

**INFLUENCE OF SOCIOLINGUISTICS TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS'
ATTRIBUTES ON KCSE PERFORMANCE IN KISWAHILI IN
LIKUYANI SUB-COUNTY, KAKAMEGA COUNTY, KENYA**

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the Candidate

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ABSTRACT

Swahili sanifu is used in Kiswahili curriculum in Kenyan schools. The Kiswahili curriculum has been evolving in Kenya for some time now. The current Kiswahili curriculum was incepted in 2003 with some setbacks in its development and implementation. There are various phases involved in the process of curriculum development. This study addressed challenges facing the Kiswahili curriculum implementation by focusing on teacher preparation in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. The study sought to investigate teacher preparation in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili (*Isimujamii*). The objectives of the study were: to assess the extent of teacher preparation in teaching of Sociolinguistics and students' performance in Kiswahili at Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education examination in public secondary schools; to determine the degree to which teachers' gender influence preparation to teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili; and to establish the extent to which students' attitudes towards Sociolinguistics determine their academic performance in Kiswahili at the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education examinations. The theoretical framework was based on Krashen's Monitor Model (1985) with specific reference to the Affective Filter Hypothesis which stipulates that there is an Affective Filter that determines how much a person learns in a formal or informal language setting. The study employed a survey design which is a non-experimental, descriptive research method that determines and reports on the way things are, describes behaviour, attitudes, opinions, values, perceptions and characteristics as accurately as possible. This design helped to identify the nature of factors involved in teacher preparedness and helped to determine the degree in which they exist and discovered the link that exists between them. Proportionate simple random sampling technique was used to select a sample of 6 schools out of 13 public secondary schools. Simple random sampling procedure was employed in the selection of 183 student participants and purposive sampling was used to draw all the 14 teachers of Kiswahili into the sample. In total, a sample size of 197 respondents was used. Data collection involved the use of questionnaire, and document analysis. Data analysis included the use of frequencies and percentages. The study found out that female teachers were more prepared to teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili than male teachers. The findings also indicated that most teachers were highly prepared in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. The study also found out that female teachers were well prepared before teaching than male teachers and schools with students who recorded positive attitude toward Sociolinguistics had an increased KCSE performance index in Kiswahili between 2009 and 2011. Implications of these findings and recommendations are discussed.

DEDICATION

Dedicated to my beloved family: My wife Fatuma Mugeru, Children; Mansur, Sarah, Shakina and Marion and my sister Lillian whose support has made it possible for me to come this far.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CHAKITA	-	Chama cha Kiswahili cha Taifa-Kenya
CLT	-	Communicative Language Teaching
DEO		District Education Officer
KBS	-	Kenya Bureau of Statistics
KCPE	-	Kenya Certificate of Primary Education.
KCSE	-	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education.
KIE	-	Kenya Institute of Education.
KNEC	-	Kenya National Examinations Council.
L2	-	Second Language.
QASO	-	Quality Assurance and Standards Officer.
SKC	-	Secondary Kiswahili Curriculum.
ZPD	-	Zone of Proximal Development.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter focused on background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, justification of the study, scope of the study, limitation of the study, assumptions of the study and theoretical framework.

1.2 Background to the Study

Swahili is a Bantu language of the Sabaki subgroup of Northeastern Coast Bantu languages (Nurse & Hinnebusch, 1993; Wald, 1987). It is most immediately related to the Kenyan Bantu languages of Ilwana, Pokomo, and Mijikenda (Digo, Giriyaama, Duruma, etc.), which are spoken in the Kenya coastal hinterland, and to Comorian (Ngazija, Nzuani, Mwali, and Maore) of the Comoro Islands (Nurse & Hinnebusch, 1993; Wald, 1987). Other members of the group include Chimwiini of Barawa, Somalia, and Mwani of the Kerimba Islands and northern coastal Mozambique.

Bantu languages are spoken as a first language in sub Saharan Africa by nearly a third of the continent's total population. Many second language speakers of Swahili are native speakers of another Bantu language, or of a Nilotic or Cushitic language. A large number of dialects are distinguished among Swahili speakers and scholars. They are almost without exception all mutually intelligible, differing primarily in certain phonological and lexical features. The dialect of Swahili referred to as Standard Swahili was established in 1930 by the Inter Territorial Language Committee and was based on the coastal dialect of Zanzibar, Kiunguja (Whiteley, 1969). The standard language spoken in Tanzania is often referred to as Kisanifu.

Ashton (1944) states that, besides Kiunguja, other Swahili linguistic dialects are Kimakunduchi (or Kihadimu) and Kitumbatu (both spoken in the rural parts of Zanzibar); Kipemba (Pemba Island); Kimtang'ata (Tanga Town and environs); Kimrima (along the coast of Tanzania, opposite Zanzibar); Kimvita and other related dialects (Mombasa and environs); Kiamu, Kipate and Kisiu (the Lamu Archipelago); Kitikuu (the Lamu Archipelago and along the coasts of northern Kenya into southern Somalia); Kivumba (Wasini Island and Vanga); Kingwana (Congo and Zaire); and Kingozi, a literary dialect used in classical Swahili poetry. He further notes that in Kenya, there is a steadily developing pidginized version of Swahili that started developing during colonial times.

Swahili spread through eastern Africa beginning in the nineteenth century when Arab/Swahili trade expanded along the East African coast, on Zanzibar, and in trading centers in the interior. Long before the arrival of European colonizers, it was the Swahili dialect of Zanzibar Town (Kiunguja) that spread inland and eventually became the basis for Standard Swahili in colonial and post independence East Africa. Furthermore, Swahili is one of the few African languages that have a pre-colonial written tradition. A thousand years of contact between Indian Ocean peoples and Swahili resulted in a large number of borrowed words entering the language, mainly from Arabic, but also others such as Persian and various Indian languages. At different periods Swahili also borrowed vocabulary from Portuguese and English. Such borrowing is comparable to the proportion of French, Latin, and Greek words used in English.

Swahili is used by an estimated 50 million people and, after Arabic, is the most widely understood language in Africa (Nurse & Hinnebusch, 1993). It is the official language of Tanzania and Kenya and is used extensively in Uganda and the eastern provinces of Zaire. In Burundi and Rwanda, it is known and used in major urban centres, but is not widely known or extensively used in the monolingual countryside (Nurse & Hinnebusch, 1993). In countries that flank the area where Swahili functions as the common mode of communication, the language is being used in small towns and villages along major transportation lines, for example, in northern Mozambique, northern Zambia, and southern Ethiopia. Along the East African coastal strip from Somalia and as far south as northern Mozambique there are communities of Swahili speakers. Of less significance are small and declining communities in the Comoro Islands, where local Swahili-related vernaculars and French are the rule, and along part of the northwestern coast of Madagascar (Wald, 1987).

In spite of its large number of speakers and the huge area in which the language is spoken, Swahili has less than two million native speakers, most of whom live along the east African coast of southern Somalia, Kenya, Tanzania, northern Mozambique, and on the off shore islands of Lamu, Zanzibar, and Pemba (Wald, 1987). Most speakers in Tanzania and Kenya acquire Swahili as a second language, being native speakers of other African languages. In Kenya, many speakers of Swahili, especially those in up country speak two or more other languages, and use Swahili as a lingua franca. However, a growing number of first Swahili language speakers, live in urban areas of Kenya, where inter-ethnic communities prevail.

Swahili sanifu (standard) is used in the Kiswahili curriculum used in Kenyan schools. The Kiswahili curriculum has been evolving in Kenya for some time now. The current Kiswahili curriculum was incepted in 2003 with some setbacks in its development and implementation. There are various phases (diagnosis, planning, implementation, stabilization and evaluation) involved in the process of curriculum development. This research concerns itself majorly with the implementation stage of curriculum development with specific reference to the Secondary Kiswahili Curriculum (SKC) introduced in Kenya in 2002. It addresses challenges facing the curriculum implementation of the 2002 SKC since it started to be implemented in 2003. It focuses on teacher preparation in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili.

Sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society including cultural norms, expectations and context on the way language is used, and the effects of language use on society. Kenya like many other African countries is linguistically heterogeneous. However, she is blessed with a unifying neutral language – Kiswahili – that is spoken by more than 90% of the population. Ogechi and Ogechi (2002) note that although it is obvious that both English and Swahili are spoken in Kenya, two sociolinguistic realities must be borne in mind. Firstly, there are 42 indigenous languages, including Swahili, in Kenya. English is the medium of instruction at all levels of education while Swahili is only a taught and examined subject up to ordinary level and an optional subject afterwards. In such a scenario, one wonders if most Kenyans sufficiently master Swahili and therefore have the ability to enjoy reading material written in Swahili. Kiswahili is important because it is a national language as declared in Sessional Paper No. 10 of 1965 as well as an official language as declared in 2010 in the amended constitution of Kenya.

There is concern over declining performance in Kiswahili in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) national examinations (KIE, 1999, 2010). It has also classified Kiswahili among the core subjects in the curriculum. This means that for one to obtain a better grade in national examinations and, therefore, access training for example in a public University, the student must pass Kiswahili. Acquiring university education is critical for individual career development because at this level one acquires higher education. Specialized skills acquired at this level are vital in securing gainful employment and improving ones living standards. This enables individuals to effectively contribute to the national economic development.

Kiswahili has admirable value within economic markets. Much trade in East African region is conducted in Kiswahili. Small-scale enterprises often require *Lingua francas* like Kiswahili to flourish (Webb 1998). Kiswahili is the social *Lingua franca* of a large part of the Kenyan society at all socio-economic levels (Kimemia 2001:12). The decision of Kenya to use Kiswahili as a national language immediately after independence came as a need to foster human development. This is because Kiswahili is the language of inter-ethnic communication in Kenya and it bridges the linguistic gap between communities. The ideal role of a language in any society is to be able to serve as many of its speakers as possible. Kiswahili can adequately perform this role based on the premise of it being non-ethnic. After independence, Kiswahili was declared a national language in Sessional Paper No. 10 of 1965. K.I.E (2006) notes, that mastery of language is key in the efficiency and eventual effectiveness of the teaching and learning process. It warns that a dilemma over usage options can seriously stifle the acquisition of knowledge and skills.

