews, I had a preliminary meeting with some of the participants and informants had a little chat with them to gain their trust and confidence, as well as develop camaraderie. I took It as an opportunity to explain the purpose of the study, the importance of their roles in the outcome of the research study, addressed their questions, concerns, review some ethical considerations and complete the consent forms. I also consider it as a good chance to review the research questions with the participants. In this way, they would have time to ponder on their experiences before the actual in-depth interview. This was very important in doing a qualitative research because the establishment of a good level of rapport and empathy is critical to developing a positive relationship during in-depth interviews and consequentially, gaining depth of information, particularly where investigating issues where the participant had a personal stake (Bloom & Crabtree, 2006[16]; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005[37]; Dundon& Ryan, 2010)[40].

Skillful interviewing takes practice (Brophy, 2007)[17]. The ways to develop this skill include videotaping my own performance in conducting an interview, observing experienced interviewers, role playing, and critiquing peers. It is essential for me to appear non-judgmental. This can be difficult in situations where the interviewee's views are quite different from those of the interviewer. I kept myself alert to both verbal and nonverbal messages and be flexible in rephrasing and pursuing certain lines of



questioning. I used words that were clear and meaningful to my participants so that they can understand my questions and listen to them.

Also, I used digital recorder because it helped me preserve the entire verbal part of the interview which I used in the data analysis. Also, I used video recording with permission from participants for me to preserve not only what they said but also their nonverbal behavior. Likewise, I took notes during the interview to jot down specific points of emphasis or make additional notations.

2.5. Data Analysis

The data that were collected are subject to transcription and analysis of interview data. The goal of transcription is to transform oral speech into a printed copy, accurately capturing the words of the research participant (Sandelowski, 2006)[91]. Accurate transcription is a fundamental first step in data analysis.

Qualitative data generation usually results in a substantial body of data to be analyzed. Data analysis can be both deductive and inductive although inductive analysis is more common. In research reports, descriptions of data analysis are often terse and telegraphic, giving a limited window on the actual process of sorting and sifting the large array of transcripts, field notes, data records, and documents. Although literature descriptions of examining the data, looking for patterns, finding relationships and categories seem quite straightforward, data analysis is rarely formulaic, relying instead on the researcher's abilities to perceive and describe distinct patterns and themes, as well as subtleties, perplexities, contradictions, and nuances in the data.

As with all qualitative data, phenomenological data analysis involves such processes as coding, categorizing and making sense of the essential meanings of the phenomenon (West, 2009).

I believe that working with rich descriptive data which common themes or essences will emerge. This stage of analysis involves total immersion for as long as it is needed to ensure both a pure and a thorough description of the phenomenon. As explained by Bigard (2009) the structure of phenomena is the major finding of any descriptive phenomenological inquiry. This structure was based upon the essential meanings that are present in the descriptions of the participants and is determined both by analysis, and also my intuitive and insights. In this connection, I analyzed the descriptive phenomenon of the use of mother tongue language in K-12 education.

I followed the method of analysis as described by Kleiman (2004)[66]. First, I read the interview transcript in its entirety to get a global sense of the whole. I read the interview transcript a second time - this time, more slowly - in order to divide the data into meaningful sections or units. I integrated those sections/units that I have identified as having a similar focus or content and make sense of them. I integrated meaningful sections/units to a process that was known as free imaginative variation. I also elaborated my findings including descriptions of the

essential meanings that I discovered through the process of free imaginative variation. I revisited the raw data descriptions again in order to justify my interpretations of both the essential meanings and the general structure. I had proven that I have substantiated the accuracy of all my findings by reference to the raw data.

2.6. Trustworthiness

To establish the trustworthiness of the study, four components, namely: credibility, conformability, transferability, and dependability were considered as advanced by Lincoln and Guba (2013).

To establish the credibility of my study, I ensured that rigor was properly observed during the data collection especially during the interviews, wherein I avoided drawing conclusions from the interviews but based everything on factual data, directly from the participants. This is supported by Suter (2012)[101] that *credibility* refers to the confidence of the believability of the findings which is enhanced by evidence such as confirming evaluation of conclusions by research participants, convergence of multiple sources of evidence such as interview transcripts, reflective field notes, and investigator triangulation are used.

To address the conformability of my study, I set aside my personal opinions, assumptions and judgments in order to guard against distortion of data. The use of audio-taped interviews, note-taking and journals I kept throughout the study is one way of ensuring conformability. I conducted the study with as little interference as possible in order to gain the accurate picture of the personal experiences of the participants. I used the bracketing approach as part of my methodology to suspend personal bias. I also applied the use of triangulation and peer consensus to ensure that the findings of the study are free of biases and prejudice. This is further substantiated by Ramsey (2010) that conformability refers to how well others confirm the results. Suter (2012)[101] corroborates with this statement by stressing that it is the application of objectivity (neutrality) and the control of researcher bias in a research

To address transferability, I described in detail the research context and the assumptions that are central to the research and showed all data as transparent as possible. I made sure that the data are rich with descriptions, so that the person who wishes to "transfer" the results to a different context is then responsible for making the judgment of how sensible the transfer is.

Ramsey (2010)[85] confirmed that *transferability* refers to how well the findings apply to other school settings and depends upon the similarities between the two compared settings. Rich and thick descriptions allow readers to make judgment and decisions regarding transferability. The detailed descriptions in this article may enable the readers to transfer information to other settings and thus determine whether the findings can be transferred (De Wet, 2010).



To establish the dependability of my study, I ensured consistency during the data collection and analysis by doing the code-recode system during data reduction and applied the peer examination and investigator triangulation of the data collected and analyzed. This process made the study reliable.

Dependability is a criterion which is considered equivalent to reliability and similarly concerned with the stability of the results over time (Ramsey, 2010[85]; Sinkovics, Penz, &Ghauri, 2008)[95]. Moreover, Suter (2012)[101] cited that *dependability* is improved by common qualitative strategies such as audit trails, rich documentation, and triangulation and also by traditional methods such as intercoder or inter-observer agreement and code-recode consistency using the same "human instrument".

2.7. Ethical Considerations

In my literature readings, ethical guidelines are discussed by several scholars and they agreed that ethical consideration is essential in qualitative research to protect the rights of the research participants. According to Johnson (2007)[60], protection of human rights includes: right to self-determination, right to privacy and dignity, right to anonymity and confidentiality, right to fair treatment, and right to protection from harm. Special consideration for vulnerable populations needs to be assured in areas of sensitive research. Sensitive research is that which intrudes on personal experience and involves issues sacred to participants. The procedures for protecting the basic human rights of the participants in this study included adhering to the standards and procedures of the University of Mindanao and gaining informed consent. I assured confidentiality to my participants. I promised them not to name information that was placed on the identifying label of the audiotapes or transcriptions of the interviews.