The approach used to teach Kiswahili is likely to affect the performance of students in the subject. The quality of teaching and learning Kiswahili can help improve performance in examinations. Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) results give a feedback on the relevance of teaching approaches on how candidates perform and gives suggestions on what teachers and pupils should do to improve performance in future examinations. Every year, research based backwash documents are written for KCPE and KCSE examinations in every subject (KBS, 2011). These reports highlight areas in which candidates display weaknesses. The reports are made to act as feedback to teachers, curriculum developers, subject QASO of schools and other stakeholders. The reports analyze performance for individual questions where candidates performed poorly and try to establish the reasons why. They identify misconceptions candidates have and the common errors they make. The main reason why KNEC produces such reports is for enhancement of quality tuition and by extension quality education. That is how it has been established that students do poorly in Kiswahili.

1.3 The Statement of the Problem

With the introduction of Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili at secondary school level, teachers and students are faced with teaching and learning challenges which have led to poor grades in the subject in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE). This study set out to investigate the influence of sociolinguistics teachers' and students' attributes on KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya. The extent to which teacher attributes such as preparedness and gender and students' attitudes towards Kiswahili sociolinguistics in influencing performance of Kiswahili was studied and the findings realized helped to

fill this gap in knowledge.

1.4 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of sociolinguistics teachers' and students' attributes on KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The study was undertaken with the aim of attaining the following objectives:

1. To assess the extent to which teachers' preparedness influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya.
2. To determine the degree to which teachers' gender influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya.
3. To establish the extent to which students' attitudes influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya.

1.6 Research Questions

The study sought to answer the following questions;

1. To what extent does teachers' preparedness influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya?
2. To what degree does teachers' gender influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya?
3. To what extent do students' attitudes influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study findings may assist in developing preparation approaches relevant in the teaching and learning of Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. The findings may shed more light on how teachers and students in secondary schools can cope up with the challenges of Kiswahili Sociolinguistics. The findings may be useful to curriculum developers in developing curriculum for in-service courses for teachers of Kiswahili. Finally, the findings may be used to enrich teacher training in colleges and universities.

1.8 Justification of Study

This study is deemed important with regard to the current situation in the performance of Kiswahili subject at secondary school level in Likuyani Sub-county. The poor performance in this language subject is blamed on low performance in the area of sociolinguistics which could be possibly attributed to poor preparation of teachers in this relatively new area.

1.9 The Scope and Limitations of the Study

1.9.1 Scope of the Study

The study involved teachers of Kiswahili and students as its respondents. The study was based on the preparedness of the teaching and learning of sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. Schools involved in the study were public secondary schools drawn from Likuyani Sub-county in Kakamega County in Kenya.

1.9.2 Limitations of the Study

The study was conducted in a small number of schools in Likuyani Sub-county and the findings may not be sufficiently applied to other schools elsewhere through generalization. Another limitation was impassable roads since the study was undertaken during rainy season and the area of study has a poor road network and unfriendly land terrain. In addition, financial constraints posed a challenge to the study.

1.10 Delimitations of the Study

The limitation on the small number of schools involved in the study was countered by use of highly validated and reliable instruments of data collection. The researcher had good knowledge of the district and resorted to use of motorbike and walking on foot in some instances in case of impassable roads.

1.11 Assumptions of the Study

The study was carried out under the following assumptions;

1. Teachers are ill prepared to teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili.
2. Teachers of Kiswahili can guide students cope with the Sociolinguistic problem during the teaching and learning of Kiswahili.
3. Availability of teaching and learning facilities and resources has an effect on students' performance in Kiswahili.
4. There are ways of improving teacher preparation in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili.

1.12 Theoretical Framework

This study is based on Krashen's (1985) theory of Second Language Learning in particular the Affective Filter principle which stipulates that there exist a 'Filter' or 'mental block' that determines how much a person learns in a formal or informal language setting. The filter comprises affective factors such as attitudes to language, motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Thus, learners with favourable attitudes and self-confidence may have 'a low filter' with consequent efficient second language learning. Those with unfavorable attitudes and high anxiety have 'high filters' and so the input of second language learning may be blocked or impeded. The Affective Filter Hypothesis influences the rate of development in second language learning and the level of success in becoming bilingual.

The Krashen's (1985) theory of second language learning is relevant to this study in the sense that the affective factors should be taken into account in language teaching and learning where pedagogical goals should not only include supplying optimal input, but also creating a situation that promotes learning. The student, who feels at ease in classroom, likes the teacher and the school environment, has positive attitude, is self confident and motivated and for this reason may also translate to language learning and good performance (Krashen, 1982).

Constructivism was also used because it provides a broader scope for interpreting and relating ideas from other perspectives such as contextual influence on interactions taking place in learning situations. This approach has many implications for the process of teaching and learning *Isimujamii*. It perceives learners as active entities able to shape their own knowledge given good guidance by teachers. Brooks (1993)

outlines the roles of a constructivist teacher as mediating teacher-student and student-student interactions hence helping students to be learners and not merely followers. It is obvious that language of instruction plays an important role in constructivist teaching-learning process because of its emphasis on participation.

1.13 Conceptual Framework

The theory of Second Language Learning in particular the Affective Filter principle provided the framework for understanding the influence of sociolinguistics teachers' and students' attributes on KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya as shown in Figure 1.

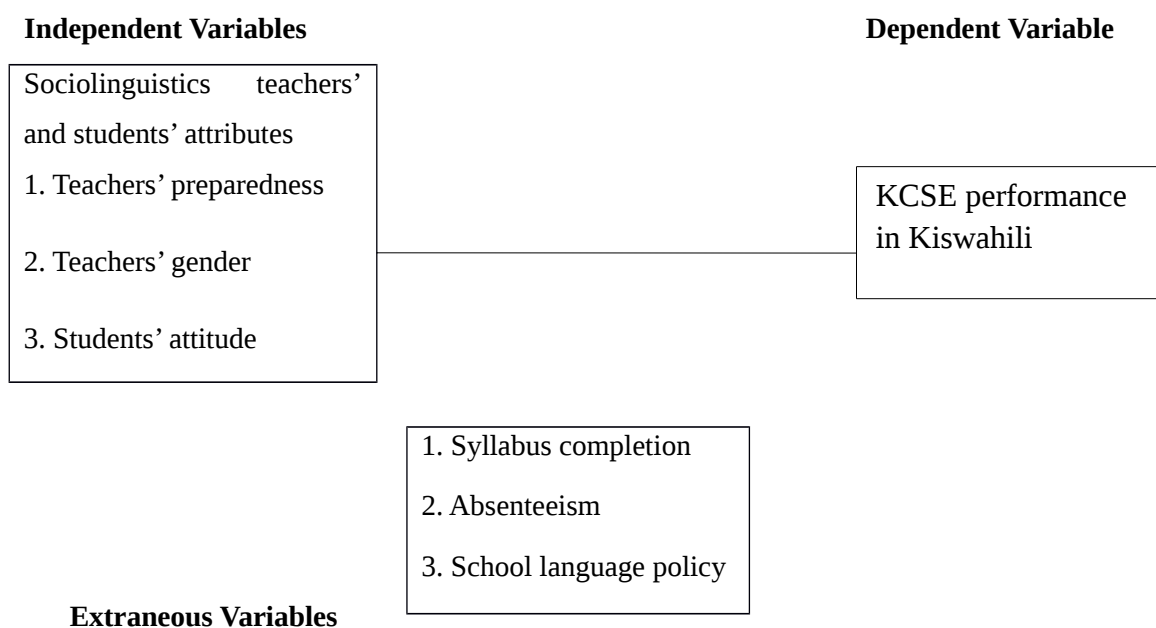


Figure 1: Influence of Sociolinguistics Teachers' and Students' Attributes on KCSE Performance in Kiswahili.

Figure 1 presents the influence of sociolinguistics teachers' and students' attributes on KCSE performance in Kiswahili. The independent variables are sociolinguistics teachers' and students' attributes namely teachers' preparedness, teachers' gender and students' attitude. The dependent variable is KCSE performance in Kiswahili. The

extraneous variables are syllabus completion, absenteeism and school language policy. The effect of the extraneous variables on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables in the study was controlled by randomization of the respondents.

1.14 Definition of Operational Terms

Curriculum: a formulated and structured content in formal learning to be taught in formalized institutions of learning.

Curriculum implementation: the actual teaching and guiding learners to acquire knowledge or experience in socio-linguistics in Kiswahili as per Secondary Kiswahili Curriculum (SKC 2002).

Secondary Kiswahili Curriculum: the content of Kiswahili taught in secondary schools which includes *Kiswahili Lugha* (Kiswahili Language) and *Fasihi* (Literature in Kiswahili) with regard to SKC 2002.

Sociolinguistics/Isimujamii: the contextualized use of language pegged on status, age, education, group and culture among others. It is also the study of linguistic behaviour as determined by socio-cultural factors.

Teacher preparation: the in-college and in-service training given to teachers to prepare a sufficient supply of highly qualified teachers .It also includes teacher' preparation with regard to lesson planning, scheming, selection and use of teaching and learning resources as well as selection of appropriate teaching approaches.

Teacher of Kiswahili: Any individual employed in a learning institution to give instruction in the Kiswahili discipline.

1.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the background against which this study was undertaken. Thus the statement of the problem was presented as well as the scope and limitations of this study. An eclectic approach was employed to formulate a theoretical framework that guided the study and helped to draw important philosophical concepts from various perspectives. In this regard, Krashen's Monitor Model(1985), with specific reference

to the 'Affective Filter Hypothesis' which stipulates that there is an 'Affective Filter' that determines how much a person learns in a formal or informal language setting was the basis of the study. In addition, Brook's (1993) idea of constructivism which outlines the roles of a constructivist teacher as mediating teacher-student and student-student interaction hence helping students to be learners and not merely followers was also adopted. The study is intended to benefit curriculum planners and teacher training institutions to adequately prepare teachers in teaching *Isimujamii*. The next chapter discusses literature by various scholars related to teacher preparation in teaching Sociolinguistics.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on teacher preparation in teaching Socio-linguistics in Kiswahili. Hart (1998) notes that literature review in a study enables the researcher to acquire an understanding of the topic thereby avoiding duplication and recognizing existing gaps in the area of study.

2.2 Teachers' Preparedness in Teaching Sociolinguistics

Teaching is a complex process which deals with imparting new knowledge and skills to a learner(s). A teacher performs the task of passing knowledge and skills in methodical steps which begin with prior preparation. The teacher needs to understand the content well and also the method best suited to pass the knowledge and skills. Teaching Kiswahili sociolinguistics needs a teacher to be prepared well and to have good grasp of the content matter. Brown (2001) notes that in preparation, a teacher must be well versed in the language he/she will use to deliver the knowledge and skills. Therefore, teachers who teach Kiswahili sociolinguistics should have a mastery of Kiswahili as a medium of instruction. However, due to lack of this mastery, these teachers end up using the English language as a medium of instruction when instructing on Sociolinguistics (Furaha, 1991). Learners also should be conversant with the language in order to make communication effective. Egessa (2007) explains that effective teaching starts with a well thought out preparation. In universities, sociolinguistics is a course taught separately from education units, but since teachers are trained in subject methodologies, they are supposed to integrate them in teaching Kiswahili Sociolinguistics (Omaggio, 2001).

Reavis and Mehaffie (1980) identified the role of preparation with respect to what teachers who teach Kiswahili sociolinguistics should be able to do. Some of these roles are: (i) Be able to teach all sociolinguistics related topics in Kiswahili and in all forms (levels). (ii) Be able to teach students of a wide range of abilities in the same classroom during the same time span. (iii) Be knowledgeable about materials and resources that can clearly articulate on matters touching on Sociolinguistics. (iv) Be able to direct a variety of extracurricular or co-curricular activities. (v) Be able to supervise and assist students in understanding the content. Usually, teacher preparation is believed to boost the academic performance of students. However, studies have failed to support this view. Goldhaber and Brewer (1999) and Walsh (2001) explain that teacher preparation has no demonstrated value for enhancing student achievement. This conclusion about the value of teacher preparation applies to traditional teacher preparation that leads to degrees from colleges and universities and entails professional practice teaching. Some teachers who have taught Kiswahili sociolinguistics for many years have been able to see results improve without visible evidence in preparation. This is attributed to experience as experience acquired over time overrides preparation (Goldhaber and Brewer, 1999 and Walsh, 2001).

Sociolinguistics need specific preparations before teaching, priority therefore, should be on a thorough grounding in the content to teach (Peters, 2010). That subject matter is an essential component of teacher knowledge is neither a new nor a controversial assertion. After all, if teaching entails helping others learn, then understanding what is to be taught is a central requirement of teaching. The myriad tasks of teaching, such as selecting worthwhile learning activities, giving helpful explanations, asking productive questions, and evaluating students' learning, all depend on the teacher's

understanding of what it is that students are to learn. As Buchmann (1984) points out, it would be odd to expect a teacher to plan a lesson on, for instance, writing reports in science and to evaluate related student assignments, if that teacher is ignorant about writing and about science, and does not understand what student progress in writing science reports might mean.

Although subject matter knowledge in Kiswahili sociolinguistics is widely acknowledged as a central component of what teachers need to know before teaching, research on teacher education has not, in the main, focused on the development of teachers' subject matter knowledge. Researchers specifically interested in how teachers develop and change have focused on other aspects of teaching and learning to teach: for example, changes in teachers' role conceptions, their beliefs about their work; their knowledge of students, curriculum, or of teaching strategies. Yet to ignore the development of teachers' subject matter knowledge seems to belie its importance in teaching and in learning to teach.

Fullan (1992) views the implementation stage of a syllabus as the most vital stage in curriculum change. On the other hand, Mampuru (2001) sees curriculum implementation as the single most difficult phase of curriculum development. So curriculum implementation is a crucial, difficult and unavoidable phase in curriculum development. This is because without implementation, a curriculum cannot be evaluated to ascertain its strengths, successes, shortcomings and [or] weaknesses. Curriculum implementation is crucial as it is at this stage that curriculum is consumed by its target users especially the learners. According to Shiundu and Omulando (1992), curriculum implementation is “the systematic process of ensuring that the new curriculum reaches the immediate beneficiaries, the learners”. Whichever way we look at it, curriculum implementation involves two major stakeholders: the teachers

and the learners. This is because teachers are the main implementers and the learners are the main targets or direct consumers of the curriculum.

Hymes (1972), in reaction to the Chomskyan dichotomy of ‘competence’ (i.e., knowledge of a language) and ‘performance’ (i.e., actual use of a language), pointed out forcefully the notion of communicative competence, arguing that “there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless” (p.278). Ever since, L2 teaching has gradually shifted its focus from linguistic forms to actual language use, and this kind of competence has been claimed to represent “a concept that attracts researchers and curriculum developers “and provide a study framework for integrating linguistic theory, research and teaching practice” (Savignon, 1991, p. 263).

Accordingly, a major change over the past three decades in L2 instruction can be observed in the shift from an explicit emphasis on language itself (grammar, vocabulary and phonology) to an enthusiastic focus on the expression and comprehension of meaning through language use. Today the term CLT is considered a currently well recognized approach that is generally accepted as a norm in L2 learning and teaching. As Brown (2001) nicely and humorously put it, CLT, along with a number of concepts allied to it such as “learner centered”, “whole language based”, “content centered” and “cooperative”, has become such a bandwagon term that without the endorsement of it, ‘teachers cannot be decent human beings and textbooks cannot sell.’ Compared to approaches that are primarily or even exclusively form focused and metalinguistic in orientation, the new approach, designed to engage learners in the pragmatic, functional authentic use of the target language for meaningful purposes, indeed does a better job of leading to higher levels of fluency

and communicative confidence in the L2 (Lightbown & Spada,1990).

According to Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), communicative competence consists of four indispensable components: grammatical, discourse, Sociolinguistic and strategic competences. Simply put, grammatical competence deals with sentence level rules only, discourse competence with rules that govern the relationship among sentences to form a meaning whole, sociolinguistic competence with rules of speaking that depend on pragmatic, sociocultural elements and strategic competence with the way the speaker manipulates language to fulfill communicative goals.

Sociolinguistic competence seems to be the most neglected aspect among the four categories of communicative competence in second language teaching curriculum. The deemphasized status of this competence in educational practice has to do with the fact that it is closely related to the sociocultural part of acquiring a second language. This type of competence in effect requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of this kind can judgment be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance (Savignon, 1983, p. 37). However, although the teaching of sociocultural understanding seems so critical for appropriate use of language that no one would deny the need for and importance of having these components integrated with required L2 study, we can easily observe a number of reasons why many language courses today yet do not include sociocultural materials. For example, Omaggio (2001), summarizes three main reasons why such understanding is often not treated both as a topic on its own right and as an

indispensable aspect of language teaching. (a) Language teachers often think that they do not have time for sociocultural teaching in an already time-limited curriculum. Sometimes teachers even think that after students master the basic skills, they will naturally be exposed to sociocultural materials. (b) Teachers may not have enough confidence in believing that they can teach sociocultural aspect of L2 learning well. (c) The teaching of sociocultural competence often involves dealing with students' attitudes; it thus is a sort of hazy, threatening and unquantifiable area that teachers usually find very challenging when trying to guide their students to understand and appreciate the logic and meaning of the target culture. Consequently, it appears to be no surprise that Sociolinguistic competence is often neglected in educational practices.

Since the introduction of SKC in secondary schools in Kenya in 2002, numerous challenges can be pointed out that have hampered its successful implementation. However, the challenges should not be viewed as threats to the curriculum but should be seen as opportunities to improve on future revision or design of Secondary Kiswahili curriculum. In Kenya, the responsibility of curriculum development, research and curriculum review is bestowed upon the Kenya Institute of Education (K.I.E), a semi-autonomous government agency within the Ministry of Education. In order to carry out this enormous mandate, K.I.E, works in close consultation with other stakeholders in curriculum matters like teachers through subject panels.

As Shiundu & Omulando (1992, p.178) rightly observes “relevant training for those who will implement the program, especially the teachers, is very crucial”. Teachers play an important role in new curriculum implementation. A teacher is the one who

interacts directly with the curriculum and he/she is always with the consumers of the curriculum, the students. Despite the important role a teacher plays in curriculum implementation, most teachers lack in-depth training and in-service of 2002 SKC.

Training is a crucial component of the successful implementation of sociolinguistics in the Kiswahili curriculum. Most teachers allude that there was no formal organized in-service training for the teachers when SKC started to be implemented in 2003. Implementation problems are bound to occur if no mechanisms are put in place to explain syllabus changes or revisions to teachers and “to train them in new techniques” (Kennedy, 1987).

Most teachers of Kiswahili were used to the 1992 SKC which was different from the 2002 SKC in scope and breadth, that is, the latter had wide coverage in terms of content with the inclusion of *Isimujamii* which was not in the former. Another challenge that teachers of Kiswahili faced when the 2002 SKC was initiated in 2003 was how to manage the new and the old curricula simultaneously. This posed a major challenge to teachers of Kiswahili because while the Form 1 students were using the new syllabus, Forms 2, 3 and 4 used the old curriculum (1992 SKC). Some teachers admitted that there was a lot of confusion in implementing the two curricula simultaneously (KIE, 2002)

Although individual Kiswahili enthusiasts and associations like 'Chama cha Kiswahili cha Taifa-Kenya' (CHAKITA) tried to fill the gap of organizing seminars and workshops, it left very little impact. This is partly because; they didn't reach all teachers of Kiswahili because of geographical, financial and technical constraints.

Egessa (2007, p. 116) also found out that many teachers did not attend refresher courses on the 2002 SKC. This is partly due to financial, pedagogical and logical problems in organizing them. The Ministry of Education and specifically the Kenya Institute of Education did not take an active role in organizing of the seminars and workshops leaving it to individuals and private professional organizations to run the show.

Various scholars in curriculum studies like Hawes (1972), Bishop (1985) and Syomwene (2003) authenticate the important role of teachers in curriculum implementation. For teachers to effectively carry out the role of curriculum implementation, adequate and elaborate training is a must. The 2002 SKC was designed and implemented when the teacher training institutions namely colleges and universities had not satisfactorily prepared teachers of Kiswahili for the 2002 SKC. This is because at the university, some of the topics in 2002 SKC were optional hence some teacher-trainees graduated having not taken the units or courses.

Each university has its own teaching syllabus. Some Kiswahili courses are core and compulsory in one university but the same courses are optional and elective in another university for Kiswahili teacher-trainees. For instance, Kiswahili Poetry, Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili, Kiswahili Short Story, Kiswahili Novel and Kiswahili Drama courses are not compulsory or core courses at the University of Nairobi for students taking Bachelor of Education in Kiswahili programme (University of Nairobi Calendar, 2008). Yet topics dealing with these courses are supposed to be taught at the secondary level. This brings out all the difference in training of teachers of Kiswahili in Kenya.