A code letter for each identified participant was formulated for the purpose of my guidance only in doing data analysis. I used fictitious names in the analysis, narrative description, and interpretation of the data in the research report. I also observed with utmost professional confidence in the access to the transcripts. I removed the names in the master copy of the demographic information after being coded and only I had the knowledge to identify the participant. Individual narratives were synthesized in the themes and anecdotal narrative to ensure complete participant confidentiality. As observed by Smith (2006), deception might prevent insights, whereas honesty coupled with confidentiality reduces suspicion and promotes sincere responses. Hence, I will inform the participants the purpose of my study and I will explain to them the content of the "informed consent agreement form" at the beginning of each interview. This is strengthened by Ezzy (2005)[46] which accentuated that the researcher must acknowledge that entering into the lives of others is characteristic of this type of research, suggesting that it is this aspect that makes the research unique. I believed that it is so much more than just signing a form to say that they are willing to offer information. They allowed me into their lives, so, I demonstrated a certain degree of discretion, of respect, of appreciation for what they are doing. Because the reality is that, it was more than just words. It was more than just what I was going to analyze. It's their lives, their experiences and I needed to make sure that I was aware of it

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Experiences of School Administrators in Supervising the Use of Mother Tongue Language in K-12 Education

From the data collected on the experiences of school administrators in supervising the use of Mother Tongue language in K-12 education, the following themes emerged as presented in Table 1 are frustrations with ineptitude, collateral complications, collaborations among teachers, improved student engagement, and compassionate intervention.

3.1.1. Frustrations with Ineptitude

The school administrator of Caraga Davao Oriental revealed the transformation in the way they governed their schools before and after the course. They appreciated much the opportunity given to them and thankful that the sacrifices and time they had devoted had given them a new dimension to face their roles as a school administrator in this 21st century era, that of an instructional leader. They tried hard to be more of an instructional leader though there are barriers along the way especially that they were comfortable doing their administrative work.

Relatively, there was a study that provides new empirical evidence of how successful principals, directly and indirectly achieve and sustain improvement over time through combining both transformational and instructional leadership strategies (Day, Stobart, Sammons & Kington, 2006)[32]. The findings show that this scenario implies that the teachers need to be a linguist or a polyglot to address the needs of the pupils. This makes their learning interactive and meaningful. This means that the task of educating children becomes much more difficult when teachers have to face a heterogeneous group with multilingual and multicultural background (Pai, 2005)[83]. The above-mentioned practices according to Mafora (2012)[74] is meant to mark a departure from the predemocracy era when school principals could decide unilaterally or manipulate the decisions made on both school management and governance



Table 1: Themes and Core ideas on the Experiences of School Administrators Supervising the Use of Mother Tongue Language in K-12 Education

Major Themes	Core Ideas
	Was disappointed with the teacher; had too many lapses
	Got irritated; teacher did not do well in teaching MTB
	I got angry with teacher using many paper works as excuse
	I got disgusted; walked out of the classroom
Frustration with ineptitude	Teacher just repeated student's answers
	Teacher failed to conceptualize examples found in the book
	Teacher used English translations instead of local version
	Teacher had difficulty translating to local language in Math
	Teacher kept talking even as children did not understand
	Teacher did not place lesson in context; students clueless
	Teachers fail to deliver even if they had been trained
	Felt discouraged with some teachers; had to do coaching
	There are problems with the reference books provided
	There is variation in language at home and the one approved by DepEd.
Collateral complications	A parent complained about child's problem with MTB
	Parents questioned the use of MTB when English is the global language
	Expected skills were not developed among children
Collaboration among teachers	Teachers help one another with difficulties in teaching MTB
	MTB Teachers were sharing material resources and ideas
	Teachers were eager to share materials with other teachers
	Teachers prepared local materials as aid to teaching MTB
Improved student engagement	More students participate in the discussions in MTB class
	Students were more confident in class interactions
	It was nice to see students eager to participate
	Difficulties are just slight; students are at home in medium
	I stay calm and observe the reason of the teacher's lapses
	I tried to challenge the teacher positively
Compassionate intervention	I focus on the teacher and plan how to fix the problem
	I try not to get upset; I work out ways to help the teacher
	I wondered if I had lapses too in monitoring the teacher
	Used monitoring/evaluation results as basis for trainings

matters, resulting in the school decision-making climate being characterized by, among others, domination, coercion, withdrawal and fear.

The said transformation affirmed a recent study that shows that the said strategy made the work of the school heads not only confined to management and instructional leadership but on the environment that entices stakeholders to do their share in managing the school (Lingard, Hayes and Mills, 2002)[72]. In another development, Dinham and Crawter (2011) [39] conducted a study of the school head's participation and revealed that it is transforming tremendously and is turning to be more difficult especially if no training or enhancement activities are introduced.

It can be reiterated that time and again, it was proven that the respondents' emphasized that they need books written in mother tongue so that they will be able to implement MTB-MLE successfully. The absence of books written in mother tongue affects the teaching specifically when translating since their pupils are speakers of different languages. The respondents said, "There are no big or small books in Ilocano that you can buy, so as a teacher we will just translate it" and "The problem is that there are no

books written in mother tongue." The responses paralleled the statement of Hall, (2010) as cited by Dekker (2008)[35], that is, no teacher can teach effectively without appropriate materials that are based on two components: established government curriculum goals and pupil's prior knowledge, culture, and value systems.

With few books available for most of the 170 languages of the Philippines, materials development appears a daunting task (Dekker, 2008)[35]. Books are one of the most necessary materials in the learning process of the pupils. Teaching and learning cannot be effective without the adequate and relevant use of instructional materials. One of the respondents emphasized that in order to effectively implement MTB-MLE, the curriculum should be updated and textbooks and teaching materials should be made available in advance (Grant, 1978 as cited by Sunday & Joshua, 2010).

3.1.2. Collateral Complications

The school heads revealed that teachers are trying their best to explain the lesson using mother tongue; still, the learners cannot interact well during the discussion because the pupils are not that fluent in using the same mother



tongues.In a relevant study made by Wood and Lynch (2002)[115], they found thatthis is the condition of having no textbooks or dictionaries in the mother tongue that are needed to accommodate the needs of the learners having different mother tongues. Although one of the strategies in implementing MTB-MLE is the improvisation of instructional materials written in mother tongue, still teachers need books that are accurate and reliable.

In a study conducted by Shapiro (2004)[93] it showed that parents may wonder why their child is being given instruction in their mother tongue instead of in a national or international language that would improve their earning opportunities and enhance their socioeconomic status, thus creating awareness among parents of mother tongue language policy and its benefits is crucial for successful implementation of MTB-MLE programs.

Moreover, Kemppainen, Ferrin, Ward, and Hite (2002) recognized that parents with weak impact beliefs take a passive approach to their children's early language experiences, seeing the wider environment as determining whether children acquire one or another language. Because of limited resources or learning materials, the students' knowledge is also limited. The capacity of the student to learn is not enhanced. Since it is a newly implemented program, it lacks resources such as vocabulary words in Hiligaynon and inadequate teacher training.

In education, learning to read is very crucial because through reading, students can develop their knowledge and become confident learners. The key informants identified issues in teaching reading skills. They stated that the books for teaching reading from the Department of Education were limited. This is why the student's capacity to learn is hampered. The responses paralleled the statement of Hall (2010)[52] as cited by Dekker (2008), that is, "no teacher can teach effectively without appropriate materials." Thus, teaching can only be effective when adequate and relevant instructional materials are used (Sunday & Joshua, 2010)[100].

3.1.3. Collaboration among Teachers

It is a common belief that school cannot exist without the help of teachers who will extend moral and financial support to the different programs and projects that the school will implement after its consultation with some or all of them. It has been long recognized that the teachers help the school in various ways. The K to12 program which was implemented in the Philippines in 2012 emphasized the use of the mother tongue both as subject and as a medium of instruction in Kindergarten, Grades 1, 2 and 3.

Thereafter, English is used. This has engendered various reactions especially on the teachers handling the subject and using it as a medium of instruction. Teachers realized that parents, along with the other stakeholders, play a significant role in the implementation of the program. They focused on a program to enhance the reading proficiency, repackaging the core subjects to make it more appealing to students and host of other activities to

increase the student outcomes (Kadel& Malone, 2012)[61].