The way, in which some Kiswahili courses are structured in some universities, a student teacher may go through the university and graduate having not taken some courses which are optional or elective. A recent study by Egessa (2007) reveals that over 70% of the practicing teachers of Kiswahili did not take some Kiswahili courses at the university during their training. Yet after graduation they are expected to teach students at secondary school the topics they missed at the university. These topics include short story, sociolinguistics, oral literature, poetry, creative writing, emerging issues and use of integrated approach to teaching of language and literature. Although innovativeness is crucial in the teaching profession, thorough training in specific topics and courses is even more crucial in order for the teacher to impart appropriate knowledge and skills to the learner.

2.3 Role of General Language and Kiswahili in Teaching

Learning sociolinguistics in any language plays a critical role in the education of people. Halliday (1977) says that the role of a language in the education process is a special aspect of the relation between language and social structure since language is the principle means of culture transmission. The fundamental assumption in education theory and practice is the adjustment of the child to the life and culture of his society, (Awoniyi, 1982). He argues that it is hardly possible to take away a child's first language without adverse consequences and that no greater injustice can be committed against a people than to deprive them of their language.

Bearne (1999) quotes a definition from the Cox Report that defines language as: "a system of sounds, meanings and structures with which we make sense of the world around us. It functions as a tool of thought, as a means of social organization, as a repository and means of transmission of knowledge, as the raw material of literature

and as the creator and sustainer or destroyer of human relationships. It changes inevitably over a time and, as change is not uniform, from place to place” Apparently, language seems to be a major tool of defining our individual identities. Lawton (1989) says that we are human largely by means of language and that our view of reality is bound up with language. He perceives language as the uniquely human attribute, which enables us to learn, think creatively and change our social environment. There are well over 2,700 languages in the world today and Kiswahili is rated among the Worlds major languages and perhaps the most promoted African language in modern times. UNESCO (1999) says that Kiswahili is estimated to be spoken by over 40 million people in about 12 countries in Africa and places it among the two largest languages in Africa roughly equating it with Hausa in terms of numbers.

Kiswahili is a language of Bantu origin which according to Chimerah (1997) has phenomenally risen especially in the second half of the 19th century as to capture the interest of social-linguists, administrators, educationists, writers and others. It has steadily risen to a level of an international language defying hurdles ranging from indifferent individual attitudes and biases to discriminative government language policies. The use of Kiswahili in Education in Kenya can be traced to the colonial period after the establishment of the colonial department of education in 1911. Oluoch (1978) as cited in Mokamba et. al., (2012) singled out four language education policies in curriculum namely: The first language policy in 1911, the second language policy in Bishop (1985), the third policy in the Ominde Report of 1964, the fourth language policy in the Inspectorate Report of the Ministry of Education in 1976. In the language policy of 1911, language matters were left to the missionaries and Kiswahili was taught in practically all schools as the most cultivated and widely

spoken language in the country then. It was the language of instruction in the school curriculum and colonial officers were required to learn it and pass some sort of exam.

Bishop (1985) dealt a blow to Kiswahili elevating English and leaving it to schools to decide whether to teach Kiswahili or not. This situation persisted till the Ominde Commission of 1964 restored its place as medium of instruction but in lower primary. The Ominde Commission recommended that it be made a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools. This was never to be implemented until the Mackay Commission of 1981 gave it this status of a compulsory subject in both primary and secondary levels. Before then Kiswahili was taught but never examined at primary school level and offered as an optional subject at secondary school level both at Kenya Certificate of Education (K.C.E) and Kenya Advanced Certificate of Education (K.A.C.E) according to the East African Examination Council in 1976. Apparently government language policies in colonial and postcolonial Kenya have determined the place of Kiswahili in the education curriculum but largely colonial language policies still dominate.

Whiteley (1969) in the following quotation regrets this situation in Kenya and says: “There is a certain irony in the fact that while it is Kenya that can boast of her eighteenth century Swahili Literature, it is in Tanzania where most has been done for the development of Swahili literature in this century”. Lamenting further on the same situation, Mazrui (1995) says that the governments of East Africa need to defy the colonial myth that Kiswahili was unfit to cope with the requirement of the twentieth century and invest their resources, time and effort in making Kiswahili a language that can cope with scientific discourse. There is no language, he argues, incapable of

handling modern science and technology.

Okombo (2001) takes issue with this dented language policy and describes Kenya as an environment in which a number of indigenous languages are spoken by the broad masses controlled by a small national elite that overtly operates in a non-indigenous ex-colonial language and claims links to the broad masses through a national language in which they (the national elite) and a sizeable proportion of the masses are hardly competent. He further argues that effective participation in development and government activities requires a good degree of proficiency in the language of the market and the public platform and says Kiswahili being the most privileged indigenous language in sub-Saharan Africa has potential for the role.

The current 8-4-4 Secondary Education Kiswahili curriculum was introduced in 1986 and has since been evaluated and revised. It was first evaluated and revised in 1992 because the curriculum was said to be too broad with unnecessary overlaps across subjects and levels. It was also overburdening parents in provision of facilities equipment and materials needed and also that teachers were inadequately prepared to handle practical subjects. The number of subjects was consequently reduced to 8 from 10. Despite the reduction, the curriculum continued to be overloaded and still with overlaps across subjects and levels.

A national assessment survey was carried out in 1999 by the Kenya Institute of Education (K.I.E) and the survey revealed among other things the unrealistic nature of the objectives which were not achievable with the time and resources available. There was still overloading in terms of subjects and content and overlaps within subjects and

levels. Other problems included high costs, lack of equipment for practical skills, inadequate teacher preparation, insufficiency of the curriculum in addressing emerging issues like HIV/AIDS pandemic, drug abuse, gender parity, human rights/children rights, morality, industrial transformation, environmental education among others. In its recommendations to the Government, the Academic Board of the Kenya Institute of Education proposed the reduction of subjects in secondary schools to 21 from 35 with core subjects and optional subjects. The Board expanded the national goals of education and recommended off loading some content to more appropriate levels, eliminating overlaps by leaving the content in the most appropriate levels. To reduce costs of education subjects were to be reduced and incorporate vital emerging issues in the curriculum. Following these recommendations a revised syllabus was introduced to schools in the year 2003.

Among the major changes in the Kiswahili Secondary curriculum was the introduction of oral literature, the use of the library and dictionary. The noun classes were re-aligned, vocabulary as separate content area was eliminated and functional writing, listening comprehension and short stories were introduced. Emerging issues were infused in the curriculum and this saw Kiswahili given a new curriculum face altogether. An interview with the head of Kiswahili secondary programmes at K.I.E revealed that these changes are a response to the broadened goals of education which have in turn been influenced by changes in the social economic sphere and the effects of globalization.

The changes also were aimed at reducing the cost of materials especially in literature (Fasihi) which were changing after every three years. He further says that Kiswahili,

being a language, is not a content-based subject but a skill based subject and therefore easily fits as a carrier subject for emerging issues. The changes also aim at addressing overloading in content and inadequacies of the former curriculum especially in grammar making learning supposedly easier. In fact as Okombo (2001) says, a language grows and shrinks with its culture and that the growth of a culture places new communicative demands on its language making it expand. He aptly says that the use of a language in education, business, socio-cultural activities, administration and other usages exposes a language to challenges. While curriculum reforms may be well intentioned, such intentions are only meaningful if they are implementable.

Oketch and Asiachi (1992) concede that implementation of curriculum innovations is not easy in Kenya given that plans and policies of new curriculum changes come from government with very little input from teachers. UNESCO (1999) says that curriculum reform may be evolutionary or revolutionary and outlines the following as factors to consider in curriculum reform: 1). There should be an analytic assessment of existing curriculum to justify reform 2). Review learning needs from the point of view of individual learner requirements and national development needs.

2.4 Gender and Sociolinguistics

Samar and Alibakhshi (2006) found that there is a significant difference between males and females in the use of linguistic strategies in male-male and female-female communications. Li (2014) found that there is an interaction between gender and experience, education and power of the interlocutors in the use of linguistics strategies. The study further found that in terms of the amount of talk, men use more words to compose more sentences. In other words, they are much more talkative than women. In the aspect of the amount of turns, men are inclined to take the turn floor

for a longer time. In a word, the proposed research, though has some limitations, is of theoretical and practical significance. Ladegaard (2002) found that male subjects have more vernacular features in their language and also express more genuinely positive attitudes towards the local vernaculars than do female subjects.

2.5 Students' Attitudes towards Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili

Wamalwa, Adika and Kevogo (2013) found that students have favourable attitudes towards Kiswahili and the language's status among secondary school students has not diminished. Kiswahili remains the most preferred language of use in all major domains. Daniel (2010) found that attitudes emerge as only one of many factors that influence language choice in multilingual contexts.

2.6 Approaches in Teaching Sociolinguistics

The changing face of teaching has moved away from didacticism to learning facilitation and with this is the need for teachers to play different roles and use new techniques. Three main styles of teaching are acknowledged; didactic, Socratic and facilitative. The diversity of styles provides a degree of flexibility that allows a teacher to alter the task of teaching sociolinguistics whether it is teacher-centred or student-centred. The lecture is probably the most frequently employed teaching technique in Sociolinguistics despite all the criticisms that have been leveled against it (Gregory, 2002). It is an economical means of transmitting factual concepts in Sociolinguistics to a large class, although there is no guarantee that effective learning will result (Brownhill, 2002). The didactic approach to teaching primarily involves lecturing and is essentially teacher-centred (Entwistle, 1997). Fry, Ketteridge & Marshall (2003) reminds us that although the lecture remains a major method of teaching in adult and continuing education, and is still recognized as a useful teaching

tool as it can provide a framework of ideas and theories but it needs to be complemented by interaction and adult-oriented strategies due to attention span and lack of participation. Didacticism raises numerous constraints which involve rote learning, learning by note taking, and potential boredom as the approach limits student participation and reflection.

Many teachers use the lecture method to teach Sociolinguistics, especially when introducing the subject to the students for the first time or if the students are teacher dependent, anxious or disorganized (Brookfield, 1996). Radical pedagogies have challenged conventional classroom practice where the student is the recipient of new knowledge and the teacher is the knower. Teaching is no longer seen as imparting knowledge and doing things to the student, but is redefined as facilitation of self-directed learning. In an attempt to alter this position, the teacher can use problem-solving techniques and vicarious learning strategies to encourage students to articulate and theorize what they know already in relation to the meaning of their experiences and their interpretation. Sharing of experiences allows students to critically think and undertake structured reflection on how the events may influence their personal circumstances. This facilitative approach to teaching teases out previous learning and helps students make sense of experiences in relation to real world events (Gregory, 2002).

In order to facilitate the learning of Sociolinguistics, teachers must be competent, possess self-esteem, hold authority within the classroom, show compassion, respect for individuals and be flexible in the range and style of teaching methods. They can be

challenged and should be able to form relationships between themselves and the students (Freeth & Parker, 2003). To be effective facilitators, teachers need to be accomplished in the educational attributes they may want students to acquire. The qualities that exist in the personal relationship between the facilitator and the learner are important. This emphasis on the facilitation of learning correlates with the humanistic approach to learning and represents a shift from didactic exposition to one of empowering the student to learn theory and skills. The facilitator's role is one that encourages students to engage in intellectual analysis, critically think, problem solve, describe experiences (Gregory, 2002) and challenge learning. Challenge is an aspect of learning facilitation that is commensurate with transformational learning (Entwistle, 1997).

Different styles of facilitation are established (Entwistle, 1997). Didactic-experiential is viewed as the least effective facilitative method, as lecturers can become defensive whilst engaging in group work and fail to address high-level challenges from students (Entwistle, 1997). Poor facilitation of learning can have a detrimental effect on student morale, and induce reduced confidence and motivation to achieve (Banning, 2004). Lecturers who fall into this category are essentially ill-equipped to undertake learning facilitation, as they may not appreciate the professional constraints that influence the learning environment. In contrast critical pedagogy is the most facilitative style of facilitation, as it hands over the responsibility for learning to the student as they debate cognitive and intuitive perceptions (Entwistle, 1997). These features are commensurate with the development of academic awareness and clinical reasoning skills in students and concur with the characteristics of student empowerment (Brookfield, 1996). Although the facilitation of learning caters for the

adult learner, to succeed in this approach, students require the theoretical ingredients for effective and comprehensive learning and the acquisition of skills in clinical reasoning. To achieve this, students require a compilation of learning materials and academic support; both elements are crucial, especially when the discipline is unfamiliar. Failure to provide these elements will result in surface learning which is based on the memorization of poorly comprehended theory (Banning, 2004).

The Socratic method of teaching emphasizes student-centredness and strongly opposes didacticism. Brownhill (2002) illustrates how teachers who teach sociolinguistics can use either authoritarian or non-authoritarian Socratic teaching positions to enhance students to learn independently and become critical thinkers. Teachers provide the initial theoretical positions and introduce the associated inconsistencies and attributes in an attempt to raise awareness in students, initiate reflection and ponder on the key concepts. Both autocratic and non-autocratic teaching approaches equally enhance the ability of students to conceptualize and reflect on positions.

2.7 Scope of Kiswahili Sociolinguistics Research

Sociolinguistics is a relatively new concept integrated in the Kiswahili discipline. Sociolinguistics is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and the effects of language use on society. Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in that the focus of Sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language, while the sociology of language focuses on language's effect on the society.

The employment of Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili has triggered an immense interest in research. Brook, Brigit, Desai, and Qorro (2004) found that there is an increasing

intergration of words from ethnic African languages in the Kiswahili language in its instructional use. Socio-historic background of Kiswahili speakers has a heavy influence in the language. Blommaert (1992) argued that the specific socio-historic background of Tanzanian society accounts for the social valiancy of Kiswahili used by university students. The identity constructed by speakers of Campus Kiswahili results from the specific social history, an exclusive identity, that is one which is inaccessible for a majority of the population (Blommaert, 1992).

The spoken Kiswahili outside academic use reflects a juxtaposition of other languages native to users including English words. Omar and Alwinya (1993) investigated the ways in which native and non-native speakers of Kiswahili close conversations and found that non-native speakers were more proficient at using an English word while closing than opening a Kiswahili conversation. Code-switching, that is, integration of non-Kiswahili phrases in Kiswahili is rampantly applied in the daily usage of Kiswahili. Boztepe (2003) noted that code-switching is common in Kiswahili spoken in Tanzania, Uganda and Kenya resulting in a pidgin popularly referred to as 'sheng'.

Minority ethnic groups in Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Malawi are continuously finding it difficult to preserve their native languages as a result of the proliferation of Kiswahili (Jones, 1991). This is contributing to the growth of pidgin Kiswahili. Vitale (1990) notes that Kiswahili pidgin can be minimized by integrating 'sheng' in formal Kiswahili. This process has been started in Kenya where Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili is integral in the school curricula. However, the teaching of Kiswahili sociolinguistics is posing a challenge to both teachers and learners. Educational publication in Kiswahili is inadequate (Ogechi & Ogechi, 2002).The advancement of Kiswahili

Sociolinguistics in education is not only a capital investment in the development of human resources but it also immensely contributes to the development of a nation. However, the development of Kiswahili sociolinguistics cannot be achieved without support services such as books that are understood by many people. While appreciating that there exist few publications in Kiswahili, Ogechi and Ogechi (2002) argue that Kenya stands to gain a lot if she assigns Kiswahili a larger role, but at the same time cautions against downplaying the international significance of English.

2.8 How Students can be assisted by teachers in learning Sociolinguistics

It can be noted that the 2002 SKC as currently constructed is wide in scope because more topics were introduced hence it has more content compared to the 1992 SKC. Definitely this is a big load to the already overburdened teacher of Kiswahili. Teachers of Kiswahili on the ground, honestly state that it is an uphill task to cover the 2002 SKC within the normal stipulated time; the 2002 SKC is wide and time allocation for its coverage is inadequate.

Repeating contents of a subject at higher level is essential to a learner as far as learning is concerned. Carrying over a topic from lower to higher level with more complexity makes the learner grasp the major issues addressed in the topic. It shows that there is gradual development of content at consecutive levels. A close scrutiny of 2002 SKC reveals lack of repeated reiteration of content in succeeding levels from Form 1 to Form 4. For instance, *matamshi bora* (pronunciation) is covered only in Form 1 and Form 2 and nothing is mentioned of it in Form 3 and Form 4 (KIE, 2002). *Matamshi bora* (pronunciation) is a crucial component in Kiswahili speaking skills which should not be covered only in F1 and F2. A better approach should have been to have *matamshi bora* (pronunciation) from Form 1 to Form 4 but in varying levels

of complexity and depth in content coverage. Listening and speaking skills are not emphasized partly because they are not examinable skills in the national examination, the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (K.C.S.E.).

2.9 Related Studies

Ogechi (2004) analyzed the effects of Kiswahili curricula changes in Kenya on Kiswahili authorship and publishing since 1963. The bottom line of the argument is that any changes on the educational curriculum affecting Kiswahili have a corresponding effect on the way Kiswahili authors and publishers behave. Based on the foregoing, the article shows how the authors and publishers are compelled to adjust their attitude towards Kiswahili in order to keep abreast with the ever changing milieu- at one time they cherish Kiswahili while discounting it at another. Ogechi's work did not however focus on the effects of the changes in secondary Kiswahili curriculum on performance which has prompted my research in this area.

Kobia (2006) found that the problems facing Kiswahili authors in Kenya emanate from socio-economic, technological, attitudinal and language policy related challenges in relation to Kiswahili language and literature in the 21st century. He however did not determine whether the same challenges had an impact on the implementation of the 2002 Secondary Kiswahili Curriculum and performance in Kiswahili at K.C.S.E and more specifically on teacher preparedness in teaching Sociolinguistics. It is with this in mind that I chose to undertake a study on teacher preparation in teaching Sociolinguistics.

Musau and Ngugi (1997) argue that more students find it easier or prefer to write on literary rather than linguistic topics. Just as in literature, dissertations written on

Kiswahili language deal with diverse issues. Some of them deal with grammatical issues (Mukuria, 1987), or patterns of language use (Furaha, 1991 and Onyango 1990), while others discuss second language learning (Mudhune, 1994) and dialectology (Bakari, 1982). It should be mentioned that 17% of the linguistic studies are comparative in nature (for example, Ilongo 1983, Kimanga 1994). In such studies an aspect of Kiswahili language is compared with a similar aspect of another language in Kenya (more often than not, the language of comparison is always the student's first language). At times, a comparison is made in order to test whether a certain linguistic theory, say functional grammar, can describe well aspects of two languages. Such comparative studies show the central position that Kiswahili has come to occupy in the minds of those who do research. On the whole, the state of the research on linguistic aspects of Kiswahili is not satisfactory, while there are a number of studies in phonology and morphology (about 22%) and a good number in socio-linguistics (28%), there are very few of them on syntax (8%), lexicography (8%), translation (10%) and pragmatics (10%).

There is also very little research on Kiswahili dialects and other 'Kiswahili varieties'. While there is a study that employs morphophonological criteria in the delineation of dialect boundaries (Bakari 1982), there is nothing on lexicon. There is also nothing on the socio-linguistic aspect of the Kiswahili dialects and varieties. For example, are some of the dialects faced with imminent death? What is the impact of the standard dialect on the other dialects?

There are, in addition, very few systematically done studies (9%) that would benefit the teaching of Kiswahili language. There is need for such studies. Such studies

would take cognisance of the varied linguistic backgrounds of those who learn the language. It is with this in mind that I undertook to carry out a study on teacher preparation in teaching Socio-linguistics in Kiswahili in secondary schools in Likuyani Sub-county.

2.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed general literature on what other scholars have done with respect to Socio-linguistics and teacher preparation, how students can be assisted by teachers in learning socio-linguistics and other related studies to the problem of teacher preparation in teaching socio-linguistics in Kiswahili in which it has come out clearly that a lot of research has been done in aspects of Kiswahili literature as opposed to aspects of Kiswahili language including socio-linguistics. The review showed that there are very few systematically done studies that would benefit the teaching of Kiswahili language and thus showing the gap that requires more research in the various aspects of Kiswahili Language and more specifically the teaching of Kiswahili language. The next chapter focuses on the research design that was used in the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research design that was used in the study. To be described, is the methodology, research design, locale or the area of the study, the target population, sampling procedures, research instruments validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data analysis, ethical considerations, procedures for the analysis of data and chapter summary.

3.2 Research Design

A research design encompasses the methodology and procedure employed to conduct scientific research (Oppenheim, 1992). The study employed a survey design. The survey is a non-experimental, descriptive research method that determines and reports on the way things are, describes behaviour, attitudes, opinions, values, perceptions and characteristics as accurately as possible (Floyd & Fowler, 1993). It seeks to identify the nature of factors involved in a given situation, determines the degree in which they exist and discover the link that exists between them.