Further complicating this issue was the fact that there were minimal interactions between teachers and parents to address the challenges collectively. Instead, the challenges were dealt with separately within either home or school contexts. Teachers and parents selected which language variety to use, determined terminology for academic language, and created their own Bikol materials. While there was evidence of collaboration among teachers, they did not consider it appropriate for these interactions to include parents (Espada, 2012)[45].

In addition, for a sustainable and successful MLE program, there has to be culturally sensitive and quality instructional or learning materials. The development of these materials is critical and should be appropriate to the needs, interests and abilities of the intended learners. The materials should reflect the learners' culture, true to their context and relevant to their situation (Casquite 2010). Instructional materials are everything-books, modules, activity sheets, games, field trips, films, and techniques, assessment toolsthat teachers use to affect meaningful, purposeful and productive learning of pupils.

Accordingly, Cummins (2000)[31] and Dutcher (1995)[41] in UNESCO (2009) revealed that parent participation is a widely-cited factor in successful bilingual programs. This situation is likely to be related to the fact that parents will no longer have hesitations to speak to the teacher for they are allowed to use their first language.

Similarly, they further revealed that within each are the most important elements-the teachers, writers, supervisors and others who will teach the classes, prepare the materials and oversee the program (Malone, 2004). These people who hold the key to sustaining and achieving the long-term educational goals of MTB-MLE should be well-acquainted of the fundamentals of the program. It was further emphasized by Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008) that the more leaders focus their relationships, their work, and their learning on the core business of teaching and learning, the greater their influence on student outcomes.

Additionally, Wright (1987)[116] stated that teachers play an important role in the implementation of not only mother tongue instruction policy but also of other educational reforms in the classroom level. It is on this understanding that teachers need to embark on formidable challenges on improving the quality of their teaching while meeting the tremendous demand of change.

Nyarigoti (2014)[82] stressed that no education policy or intervention can succeed without teachers' support. As accentuated by Ambiyo andNaom (2014)[5], teachers need to be sensitized on the benefits the policy will leave on the learner. Education reforms are effective when teachers as implementers act as the primary agents of change. Their beliefs and attitudes about the innovation are also important to the implementation of the new program.

Consequently, teachers play an important role especially in the implementation of the policy in the classroom because of their immediate relationships with the children.



Literature discusses the responsibility that teachers hold for implementation at the classroom level (Mohanty, Panda, & Pal, 2010[80]; Ricento & Hornberger, 2006[87]; Shohamy, 2007)[94].

Recently, one important criterion of good teaching according to Kellough andKellough (2012)[62] is that the teacher should make use of varied strategies and techniques. Majority of the teacher respondents noted that they made use of illustrations, regalia as well as conducting group activities. They verbalized," Students become animated as we present to them the realia and some illustrations (Bambara, Nonnemacher& Kern, 2009).

3.1.4. Improve Student Engagement

The school heads encourage student engagement in their school, as an offshoot to the knowledge they will participate in the discussions and activities that gave emphasis to MTB class. They focused on program to enhance the reading proficiency, repackaging the core subjects to make it more appealing to students and host of other activities to increase the student outcomes.

A study made by Collier and Thomas (2002) elaborates that changes in the socio cultural context in school cannot happen easily and quickly, but with thoughtful, steady changes nurtured by teachers and pupils, the school climate can be transformed into a warm, safe, supportive learning environment that can foster improved achievement for all pupils in the long term.

Research also demonstrates that children and adults are more confident in interacting in their first language (Trueba, 1993)[105]. Freire (1985) as cited in (Benson, 2005) described the imposition of an unfamiliar language in the classroom as a "violation of the structure of thinking" (p. 184) and thus a barrier to smooth communication and discussion. Using a familiar language for primary schooling provides an opportunity for children to "understand, participate, and be empowered by their schooling."

3.1.5. Compassionate Intervention

The school heads recognized that leading a public school is challenging especially that as provided by RA 9155, they are empowered to make a difference in the schools they are handling. This is where school heads get inspiration in its inclusion of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) as a feature of the Enhanced Basic Education Program. It mandates the use of the language that students are familiar with (their first language) as a medium of instruction to allow them to grasp basic concepts more easily is their ability to face challenges and provide solutions to the best of their ability. During the discussion and interview, each of them was given a chance to share the challenges that they faced and the solutions they proposed and implemented.

Alexander (1989)[2] suggests that bottom-up practices are a good foundation for strong programs because they allow all stakeholders to contribute to raising the status of the mother tongue in the community and classroom, but their efforts must be enabled by legislation at the official level, so that they meet somewhere in the middle. To this end, Alexander and others have formed a consortium called the Multilingualism Action Group (Heugh 2008)[56] that helps grassroots organizations lobby for more coherent language policy and practice in South African schools.

Another outcome of bilingual programs is increased parent participation in school affairs, a situation likely to be related to the fact that they are allowed to use the L1 to speak to the teacher. In Bolivia, d'Emilio found that given a "real opportunity to participate in decision-making about their children's schooling, parents no longer think speaking to teachers is a 'waste of time,' nor are they ashamed of using their native language in these meetings. Parent participation is a widely-cited factor in successful bilingual programs (Cummins 2000; Dutcher, 1995)[41].

3.2. Coping with the Challenges in Supervising the Teaching of Mother Tongue Language

The second research question on how school administrators cope with the challenges in supervising the teaching of mother tongue language obtained the following emerged themes such as: Being keen and efficient, Being Scientific and Methodical, Being Creative and Resourceful, Peer Mentoring and Benchmarking which are found in Table 2.

Table 2: Core Ideas on How School Administrators Cope with the Challenges in Supervising the Teaching of Mother Tongue
Language in K-12 Education

Major Themes	Core Ideas
	I follow through on agreed plan of action.
	I conduct MTB class observations.
	I conduct class observation and monitoring religiously.
	Show more firmness and command to the teachers.
Being keen and efficient	Make a follow-up so that teachers will be on their toes.
	Vigilance in implementing development plans
	Instruct teachers to religiously follow MTB delivery as mandated.
	Keeping teachers close by so it will be easy to hear and address their concerns.
	Follow mandates from the issuing higher offices
	Ensure that delivery of MTB subject is in line with approved curriculum
	Gather information from class observations to be scientific
	Be feedback or data-based when planning for trainings
	Draw recommendations or future directions.



Being scientific and methodical	Collect data from observation/monitoring for discussion during meetings
	Conduct FGDs by cluster level led by grade level head
	Conduct meetings and feed backing
	Giving feedback to cluster level for in-service training
	Ask assistance from master teachers
	Invite supervisor to conduct clinical observation
Being creative and resourceful	Send teachers to trainings
	Design in-service training with other clusters
	Address resource-shortage in localization of materials
	Maintain good camaraderie among teachers in school
	I assign a reliable teacher to coach other teachers
	I let teachers observe other MTB classes
Peer mentoring	Utilize the best teachers as coaches to solve problems
	Encourage feed backing/peer observation among teachers
	Encourage sharing of best practices in MTB teaching
Benchmarking	Share best practices of other schools
	I gather best practices and share it to other teachers
	Feed backing and gathering of best practices to share

3.2.1. Being Keen and Efficient

Being keen and efficient and as a consequence implementing what they have gained is expected for the participant in this study. In the implementation, they were able to develop certain realizations and insights which they can share with those who have not vigilance in implementing the MTB and for those who do not follow the approved curriculum.