3.3 Location of the Study

The study was conducted in Likuyani Sub-county in Kakamega County in Kenya. The district was chosen because of its diversity in its varied ethnic composition in the provision of secondary education-both public and private. The district is agriculturally productive especially in maize production. The area has high altitude with a population of 756,000 people (KBS, 2011). Dairy farming is practiced with high returns for investment in children's education. However, the security in the district is

still wanting with spots of burglary activities from time to time.

3.4 Target Population

The target population was all teachers of Kiswahili and students attending public secondary schools in Likuyani Sub-county. The district had fifty teachers of Kiswahili and four thousand and five hundred students at the time of this study according to statistical records at the District Education Office (DEO, 2011).

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

Sampling may be defined as the selection of some part of an aggregate or totality on the basis of which a judgment or inference about the aggregate or totality is made (Kothari, 1985). It is also a selection of a representative sample from a target population to be used in a study to give desired characteristics about the population. Purposive simple random sampling technique was used to select a sample of six schools. Thereafter, simple random sampling procedure was employed in the selection of 183 student participants. Purposive sampling was used to draw all the 14 teachers of Kiswahili into the sample.

Table 1: Sample per School

SCHOOL	TEACHERS	STUDENTS
A	2	30
B	2	25
C	2	26
D	3	47
E	2	23
F	3	32
TOTAL	14	183

3.6 Instruments for Data Collection

In data collection, this study used structured questionnaires to elicit quantitative data from the sampled respondents. A questionnaire is a research tool that gathers data over

a large sample (Kombo, 2006). It refers to a set of questions designed in a form format and is employed by researchers in eliciting information for the purpose of data analysis. A questionnaire is a collection of items to which a respondent is expected to react usually in writing. Questionnaires have a definite advantage over other methods of collecting data. They are more efficient, less expensive and permit collection of data from a much larger sample. Questionnaires are also of particular importance in collecting information about a population in the fields of education and social sciences. They can also be used to collect information that is not directly observable since they, among other things, inquire about feelings, motivation, attitude, accomplishment, as well as an individual's experiences. The instruments included; questionnaires for teachers of Kiswahili and questionnaires for students' attitude toward sociolinguistics.

3.7 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in the neighboring Bungoma County to test the effectiveness of the instruments of data collection. The pilot study involved two public secondary schools through test – retest at an interval of two weeks. Data was collected from 2 teachers of Kiswahili. The same respondents were subjected to a repeat study after two weeks.

3.8 Reliability and Validity of Instruments

3.8.1 Reliability of Instruments

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). A test – retest or co-efficient of stability method was used to estimate the degree to which the same results could be obtained with a repeated measure of accuracy of the same concept in order to determine the reliability of the instrument. A correlation coefficient of 0.8

was useful in assisting to revise the questionnaire to make sure that it covered the objectives of the study. This level of reliability was attained by adding more items to the instrument and the process repeated until this threshold reliability was attained.

3.8.2 Validity of the Instruments

Validity is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences which are based on the research results (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). Essentially, validity is concerned with establishing whether the questionnaire content is measuring what it is supposed to measure. Validity is the degree to which the empirical measure or several measures of the concept, accurately measure the concept. Content validity is a non-statistical method used to validate the content employed in the questionnaire. The research instruments were given to the supervisors and fellow colleagues to help check the content against the objectives. After piloting, necessary adjustments were made in the questionnaire items for improvement.

3.9 Data Analysis

The raw data was categorized through coding and tabulation. Editing was also done to improve the quality of the data coding. Descriptive statistics was used. Descriptive statistics included the use of frequencies and percentages.

3.10 Ethical Consideration

The nature and purpose of the research was explained to the respondents by the researcher. The researcher respected the individual's rights to safeguard their personal integrity. During the course of data collection, the respondents were free to withdraw from the study. The respondents were assured of confidentiality. No personal identification numbers were reflected on the questionnaires except the numbering for questionnaires, mainly for purposes of identification of data during its editing. The

results of the study would be made available to the participant who would be interested in knowing the results. Any form of literature, data or inferences quoted from elsewhere, were acknowledged by the researcher.

3.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the research design that was used in the study. It described the methodology, research design, locale or the area of the study, the target population, sampling procedures, research instruments validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data analysis, ethical considerations and procedures for the analysis of data. The next chapter presents and explains the findings of this study with regard to the stated research questions.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and explains the findings with regard to the stated research questions. The chapter presents descriptive statistics of the variables under study and discussion of results obtained from data collected from 14 teachers of Kiswahili and 183 students in Likuyani Sub-county.

4.2 Characteristics of Population

Figure 2 presents the distribution of teacher participants who took part in this study and their respective schools in Likuyani Sub-county.

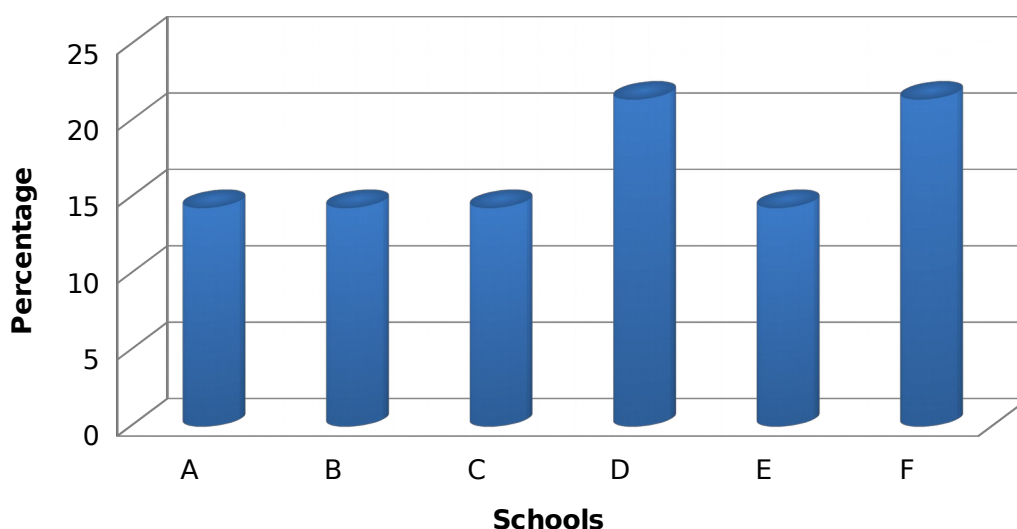


Figure 2: Teachers and their Respective Schools

Figure 2 shows that there was a near even distribution of teachers of Kiswahili in the schools drawn in the study. Each school had two teachers of Kiswahili except school D and F which had three teachers each representing a cumulative percentage of 42.8% (21.4% each). The rest of the schools had two teachers each representing 14.3% each. The distribution of teachers in secondary schools in Kenya is determined by each

school's Curriculum Based Establishment (CBE) which is based on student enrolment. The high percentages in school D and F are attributed to the high student enrolment in those schools compared to the other schools. It also points to the effectiveness of the principals in the schools in staffing. The study also covered students drawn from the same schools as teachers as shown in Figure 3.

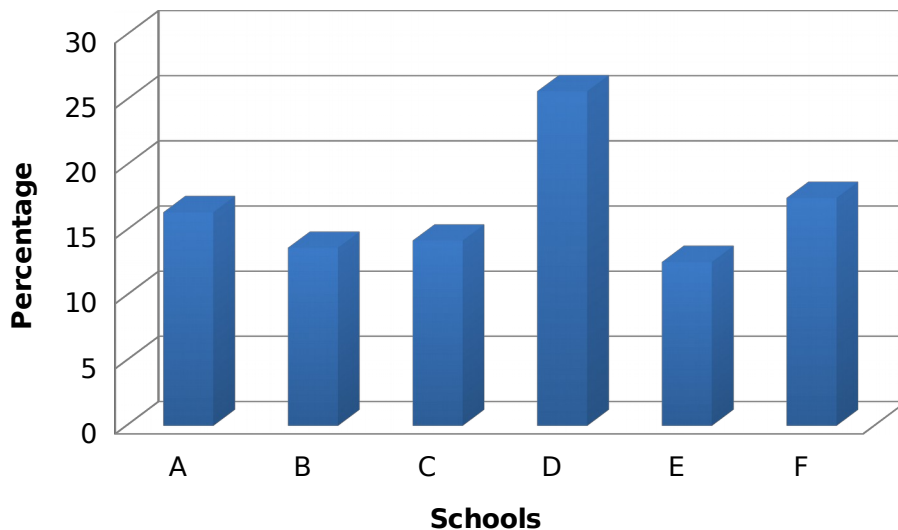


Figure 3: Student Participants in the Study

Figure 3 indicates that school D had a high percentage of the study participants (25.68%) followed by school F (17.49%), school A (16.39%), school C (14.21%), school B (13.66%) and school E (12.57%) respectively. The percentages of the study participants vary as a result of the proportionate student population in each school. School D had more representatives in the study participants as it had the largest student population among the schools drawn in the study. School E had the lowest student population at the time of the study hence drawing the least representatives in the study sample.

The gender of teachers of Kiswahili who took part in the study is presented as shown in Figure 4.

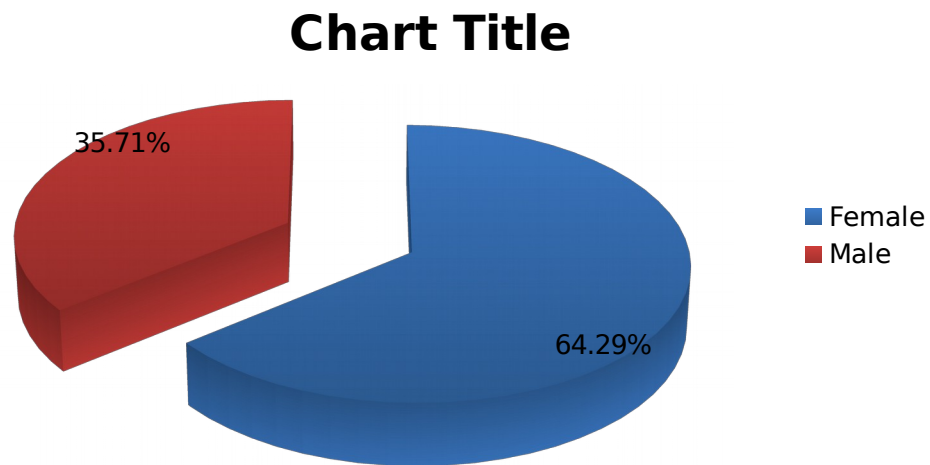


Figure 4: Gender of Teachers of Kiswahili Participants

The representation of gender in teachers of Kiswahili as shown in Figure 4 had a great disparity. There were more female teachers of Kiswahili (64.3%) than their male counterparts (35.7%). The high percentage of female teachers may be attributed to several factors. Most female teachers prefer posting to stations near their homes to ease transport logistics. They prefer teaching in schools neighbouring their homes in order to monitor happenings in their families. Male teachers had a low percentage representation in Kiswahili language because most male teachers shunned Kiswahili while in training as they considered it as having a feminine inclination. Therefore only few male teachers had trained in teaching Kiswahili language.

4.3 Teacher Preparation

A response of the teachers of Kiswahili to the 17 questions on teacher preparation in the questionnaire for Teachers of Kiswahili (Appendix 1) is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Teacher Preparation Responses

Statement	5	4	3	2	1	Total
1. Isimujamii is a confusing topic to students and teachers	0	4	1	7	4	16
2. Teachers of Kiswahili are ill equipped in teaching Isimujamii	0	7	1	7	0	15
3. Teachers seldom teach Isimujamii	0	5	0	5	5	15
4. There is lack of teaching/learning materials for Isimujamii	3	7	2	3	1	16
5. There is need for provision of instructional materials in Isimujamii	10	4	1	0	1	16
6. Isimujamii guides are available	5	7	0	1	3	16
7. Isimujamii guides are easy to understand and use	1	5	5	3	1	15
8. Teaching Isimujamii is more fascinating and fun	6	5	5	0	0	16
9. Kiswahili is difficult for students as a result of Isimujamii	2	3	1	4	6	16
10. Could you be willing to drop teaching Isimujamii given an option?	2	0	1	5	8	16
11. There is need for in-service course for teachers in Isimujamii.	9	4	3	0	0	16
12. It would take very little change in the present circumstances to improve teaching of Isimujamii in this school.	6	5	1	2	1	15
13. Isimujamii should be given considerable time in teaching.	4	8	3	1	0	16
14. There is a lot to be gained by engaging students in learning Isimujamii	10	4	0	1	1	16
15. Isimujamii will be improved over the years	6	8	2	0	0	16
15. The school administration is determined to improve performance of Kiswahili	8	5	3	0	0	16
16. Isimujamii is essential for secondary students	9	5	1	0	1	16
17. Many students enjoy learning Isimujamii	6	6	0	4	0	16

Table 2 shows that of the 17 questionnaires returned, only 15 were dully filled. One questionnaire was incomplete. Questions 2, 3, 7 and 12 in the incomplete questionnaire were not responded to. These questions were: Teachers of Kiswahili are

ill equipped in teaching Isimujamii; Teachers seldom teach Isimujamii; Isimujamii guides are easy to understand and use, and it would take very little change in the present circumstances to improve teaching of Isimujamii in this school. It is difficult to determine the reason why one respondent failed to respond to these questions. Probably, the respondent may have skipped them unintentionally due to absentmindedness or being in a hurry. Also, the respondent could have skipped the questions if they seemed to critique his attitude toward Isimujamii. The teacher may therefore have avoided responding to them to forestall psychic commitment. These questions somehow border on a teacher's integrity in performance hence the teacher respondent may have shied off.

How were teachers prepared to teach Sociolinguistics? Statistical responses from teachers are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Teacher preparedness in teaching Kiswahili sociolinguistics

School	Highly prepared	Moderately Prepared	Poorly prepared	Total
E	0	2	0	2
C	1	1	0	2
D	1	2	0	3
F	3	0	0	3
B	1	0	1	2
A	1	1	0	2
Total	7 (50%)	6(42.86%)	1(7.14%)	14

Table 3 shows that 7 teachers accounting for 50% of the teachers were highly prepared in teaching Kiswahili Sociolinguistics.6 teachers accounting for 42.86% were moderately prepared while 1 teacher accounting for 7.1% showed poor preparation.

The teachers' gender and level of preparedness in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Teachers' Gender and the Preparedness in Teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili

School	Highly Prepared		Moderately Prepared		Poorly Prepared		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
Female	4	57.14	5	83.33	0	0	9
Male	3	42.86	1	16.67	1	100	5
Total	7	100	6	100	1	100	14

Table 4 shows that female teachers are more prepared to teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili than their male counterparts. Four female teachers representing 57.14% were highly prepared as compared to 3 male teachers who stood at 42.86%. Female teachers were moderately prepared at 83.33% with male teachers standing at 16.67%. Of those teachers who reported being poorly prepared, 100% were male teachers.

4.4 Students' Attitudes towards Sociolinguistics

Students' attitudes toward Sociolinguistics as incorporated in the Kiswahili curriculum in secondary schools in Likuyani Sub-county as generated from student's questionnaire on attitudes towards Sociolinguistics (Appendix 2). The questionnaire scores are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Students' Attitudes towards Sociolinguistics Responses

	Strongly Agree	Agree	undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Q1	47	69	14	32	6	168
Q2	68	66	8	11	6	159
Q3	18	32	35	39	41	165
Q4	113	32	2	9	11	167
Q5	19	31	8	69	39	166
Q6	20	24	14	50	59	167
Q7	15	34	6	45	69	169
Q8	13	6	5	28	115	167
Q9	23	7	6	41	80	157
Q10	32	69	16	20	31	168
Total	368	370	114	344	457	

Key

Q1-Q10 - Students' attitudes toward Sociolinguistics questionnaire items (Appendix 2)

Table 5 shows that participants in the study evenly responded with 'Strongly Agree', 'Agree' and 'Disagree'. The least favoured response was 'Undecided' while the most favoured response was 'Strongly Disagree'. Participants who responded with 'Undecided' were either avoiding commitment of attitude or did not understand the questions posed. The 10 questions were summed up and the attitude of students toward the learning of Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili was computed. Results are presented in Figure 5.

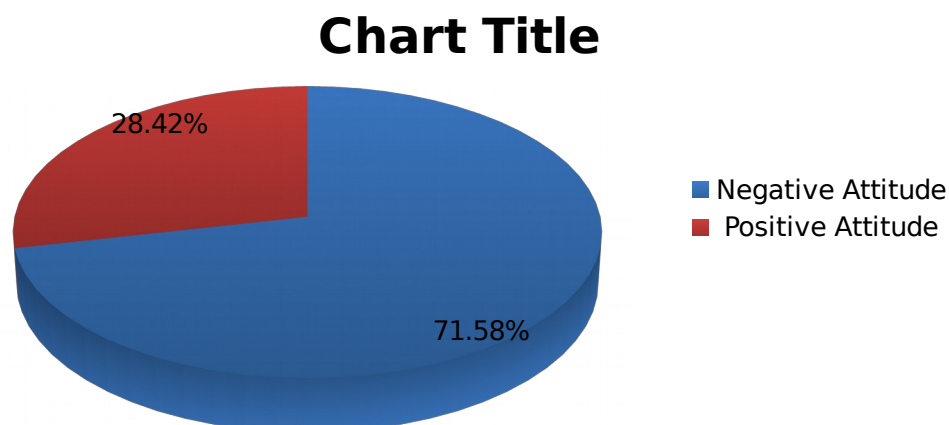


Figure 5: Students' Attitudes towards Sociolinguistics

Majority of the student participants, 131, (71.58%) had a negative attitude toward Kiswahili sociolinguistics. Few student participants representing, 52, (28.42%) had a positive attitude toward learning Kiswahili sociolinguistics. Students' attitude toward Kiswahili Sociolinguistics in the schools which participated in the study is shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Students' Attitudes towards Kiswahili per School

School	Negative Attitude	%	Positive Attitude	%
E	16	12.21	7	13.46
C	18	13.74	8	15.39
D	34	25.95	13	25
F	25	19.09	7	13.46
B	13	9.92	12	23.07
A	25	19.09	5	9.62
Total	131	100	52	100

Table 6 shows that of the 131 student participants who recorded a negative attitude toward the learning of sociolinguistics in Kiswahili, Students in school D had the highest negative perception at 25.95%. School B had the lowest negative perception (9.92%). School F and school A tallied at 19.09%. School E and school C had a negative perception of 12.21% and 13.74% respectively. Student participants at school D had the highest positive attitude toward sociolinguistics at 25% of the 52

students who recorded a positive attitude. School A had the least positive attitude response at 9.62%. School E, C, F and B had 13.46%, 15.39%, 13.46% and 23.07% respectively.

The KCSE Kiswahili result of the schools in the study between 2009 and 2011 is shown in Table 7.

Table 7: KCSE Kiswahili results of the schools between 2009 and 2011

School	2009	2010	2011
E	-	-	-
C	-	-	--
D	8.2390	7.8931	8.0670
F	5.655	5.595	5.020
B	6.8	7.6	8.1
A	5.333	6.338	5.868
Average	6.898(57.48%)	6.857(57.14%)	6.764(56.37%)
)))

Table 7 shows the performance of Kiswahili at KCSE in the schools involved in the study. School E and school C have not presented candidates for KCSE as they are new schools. School A presented candidates for the first time in 2009. School B has a positive index that has been consistent for three successive years. The performance of school F has been declining progressively with a significant negative index. School D has had impressive results however the performance is unsteady.

4.5 Discussion

This discussion is based on the objectives of the study.

4.5.1 Teacher Preparedness in Teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili

This study set out to assess the extent to which teachers' preparedness influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya. The research question posed to address this objective was: To what extent does teachers'

preparedness influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya? Results are shown in Table 3. The outcome shows that 50% of the teachers involved in the study were highly prepared in teaching sociolinguistics in Kiswahili while 7.14% were poorly prepared. The remaining 42.86% were found to be moderately prepared. This shows that teachers in schools involved in the study were adequately prepared and they were therefore able to post an average performance at KCSE of 6.898 (57.48%), 6.857(57.14%) and 6.764 (56.37%) in 2009, 2010 and 2011 respectively (Table 7). This outcome indicates that good preparation in teaching Sociolinguistics is effective in improving academic performance in Kiswahili at KCSE examinations in Likuyani Sub-county. This is in agreement with Shiundu and Omulando (1992) who rightly observe that relevant training is crucial for teachers who are the implementers of the curriculum. The same sentiments are held by Hawe (1972), Bishop (1985) and Syomwene (2003) who agree that for teachers to effectively carry out the role of curriculum implementation, adequate and elaborate training is a must.