Having access to learning in more than one language also allows individuals to use different languages for different functions. For example, literacy in national and international languages often opens doors to the world of work and facilitates mutual intelligibility between the local context and the "outside world" politically and culturally. In turn, mother tongue literacy can foster cultural identity and support the strengthening of ethnic communities as well as the pursuit of ethnic continuity. In other words, the early 20th century view that monolingual people perform better than bilingual and multilingual people is being increasingly accepted as erroneous (Westbrook, 2013)[112] is obtaining information through systematic observationbased measures that record teacher practices, either through routine monitoring conducted by system actors (as such instructional supervisors or coaches) or through external surveys.

3.2.2. Being Scientific and Methodical

The school heads recognized that leading a public school is really challenging especially that as provided by RA 9155, they are empowered to make a difference in the schools they are handling. Part of the experiences of the school heads after their observation is their ability to face challenges and provide solutions to the best of their ability. During the discussion and interview, each of them was given a chance to share the challenges that they faced and the solutions they proposed and implemented.

Mother-tongue-based bilingual education significantly enhances the learning outcomes of students from minority language communities. Moreover, when mother-tongue bilingual education programmes are developed in a manner that involves community members in some significant way and explicitly addresses community concerns, these programmes also promote the identify cation of the minority community with the formal education process (Canvin, 2007[20]; Lewis, &Trudell, 2008[69]; Malone, 2008).

Specifically, in implementing mother tongue based multilingual education more that could significantly improve education outcomes and contribute to reducing gaps in enrolment and dropout. However, a range of obstacles like those described above have historically prevented indigenous languages from being used more widely as a medium of instruction in schools. Education administrators have voiced significant support for MTB-MLE. Just recently a more explicit policy that states that the mother tongue and the language used most widely in communication in the community can be used as the language of instruction in early grades in the elementary schools, would provide far greater legitimacy to the use of mother tongues in instruction (Ball, 2011).

Similarly, mother tongue has a very important role in education development, particularly in isolated areas if mother If many first graders do not understand what their teachers are teaching then they will not be able to count, read or learn science. But they will surely succeed better if (we teach them) using the language used in their daily lives (Cenderawasih, 2013)[22].

3.2.3. Being Creative and Resourceful

While teachers and parents differed in their knowledge of the MTB- MLE policy, their awareness of the guidelines similarly came from the national level through a top-down approach. Teachers were trained through a cascade training model (Gilpin, 1997)[49] that was collapsed into portions of a five-day training session. Parents received even less information about the policy as it was relayed to them through brief meetings with teachers or principals. In some cases, they had not heard of it at all. This demonstrated a weakened diffusion of knowledge in which



information filtered down through a series of trainings (Vygotsky, 2013)[110].

Meanwhile, teacher education institutions in many countries, often operating in difficult circumstances, do an admirable job of training pre-service teachers to provide instruction for learners in the formal education system using the official school language. Teachers learn how to present curriculum materials in a way that allows children who understand and speak the school language to gain the prescribed standards for their grade level. The assumption in teacher education programs for schools that use only the official school language is that all students have the level of fluency they need to learn effectively inthat language. However, in many multilingual contexts, this assumption is not correct and children from non4dominant language communities tend to do poorly in formal education systems.

Furthermore, there is a growing awareness around the world that MTB MLE is an important part of the solution to the problem of high drop-out and attrition rates among children who do not speak the official school language when they begin their education. Students in MTB MLE programs must achieve the same grade4level standards as students in mainstream classrooms who speak and understand the official school language. The difference in MTB-MLE program is that curriculum writers, supervisors and teachers recognize that while their students do not know the school language when they begin school, they are fluent in their own language or their mother tongue (Alidou, & Brock Utne, 2011[3]; Baker, 2011)[6].

In order for teachers in MTB-MLE classrooms to help their students achieve a successful education, the teachers must understand and follow two specific pedagogical approaches. First, they must begin with what the students already know about their own language and the knowledge and skills they have acquired through living in their own community and use that as the foundation for teaching new content and concepts. Second, teachers must help their students to develop oral, written and higher level thinking skills in the language they know best and, at the same time, support the students as they gradually learn the official school language (Bartlett, 2010[10]; Benson, Heugh, Berhanu&Mekonnen, 2010)[13].

3.2.4. Peer Mentoring

While many researchers as evidenced by Lin and Martin (2005)[70], mother tongue-based learning has been found to help rural or poor urban working-class schoolchildren to acquire global, standard languages and literacy for wider communication and socioeconomic mobility, these led to contradict policy decisions about which language to teach in schools that are rarely based on the needs of the majority but rather favor the dominant class. Kenya is ethnically heterogeneous and the language policy recognizes the difficulties of attempting to implement mother-tongue learning in regions where different ethnicities reside.

Consequently, an essential focus of MTB MLE training must be on providing opportunities for trainees to see for themselves how children respond to a child-centered pedagogies and how much children can achieve when they are motivated and empowered through active learning in a language they understand well. If the trainees only read about MTB MLE and hear about it in lectures, they may not be motivated to implement it in the classroom (King, & Mackey, 2007[64]; McCarty, 2008)[77].

3.2.5. Benchmarking

Recently, many linguistic groups are becoming vocal about the need to ensure that the youngest members of their communities keep their linguistic heritage. Some governments, such as in the Philippines, have recently established language-in-education policies that embrace children's first languages. A compendium of examples produced by UNESCO (2009) attests to growing interest in promoting mother tongue-based education, and to the wide variety of models, tools, and resources now being developed and piloted to promote learning programs in the mother tongue (King & Mackey, 2007)[64].

Accordingly, priority themes surfaced as research areas that are most necessary and practical in light of the Department's vision and mission, as well as local and international developments in the sector. It is important to note that 2015 marked the transition from the Millennium Development Goals and Education for All initiative to the Sustainable Development Goals and Education 2030. The Department of Education has implemented major reforms in the basic education system through the K to 12 program, and is gearing up for the first nationwide batch of Senior High School (SHS) students this 2016.

3.3. Insights of the Participants on the Use of Mother Tongue Language in K to 12 Education

From the data collected on this particular topic, three main themes emerged such as MTB language promotes cultural preservation, Teachers need steady support, and Administrators need a helping hand which can be found in Table 3.

3.3.1. MTB Language Promotes Cultural Preservation To compensate for this challenge, language reforms may require community involvement. Young (2003)[117] and Ball (2010)[8] have asserted the importance of this in their work on MTB-MLE. It is also revealing that the mother tongue pilot programs experiencing success commonly rely on community participation for instituting the reform (Dekker, 2003[33]; Dekker & Young, 2005[34]; Dutcher, 2001[42]; Trudell, 2006)[104].

Communities are important for contextualizing the policy and providing local support (Alexander, 1989[2]; Benson, 2004[11]; Chimbutane& Benson, 2012[25]; Dekker & Young, 2005)[34]. The key to successful organizational change is to find the ideal blend of individual 40 and organizational processes that will contribute to success within the socio-political context (Guskey& Huberman, 1995)[51]. As Hornberger (1994)[57] argues that no matter what the goal, language/literacy development proceeds best if goals are pursued along several dimensions at once.



Spolsky (2004)[98] suggested that language practices include the decisions made by a group of people about how, when, and where to use language. In other words, they are what people actually do with language. Traditional views of policy implementation point to those in power as disseminating directives that are unassumingly put into practice. While policy statements are capable of hegemonically setting discursive boundaries on what is educationally normal or feasible! (Johnson & Freeman, 2010), local stakeholders also hold an immense power of local stakeholders in the policy process.

As stated above, local stakeholders are usually responsible for the implementation, or appropriation, of national policy directives. Teachers and parents are two stakeholder groups of particular interest to this study because of their immediate relationship with the children affected by the policy. Both groups play a role in language policy, but this role is typically discussed in different domains. Literature discusses the responsibility teachers hold for implementation at the classroom level (Mohanty, Panda, & Pal, 2010[80]; Ricento&Hornberger, 2006[87]; Shohamy, 2007)[94].

While a different set of literature on family language policy focuses on the function of parents in the home (Caldas, 2013[18]; King, Fogle, & Logan-Terry, 2008)[65]. Despite the emphasis of holistic community involvement in MTB-MLE, very little scholarship addresses the cross-over of language policy practices between teachers and parents. In fact, most literature on language-in-education policy focuses on the role of teachers rather than that of parents.

Furthermore, the study also revealed that focus on student outcomes will lead to behavioural changes by students, teachers, and schools to align with the performance goals of the system. Naturally, part of this is presumed to be more or less automatic like in public reporting of outcomes that will bring everybody onto course with those outcomes.

The said initiative also comes from the development of explicit incentives that will lead to innovation, efficiency and fixes to any observed performance problems.

3.3.2. Teachers Need Steady Support

Several studies have suggested variables that can influence teachers 'willingness to support a reform, such as changes in working conditions (Chapman, 2009)[23], teaching workload (Mulkeen, Chapman, &DeJaeghere, 2007), and continued support and training (Fullan, 2003[47]; Chapman &Miric, 2005). These factors may become apparent amidst changes in language policy. Therefore, attention to the role of teachers is warranted in the midst of a large educational reform.

While teachers may appear to act as soldiers' of the system by implementing national policies without questioning their quality and relevance, studies have suggested that their actions in the classroom are contextualized and adapted according to their own language ideologies (Johnson & Freeman, 2010[59]; Creese, 2010[27]; Menken, 2008[78]; Sylvester, 2002)[102]. Drawing on her previous work (Leung &Creese, 2008)[68], Creese (2010)[27].

Chimbutane& Benson, (2012)[25] draws on while teachers and parents both demonstrated their support in relation to policy compliance; they did so in parallel contexts. In other words, they operated within different spheres of influence. Teachers 'actions were carried out in the classroom, while parents 'actions were focused in the home. Parents claimed they would assist with 87 classroom needs, such as preparing materials in the mother tongue, but they explained that it was not appropriate to offer their services without an invitation from the teacher. Teachers, on the other hand, appeared resistant to request such help saying that it was the job of the teacher, not the parent, to prepare the necessary materials. They suggested feelings of shame would result from requests to parents for help.

Table 3: Themes and Core Ideas on Insights Presented by Study Participants on the Use of Mother Tongue Language in K to 12 Education

Major Themes	Core Ideas
	MTB language bridges the gap between home and community; learning in the
	language used at home.
	It is a global trend; culture-based
	It means sharing of culture with other languages
	It wipes out language barriers among students in the class
MTB language promotes cultural	It promotes understanding and acceptance of cultures
preservation	It presents a connection between home and school
	It reflects nationalism
	Superiors should make the environment friendly to the teachers.
	Teachers should be sent to trainings no matter how old in the service.
	Teachers and administrators should work hand in hand
Teachers need steady support	There should be sharing of best practices for teachers to learn from
	DepEd should provide clerical assistance to school heads to give ample time to
	MTB monitoring
	Superiors should not rely completely on school heads for monitoring of MTB
Administrators need a helping hand	delivery
	Supervisor should be able to mentor school heads.



DepEd can provide staff to Elementary School Heads to lighten their work load A supervisor should be a good instructional leader.

Thailand's system-level leaders look to school principals for leadership in implementing these large-scale educational reforms at the local level (Hallinger& Heck, 2004)[53]. As in other nations throughout the world, Thai policy makers accept the assertion that principals hold the keys to educational change at the school level. Yet, there are serious doubts as to whether the current (and future) corps of Thai principals have the will and the skill to implement education reform.

Hallinger, Ko, and Heck (2010) [54] maintained that there has been sizeable growth in the number of empirical studies of shared form of leadership over the past decade. The research found significant effects of distributed leadership on change in the schools' academic capacity and indirect effects on student growth rates in Mathematics subject. It also aims at building the academic capacity of schools as a means of improving student learning outcomes.

In a research conducted by Reese et al. (2013)[86] suggests that placing leadership responsibility in the hands of teachers to act as instructional mentors and coaches to their peers might serve as an antidote to persistent barriers to instructional change. For example, a recent randomized trial found that teachers who received a coaching treatment had significantly more positive outcomes than control teachers, including higher levels of positive emotional climate in their classrooms, greater sensitivity to their students' needs, and more effective classroom management.

Over the past 20 years there has been a paradigm shift gathering momentum with regard to the professional development of teachers (Vescio, Ross & Adams, 2008)[109]. Intensified by the complexities of teaching and learning within a climate of increasing accountability, this reform moves professional development beyond merely supporting the acquisition of new knowledge and skills for teachers.

3.3.3. Administrators Need a Helping Hand

The 2009 DepEd order appeared to recognize the role of teachers and parents in the MTB-MLE reform through calls to promote and encourage local participationl, conduct —advocacy work and community mobilizationl, and ensure —critical awareness, maximum participation, and support from the LGU, parents and communityl (Department of Education, 2009). However, little has been done to answer these calls for community awareness and involvement in the reform effort.

Consequently, the Department of Education is confronted of method in order to review teachers' teaching approach and dilemma and proposes a plan for MTB-MLE that carry out application assisting teachers' responsibilities for successful performance. Yet, this endeavor has still some limitations (Lartecet al., 2014)[67].

Chimbutane and Benson (2012)[25] draw that bridging plan;DepEd issued a new order in 2012, which provided more specific guidelines for implementing MTB-MLE at

the school level. It noted the piloting of MTB-MLE in 921 schools with support from Basic Education Assistance for Mindanao (BEAM); Third Elementary Education Program (TEEP); Translators Association of the Philippines (TAP); Save the Children; and Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL). It called for the implementation of MTB-MLE for the remainder of the country's schools beginning in the 2012-2013 academic year through support from regional and division-level DepEd trainers (Ambatchew, 2010)[4]. The result of the study revealed that the school heads who participated as learners of the MTB experienced transformation in school governance, affirmation of prior knowledge, performed curriculum enhancement and were able to face challenges and provided solutions based from the consistent consultations with the stakeholders. These resulted to gaining substantial support from the internal and external stakeholders who have offered them with the kind of help or support that they need.

As a result, they gained significant insights and realizations which they are willing to share to other school heads especially to those who have not yet experienced being trained in the MTB.

4. IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

While conducting this study, a number of teachers asked me why I chose this topic, at first, admittedly, I was not sure what I would find by interviewing these very remarkable teachers in public elementary setting. I knew from a qualitative methodological standpoint that their stories needed to be told simply because they have not been told before. I thought that, perhaps, my study would serve the sole purpose of allowing their voices to be heard. Throughout my time spent with the participants in this study, they made a number of suggestions with regard to improving how schools could address issues.

The themes that emerged during the experiences of school administrators supervising the use of Mother Tongue Language in K-12 Education clearly gave the participants with a new paradigm that helped them realigned their functions from one who gave more emphasis to the teachers work than their responsibilities.

On the coping mechanism employed by the teachers, it should be noted that when districts support professional development programs with technology-based tools, the vision of job-embedded, on-demand teacher support becomes realistic. With effective learning management platforms, all teachers have the opportunity to expand access to professional development, reflect on their practice, and communicate with others, and the districts have tools to manage and track teachers' engagement and progress. In the contemporary teaching and learning environment, every teacher needs to be effective. This demands the tools and resources required to improve practice continuously.



Additionally, teachers can be pivotal in the improvement of student learning by helping students develop and use sound classroom assessments that strengthen instruction and student learning. The typical teacher will spend a quarter to a third of her or his available professional time involved in assessment-related activities.

If current and future educational leaders are to foster successful, equitable, and socially responsible learning and accountability practices for all students, then substantive changes in educational leadership preparation and professional development programs are required.

Participants' comments illuminate a common belief among all of the participants in this study: school leaders want to enact change in their schools; they are driven to help students and colleagues better understand unexpected issues and, sometimes, themselves. In order to affect change and work for social justice, school leaders must have a unified front of action and safety. Continuing to remain either inactive or isolated in their work can never lead to broader change since; at most, the changes remarkable leaders affect will be only on the local level.

5. IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study opens the door for future research on MTB-MLE in the Philippines or in other countries implementing top-down language policy. Very few studies have been done on the implications of national-level MTB-MLE policy implementation in the Philippines because it is such a new reform. In addition, other countries have similarly grappled with the dilemma of incorporating mother tongue education through a national approach. A final area for consideration moves beyond the perspective of teachers and parents to include that of other stakeholders. In particular, attention to students 'experiences would provide greater richness to the data. Observational data could offer valuable insight into the way in which MTB-MLE policy is practiced in the classroom. A focus on students brings to light the story of what is happening for those whom the policy was intended.

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

When I took the journey with the participants as I listened to what they shared and as I read the journals and studies which were related to the topic of my study, I came to realize that indeed, mother tongue-based multilingual education plays a crucial part in the language learning of the students. We need to involve community members with diverse language skills in formal school and train teachers with varying language capacities and levels of education to be effective in MTB-MLE classrooms. As knowledge develops, we must get better at communicating research findings so that practitioners, policy makers and donors are informed and motivated by evidence about how the potential of MTB-MLE can be harnessed to achieve Education for All.

7. REFERENCES

- [1] Abadzi, H. (2006). The importance of mother tongue-based schooling for educational quality. *Background paper for EFA Global Monitoring report* 2005. Paris: UNESCO.
- [2] Alexander, B. (1989). Local community perspectives and language of education in sub- Saharan African communities. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 27, 552-563.
- [3] Alidou, H. & Brock-Utne, B. (2011). Teaching practices teaching in a familiar language. In Ouane, A. &Glanz, C. (Eds.). Optimising learning, education and publish in Africa: the language factor. A review and analysis of theory and practice in mother tongue and bilingual education in sub-Saharan Africa. 159-186.
- [4] Ambatchew, M. D. (2010). Traversing the linguistic quicksand in Ethiopia. In K. Menken & O. Garcia (Eds.), Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers (pp. 211-231). New York: Routledge.
- [5] Ambiyo, S., &Naom, H. (2014).Factors influencing reading achievement. In H. Wagemaker (Ed.), Achievement in reading literacy: New Zealand's performance in a national and international context (pp. 166–183). Wellington, NZ: Research Section, Ministry of Education.
- [6] Baker, C. (2011). Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism (5th Ed). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- [7] Ball, A. F. (2011). Empowering pedagogies that enhance the learning of multicultural students. *Teachers College Record*, 102(6), 1006-1034.
- [8] Ball, J. (2010). Enhancing learning of children from diverse language backgrounds: Mother-tongue-based bilingual or multilingual education in early childhood and early primary school years. Paper commissioned by UNESCO Basic Education Division, Paris. Retrieved December 10, 2010, from http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001869/186961 e.pdf.
- [9] Bambara L. M., Nonnemacher S., & Kern L. (2009). Sustaining school-based individualized positive behavior support: Perceived barriers and enablers. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 11, 161-176. doi:10.1177/109830070833087810.1177/109830070833087.
- [10] Bartlett, S. (2010). *Improving learning achievement in early primary in low C income countries*: A review of the literature. Geneva: Aga Khan Foundation.
- [11] Benson, C. (2004). Bilingual schooling in Mozambique and Bolivia: From experimentation to implementation. *Language Policy*, 3, 47-66.
- [12] Benson, C. (2005). Do we expect too much from bilingual teachers? Bilingual teaching in developing



- countries. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 7(2-3), 204-221.
- [13] Benson, C., Heugh, K., Berhanu, B. & Mekonnen A.G.Y. (2010). The medium of instruction in the primary schools in Ethiopia: A study in its implications for multilingual education. In K. Heugh and T. Skutnabb4Kangas, (Eds.), Multilingual education works: From the periphery to the centre, 40483. New Delhi: Orient Black Swan.
- [14] Bigard, M.F. (2009) Walking the labyrinth: An innovative approach to counseling center outreach. *Journal of College Counseling*, 12(2), 137-148.
- [15] Bloch, C, Guzula, X. and Nkence, N.(2010). Towards normalizing South African classroom life: The ongoing struggle to implement mother-tongue based bilingual education. In Kate Menken and Ofelia Garcia (eds), Negotiating Language Policies in Schools: Educators as Policymakers. NY: Routledge. Pp. 88-106.
- [16] Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interview. *Medical Education*, 40, 314-321.
- [17] Brophy,P., (2007). Communicating the library: librarians and faculty in dialogue. *Library Management*, 28 (8/9), 515-523, https://doi.org/10.1108/01435120710837792.
- [18] Caldas A. (2013). Talking in, talking around and talking about the L2: Three literacy teaching responses to L2 medium of instruction in the Lao PDR. *Compare*, 41(2), 195–209.
- [19] Campbell, J. (2011). *Introductory methods of qualitative research*: course notes from __Inquiry.pdf. Retrieved on January 20, 2016.
- [20] Canvin, K. (2007) mental health, coercion and family care giving: issues from the international literature. British Journal of Psychiatry International 14(3): 56-58.
- [21] Casquite, M. S. (2010). Insider and Outsider Roles and Other Essential Elements in Developing Qualaity and culturally Sensitive MLE Materials. *Reclaiming the Right to learn in One's Own Language*, p. 41. The 1st Philippine conference Workshop on Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education. Cagayan de Oro City: Capitol University.
- [22] Cenderawasih, B.(2011). Beyond the Bilingual Classroom: Literacy Acquisition among Peruvian Amazon Communities. Dallas, Tex., SIL International/the University of Texas at Arlington.
- [23] Chapman, D.(2009). Natural Resource Damages Associated with Aesthetic and Ecosystem Injuries to Oklahoma's Illinois River System and Tenkiller Lake, Expert report for State of Oklahoma, in Case No. 05-CV-0329-GKF-SAJ, State of Oklahoma v. Tyson Foods., et al. (In the United States District Court for the Northern District of Oklahoma.)
- [24] Chapman, D.W. & Miric, S. L. (2005). Teacher Policy in the MENA Region: Issues and Options, Background paper. Washington D.C.: The World Bank.
- [25] Chimbutane, F. & Benson C. (2012). Expanded spaces for mozambican languages in primary education:

- where bottom-up meets top-down. *International Multilingual Research Journal* 2012, 6(1),8–21. 10.1080/19313152.2012.639278.
- [26] Collier, V.P., & Thomas, W.P. (2002). Reforming education policies for English learners means better schools for all. *The State Education Standard*, 3(1), 30-36.
- [27] Creese, N. (2010). Multilingual language policies and the continua of biliteracy: An ecological approach. *Language Policy*, 1, 27-51. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1014548611951.
- a. Creswell, J. (2007). Qualitative inquiry and research design: choosing among five approaches. Sage Publications. Thousand Oaks: London.
- [28] Creswell, J. (2009). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
- [29] Creswell, J. W. (2003). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- [30] Creswell, J. W.(2006). Advanced mixed methods research designs. Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research, 209-240.
- [31] Cummins, J. (2000). Language, power, and pedagogy. Bilingual children in the crossfire. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- [32] Day, C. W., Stobart, G., Sammons, P., & Kington, A. (2006). Variations in Teachers' Work, Lives and Effectiveness. Final Report for the VITAE Project, DfES.
- [33] Dekker, D. (2003). A case study of the first language component bridging program in rural Philippines. *Philippines Journal of Linguistics*, 34(1), 143-149.
- [34] Dekker, D., & Young, C. (2005).Bridging the gap: The development of appropriate educational strategies for minority language communities in the Philippines. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 6(2), 182-199.
- [35] Dekker, S. (2008). Human factors and folk models. Cognition, *Technology, and Work*, 6, 79–86
- [36] Denzin, N. K. (2003). Qualitative inquiry and the conservative challenge. Left Coast Press.
- [37] Denzin, N.K., & Lincoln, Y.S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin& Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The sage handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- [38] Department of Education of the Philippines. (2009). Facts and Figures: http://www.deped.gov.ph/factsandfigures/default.asp Philippine Education for All 2015 (English): http://efa2015.110mb.com/efa main menu.htm.
- [39] Dinham, S.&Crawter. J. A. F. (Eds.). (2011). *Education in mother tongue: The Ife primary education research project.* Ibadan: University Press Limited.
- [40] Dundon, T. & Ryan, P. (2010).Interviewing reluctant respondents: Strikes, henchmen and Gaelic

Ö



- games. Organizational Research Methods, 13(3),562-581.
- [41] Dutcher, N. (1995). The use of first and second languages in education. A review of international experience. *Pacific Island Discussion paper Series No.* 1. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- [42] Dutcher, N. (2001). Expanding educational opportunity in linguistically diverse societies. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- [43] Elo, S. Kääriäinen, M. Kanste, O. Pölkki, T., Utrianen, K. & Kyngäs, H. (2014). *Qualitative content analysis: a focus on trustworthiness*. Sage.
- [44] Englander, M. (2012). The interview: Data collection in descriptive phenomenological human scientific research. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 43, 13–25. doi:10.1163/156916212X632943
- [45] Espada, S. (2012). Student and professor perceptions of course web site use in web-enhanced instruction. In C. Montgomerie& J. Seale (Eds.), Proceedings of World Conference on Educational Multimedia, Hypermedia and Telecommunications 2007 (pp. 4321-4326). Chesapeake, VA: AACE.
- [46] Ezzy, Y.. (2005). Communicating across cultures. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- [47] Fullan, M. (2003). *The new meaning of educational change*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- [48] Garbes, R. (2012). Priorities in English language education policy and classroom implementation. *Language Policy*, 4, 107-128.
- [49] Gilpin M. (1997). Metapopulation Dynamics: Empirical and Theoretical Investigations. New York: Academic Press.
- [50] Giorgi, A. (2009). The descriptive phenomenological method in psychology: A modified Husserlian approach. Pittsburg, PA: Duquesne University.
- [51] Guskey, T., & Huberman, M. (Eds.). (1995). Professional development in education: New paradigms and practices. New York: Teachers College Press.
- [52] Hall, E. (2010). *The ecology of language*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- [53] Hallinger, P., & Heck, R.H. (2004). Reassessing the principal's role in school effectiveness: A review of empirical research, 1980–1995. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 32(1), 5–44.
- [54] Hallinger, P., Ko, J., & Heck, R.H.. (2010). Exploring whole school vs. subject department improvement in Hong Kong secondary schools. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 26(2), 215–239. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09243453.2014.882848
- [55] Hancock, B., Ockleford, E., Windridge, K. (2009). *An introduction to qualitativeresearch.National Institute for Health Research*. Retrieved on January 10, 2016 from http://www.rds-yh.nihr.ac.uk.
- [56] Heugh, A. (2008). Ironising the myth of linguicism. Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 17, 485-496.

- [57] Hornberger, N. (1994). Literacy and language planning. *Language and Education*, 8, (1/2), 75-86.
- [58] Howley, A. (2009). High-quality teaching: Providing for rural teachers' professional development. *The Rural Educator*, 26(2), 1-5.
- [59] Johnson, D. C., & Freeman, F. (2010). Appropriating language policy on the local level: Working the spaces for bilingual education. In K. Menken & O. García (Eds.), Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers (pp. 13-31). New York: Routledge.
- [60] Johnson, M. (2007). Research ethics in the real world: issues and solutions for health and social care, pp. 103-121, London: Churchill Livingstone, Elsevier.
- [61]Kadel, N. & Malone, S. (2012). Mother tongue-based multingual education: Implications for education. In A Paper presented at the Seminar in Education Policy and the Right to Education: Towards more Equitable Outcomes for South Asia's Children, Kathmandu.
- [62] Kellough, R. D., & Kellough, N. G. (2012). Teaching young adolescents: Methods and resources for middle grades teaching (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- [63] Kemppainen, Ferrin, Ward & Hite, (2002). Parental choice and language-of instruction policies and practices in Estonia." *Education and Urban Society*, 35 (1), 76–99.
- [64] King, K., & Mackey, A. (2007). The bilingual edge: Why, when, and how to teach your child a second language. New York: Collins.
- [65] King, K., L. Fogle, and A. Logan-Terry. (2008). Family language policy. *Language and Linguistics Compass* 2(5): 907–922.
- [66] Kleiman S. (2004). *Phenomenology: To wonder and search for meanings*. Retrieved April 26, 2013, from http://www.redorbit.com/news/display/?id=90996.
- [67] Lartec, J.K., Belisario, A.M., Bendanillo, J.P., Binas-o, H. Bucang, N.O. &Cammagay, J.L.W.(2014). Strategies and problems encountered by teachers in implementing mother tongue - based instruction in a multilingual classroom. The IAFOR Journal of Language Learning, 1(1), 1-16.
- [68] Leung, C. & Creese, A. (2008) 'Professional issues in working with ethnolinguistic difference: inclusive policy in practice', in D. E. Murray (ed.), *Planning Change, Changing Plans*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press (pp. 155–73).
- [69] Lewis, M. P. & Trudell, B. (2008). Language cultivation in contexts of multiple community languages. B. Spolsky and F. Hult (eds), *The Handbook of Educational Linguistics*. Oxford, Blackwell, pp. 266-79
- [70] Lin, A. M. Y. & Martin, P.W. (2005) From a critical deconstruction paradigm to a critical construction paradigm: An introduction to decolonisation, globalisation and language-ineducation policy and practice. In: A.M. Y. Lin and P. W. Martin, eds. *Decolonisation, Globalisation: Language-in-Education*



- *Policy and Practice.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd, pp. 1-19.
- [71]Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (2013). *Naturalistic inquiry*. London: Sage.
- [72] Lingard, B., Hayes, D., & Mills, M. (2002). Teachers and productive pedagogies: Contextualising, conceptualising, utilising. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, 11(3), 397-422.
- [73] Locke, L.F., Silverman, S.J., & Spriduso, W.W. (2010). *Reading and understanding research*, 3rd Ed. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- [74] Mafora, T.P.(2012). The job satisfaction of principals of previously disadvantage Schools: New light on an older issue. *South African Journal of Education*, 32, 227-239.
- [75] Malone, D. (2008). Mother-Tongue-based Multilingual Education in Multilingual Contexts: How Strong Must It Be? International Conference on Multilingual Education, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, India. 5-8 February 2008.
- [76] Malone, R. (2004). Synthesizing the implementation literature: The ambiguity-conflict model of policy implementation. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 5(2), 145.
- [77] McCarty, T. L. (2008). Native American languages as heritage mother tongues. *Language*, *Culture and Curriculum*, 21(3), 201-225.
- [78] Menken, K., (2008). Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers. New York: Routledge.
- [79] Merriam, S. B. (Ed.) (2005). Andragogy and self-directed learning: Pillars of adult learning theory. *The new update on adult learning theory* (pp. 3 14). New Directions in Adult and Continuing Education, No. 89, San Francisco: JosseyBass.
- [80] Mohanty, A., Panda, M. & Pal, R.(2010). Language policy in education and classroom practices in India: Is the teacher a cog in the policy wheel? In K.Menken and O.Garcia (eds), *Negotiating Language Policies in Schools: Educators as Policymakers*, 211-231. New York: Routledge.
- [81] Mulkeen, A, Chapman, D.W., &DeJaeghere, J.G. (2007). Recruiting, retaining, and retraining secondary school teachers and principals in Sub-Saharan Africa. World Bank Working Paper No. 99. African Human Development Series. Washington DC: The World Bank.
- [82] Nyarigoti, B. (2014). Shifting approaches to supervision: The case of mathematics supervision. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 36(4), 553–584.
- [83] Pai, J. (2005). Becoming, being and unbecoming an early childhood educator: a phenomenological case study of teacher attrition, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18, 869–885.
- [84] Quijano, Y. S. & Eustaquio, O. H. (2009). Language ineducation policies and their implementation in Philippine public schools. *Mother tongue as bridge*

- language of instruction: Policies and experiences in Southeast Asia, 84-92.
- [85] Ramsey, A.(2010). Evaluation of the gang resistance and training (GREAT) program: A school-based prevention program. *Education*, 124(2), 297-309.
- [86] Reese, J.C., Lindle, J. C., Della Sala, M. R., Klar, H. W., Knoeppel, R. C., Campbell, M., & Flores, R. (2013). Learning and Reflection in the Midst of Persistent Challenges on Practicing School Leaders' Time.
- [87] Ricento, K., & Hornbergera, O. (Eds.). (2006). Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers. New York, NY: Routledge
- [88] Richards, I, & Morse, J. M. (2007). Reading first for the users ,-~I/idc to qualitative methods (2nd cd.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- [89] Robinson, V. M. J., Lloyd, C., & Rowe, K. J. (2008). The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership type. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(5), 635–674.
- [90] Rossman, B. B. R. (2005). Time heals all: How much and for whom? *J.Emotional Abuse*, 2, 31–50.
- [91] Sandelowski M. (2006). "Meta-jeopardy": The crisis of representation in qualitative metasynthesis [Review]. *Nursing Outlook*, 54, 10-16. doi:10.1016/j.outlook.2005.05.004.
- [92] Saunders, M., (2012). Research Methods for Business Students (4th ed). Harlow: FT Prentice Hall..
- [93] Shapiro, N. (2004), Monte-Carlo inversion for a global shear velocity model of the crust and upper mantle, *Geophys. J. Int.*, 51, 88 105.
- [94] Shohamy, E. (2007). Language policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches. London, England: Routledge.
- [95] Sinkovics, R. R. Penz, E. &Ghauri, P. N.,(2008). Analysing textual data in international marketing research. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 8, (1), 9–38.
- [96] Smith, A.(2006). Children's perspectives on their learning: Exploring methods. *Early Child Development and Care*, 175, 473-487.
- [97] Speziale, H. & Carpenter, D. (2007). Qualitative research in nursing: Advancing the humanistic imperative (4thed.). Philadelphia: Lippincot Williams & Wilkins from http://www.amazon.com. Retrieved on January 26, 2016.
- [98] Spolsky, B. (2004). *Language Policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [99] Starks, H., & Trinidad, S. B. (2007). Choose your method: A comparison of phenomenology, discourse analysis, and grounded theory. *Qualitative Health Research*, *17*(10), 1372-1380. DOI: 10.1177/1049732307307031.
- [100] Sunday, A., & Joshua, A., (2010). Assessment of resources and instructional materials status in the teaching of mathematics in South Western Nigeria. Nigeria: Euro Journals Publishing, Inc.

©



- [101] Suter, N. (2012). *Introduction to educational research: A critical thinking approach* (2nd Ed). Sage Publication Inc. from http://www.sagepub.com.
- [102] Sylvester, E. (2002). Should I stay or should I go? Investigating Cambodian women's participation and investment in adult ESL programs. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 53(1), 9–26.
- [103] Taylor, B. & Francis, K. (2012). Qualitative research in the health sciences: Methodologies, methods and processes. Routledge: New York from http://www.amazon.com. Retrieved on January 23, 2016.
- [104] Trudell, B. (2006). Local agency in the development of minority languages: Three language committees in Northwest Cameroon. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 27(3), 196-210.
- [105] Trueba, J. (1993). The beliefs behaviors connection: Leading teachers toward change. *Principal*, 84(2), 44-46.
- [106] Tufford, L. & Newman, P. (2010). *Bracketing in qualitative research*. Sage Publications from http://www.unc.edu.Retrieved on February 5, 2016.
- [107] UNESCO. (2009). Mother tongue-based literacy programmes: Case studies of good practice in Asia. Bangkok: UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education.
- [108] UNESCO-UIS (2007). Draft Revised 2009
 Framework for Cultural Statistics. Montreal:
 UNESCO Institute of Statistics.
- [109] Vescio, V., Ross, D., & Adams, A. (2008). A review of research on the impact of professional learning communities on teaching practice and student learning. Teacher and Teaching Evaluation: An

- International Journal of Research and Studies, 24(1), 80–91.
- [110] Vygotsky, W. (2013).The effect of intrapsychology learning before and after interpsychology activities with a web-based sharing mechanism. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society*, 17(1), 231.
- [111] West, R. M. (2003). Blending qualitative and quantitative research methods in theses and dissertations. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press, Inc, A Sage Publications Company.
- [112] Westbrook, J. (2013). Understanding learning and teaching in Papua New Guinea: Elementary teacher trainers engaged in cultural authorship in the context of national educational reforms, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37 (2), 25-40.
- [113] Williamson, R. M. (2013). Exploring therapeutic self: Portfolio for professional doctorate in counseling psychology. City Research Online. Retrieved from http://openaccess.city.ac.uk/2393/1/Williamson%2C_R osannav2.pdf.
- [114] Willis, J. (2007). Foundation of qualitative research: interpretive and critical approaches.

 Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications. Retrieved on March 12, 2016 from http://www.sagepub.com.
- [115] Wood, L. and Lynch, G. (2002). Prior Knowledge and Complacency in Product Learning. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29 (3), 416–26.
- [116] Wright, J. F. (1987). Problem-solving and the educational process.In A. Lesgold& K. Glaser (Eds.), Foundations for a psychology of education (pp. 251–294). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- [117] Young, C. (2003). First language: A foundation for effective basic education. *Philippine Journal of Linguistics*, 34(1), 123-131.