4.5.2 Gender on the Preparedness of Teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili

The study set out to determine the degree to which teachers' gender influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya. The research question generated was: To what degree does teachers' gender influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya? The outcome is shown in Table 4. The study found out that a teacher's gender had an effect on the preparedness of teaching sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. Female teachers were more prepared than their male counterparts to teach sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. This finding is inconsistent with Li (2014) found that men use more words to compose more sentences meaning that male teachers are more prepared than female teachers in

teaching sociolinguistics.

Table 4 shows that out of the 7 (seven) teachers who indicated that they were highly prepared, 57.14% were female teachers while 42.86% were male teachers. Likewise, 83.33% of those who indicated moderate preparations were female while male were 16.67%. One male teacher indicated being poorly prepared. This finding corrects the assertion held for long that female teachers are likely to be less prepared to teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili than male teachers. Female teachers' preparation was hitherto thought to be affected by household chores and child rearing.

Female teachers prepare well before teaching students. This may be attributed to their motherly instincts and caring nature based on their gender roles. Male teachers tend to have an egocentric inclination thus overlooking issues pertaining to the welfare of others. They therefore concentrate on other tasks unrelated to teaching to better their socio-economic needs. This study confirms with Li (2014) that there is an interaction between gender and experience, education and power of the interlocutors in the use of linguistics strategies. Male teachers' less preparedness can be attributed to Ladegaard (2002) that they have more vernacular features in their language.

4.4.3 Students' Attitudes towards Sociolinguistics and KCSE Results

This study wanted to establish the extent to which students' attitudes influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya. The research question generated to address this objective was: To what extent does students' attitude influence KCSE performance in Kiswahili in Likuyani Sub-county, Kakamega County, Kenya? The findings are shown in Table 5. Table 6 shows that of the 131 student participants, who recorded a negative attitude toward the learning of

sociolinguistics in Kiswahili, Students in school D had the highest negative perception at 25.95% and they had the highest positive attitude toward sociolinguistics at 25% of the 52 students who recorded a positive attitude. Their performance index at KCSE was 8.2390, 7.8931 and 8.0670 in 2009, 2010 and 2011 respectively. The sudden drop in KCSE performance index in Kiswahili from 8.2390 in 2009 to 7.8931 in 2010 and the subsequent improvement in 2011 to 8.0670 can be attributed to the students' mixed attitudes toward the learning of sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. This agrees with Krashen's (1985) Theory of Second Language learning in particular the Affective Filter Principle which was adopted in this study that stipulates that there exists a 'Filter' or 'mental block' that determines how much a person learns in a formal or informal language setting. The 'Filter' comprises affective factors such as attitudes to language, motivation, self confidence and anxiety. Thus learners with favourable attitudes and self confidence may have 'a low filter' with consequent efficient second language learning. Those with unfavourable attitudes high anxiety have 'high filters' and so the input of second language learning may be blocked or impeded.

School B had the lowest negative perception (9.92%). School F and school A tallied at 19.09%. School E and school C had a negative perception of 12.21% and 13.74% respectively. Student participants at school D had the highest positive attitude toward Sociolinguistics at 25% of the 52 students who recorded a positive attitude. School A had the least positive attitude response at 9.62%. School E, C, F and B had 13.46%, 15.39%, 13.46% and 23.07% respectively.

This study finds that schools whose students had a positive attitude towards Kiswahili sociolinguistics performed better in Kiswahili at KCSE than those whose students had

a negative attitude. This findings are in agreement with Wamalwa, Adika and Kevogo (2013) that students have favourable attitudes towards Kiswahili and the language's status among secondary school students has not diminished thus improving performance at national examinations.

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented and explained the findings with regard to the stated research questions, the theoretical framework and literature review. The chapter presented descriptive statistics of the variables under study and discussed the results obtained from data collected from 14 teachers of Kiswahili and 183 students in Likuyani Sub-county. The next chapter gives a summary of the study, draws conclusions from the findings and eventually makes appropriate recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a summary of the study, draws conclusions from the findings and eventually makes appropriate recommendations.

5.2 Summary of Research Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of teacher preparation on the teaching of Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. Questionnaires were the main research tools used to collect data for this study. The information related to this study was also obtained from textbooks, teacher's professional records and Likuyani Sub-county Education office.

The study was guided by the following three questions:

- 1) Is teacher preparation in teaching of Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili effective in posting improved academic performance in Kiswahili at Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education examinations?
- 2) What is the role of teachers' gender on the preparedness of teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili?
- 3) What is the effect of students' attitudes towards Sociolinguistics on their academic performance in Kiswahili at the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education examinations?

The following findings were made;

The study found out that a teacher's gender had an effect on the preparedness of teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. Female teachers were more prepared than their male counterparts to teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili. Table 4 shows that of

teachers who indicated that they were highly prepared, 57.14% were female teachers while 52.86% were male teachers. Likewise, 83.33% of those who indicated moderate preparations were female while male were 16.67%. One male teacher indicated being poorly prepared. This finding shows that female teachers were more prepared to teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili than male teachers despite a majority of them being required to carry out household chores and child rearing.

1. Half of the teachers were highly prepared in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili.
2. Female teachers were well prepared before teaching students than male teachers.
3. Schools with students who recorded positive attitude toward Sociolinguistics had an increased KCSE performance index in Kiswahili between 2009 and 2011.

5.3 Conclusion

The effectiveness of teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili in secondary schools in Likuyani Sub-county depends on teacher preparedness, gender of the teacher and students' attitude. Although teachers who teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili are adequately trained, their level of preparedness matters more. It is notable to note that half of teachers take their preparation to teach more seriously. The gender of a teacher predisposes one to either prepare well or not. Female teachers amid their domestic roles are able to prepare well in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili than their male counterparts. The attitude of students toward Sociolinguistics has a heavy bearing in their KCSE Kiswahili performance. This agrees with Krashen's (1985) Theory of Second Language learning in particular the Affective Filter Principal which was adopted in this study that stipulates that there exists a 'Filter' or 'mental block' that

determines how much a person learns in a formal or informal language setting. The 'Filter' comprises affective factors such as attitudes to language, motivation, self confidence and anxiety. Thus learners with favourable attitudes and self confidence may have 'a low filter' with consequent efficient second language learning. Those with unfavourable attitudes and high anxiety have 'high filters' and so the input of second language learning may be blocked or impeded.

5.4 Recommendations

In the view of the findings, analysis, discussion and conclusion of the research, the following recommendations were suggested:

1. Teachers who teach Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili should fully develop their potential in preparation.
2. Sound policies need to be developed in order to facilitate preparations for teaching Sociolinguistics with the sole aim of making teachers more effective in classroom delivery.
3. There is need to sensitize male teachers on the need to be well prepared in teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili through regular workshops and seminars.
4. Students need to be exposed to relevant materials to inculcate a positive attitude toward Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili with the aim of enhancing their KCSE performance.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

This study has exposed gaps which need further investigation. The following areas are suggested for further research:

1. A study on gender role of the teacher in teaching of Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili.
2. A comprehensive replicative study involving both public and private secondary schools should be carried out in Likuyani Sub-county and other districts.
3. A study on the relevance of Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili to discipline among secondary school students.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for Teachers of Kiswahili

This questionnaire is for collecting data on the impact of *teacher preparation on teaching Sociolinguistics in Kiswahili* in public secondary schools. Data obtained will be handled in confidence for purely academic purposes. To enhance confidentiality do not write your name or that of your school in the questionnaire.

1. Please indicate your gender.

(a) Male ()

(b) Female ()

2. Please indicate your current position in the school.

a) Head teacher ()

b) H.O.D ()

c) Teacher ()

3. For how long have you held the position above? Years.

4. What is your highest level of qualification?

a) KCSE/Certificate ()

b) Diploma ()

c) Degree ()

d) Post Graduate ()

Use the following ranking to score on questions 5 to 22

Key 5 – Strongly Agree 4 – Agree 3 – Undecided 2 – Disagree
1–Strongly Disagree

Statement	5	4	3	2	1
5. Isimujamii is a confusing topic to students and teachers					
6. Teachers of Kiswahili are ill equipped in teaching Isimujamii					
7. Teachers seldom teach Isimujamii					
8. There is lack of teaching/learning materials for Isimujamii					
9. There is need for provision of instructional materials in Isimujamii					
10. Isimujamii guides are available					
11. Isimujamii guides are easy to understand and use					
12. Teaching Isimujamii is more fascinating and fun					
13. Kiswahili is difficult for students as a result of Isimujamii					
14. Could you be willing to drop teaching Isimujamii given an option?					
15. There is need for in-service course for teachers in Isimujamii.					
16. It would take very little change in the present circumstances to improve teaching of Isimujamii in this school.					
17. Isimujamii should be given considerable time in teaching.					
2. There is a lot to be gained by engaging students in learning Isimujamii					
3. Isimujamii will be improved over the years					
4. The school administration is determined to improve performance of Kiswahili					
5. Isimujamii is essential for secondary students					
6. Many students enjoy learning Isimujamii					

Using the key to respond to questions 23 to 33, state the extent to which you are satisfied with the following.

Key 5 –Extremely Satisfied 4 – Satisfied 3 – Undecided 2 – Dissatisfied
1 – Extremely Dissatisfied.

Statement	5	4	3	2	1
23. Frequently in-service practicing teachers					
24. Print and provide Isimujamii resource materials to local Bookshops					
25. Create awareness on meaning of and need for Isimujamii					
26. Empower educational managers on proper supervision					
27. Purchase sufficient Isimujamii resource materials					
28. Provide frequent follow-up supervision and guidance					
29. Organize Kiswahili seminars/workshops for teachers on Isimujamii					
30. Encourage teachers to attend Kiswahili workshops on Isimujamii					
31. Provide Isimujamii resource materials					
32. Provide follow-up supervision and guidance					
33. Fund teachers to attend Kiswahili workshops					

34. Please indicate the KCSE performance index for Kiswahili against the listed year:

2009 -----

2010 -----

2011 -----

35. How many teachers of Kiswahili are in this school? -----

36. What is the student population in this school? -----

Thank you for your co-operation

Appendix 2: Students' Questionnaire on Attitudes towards Sociolinguistics

Listed below is a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the challenges facing the teaching of *Isimujamii* in secondary

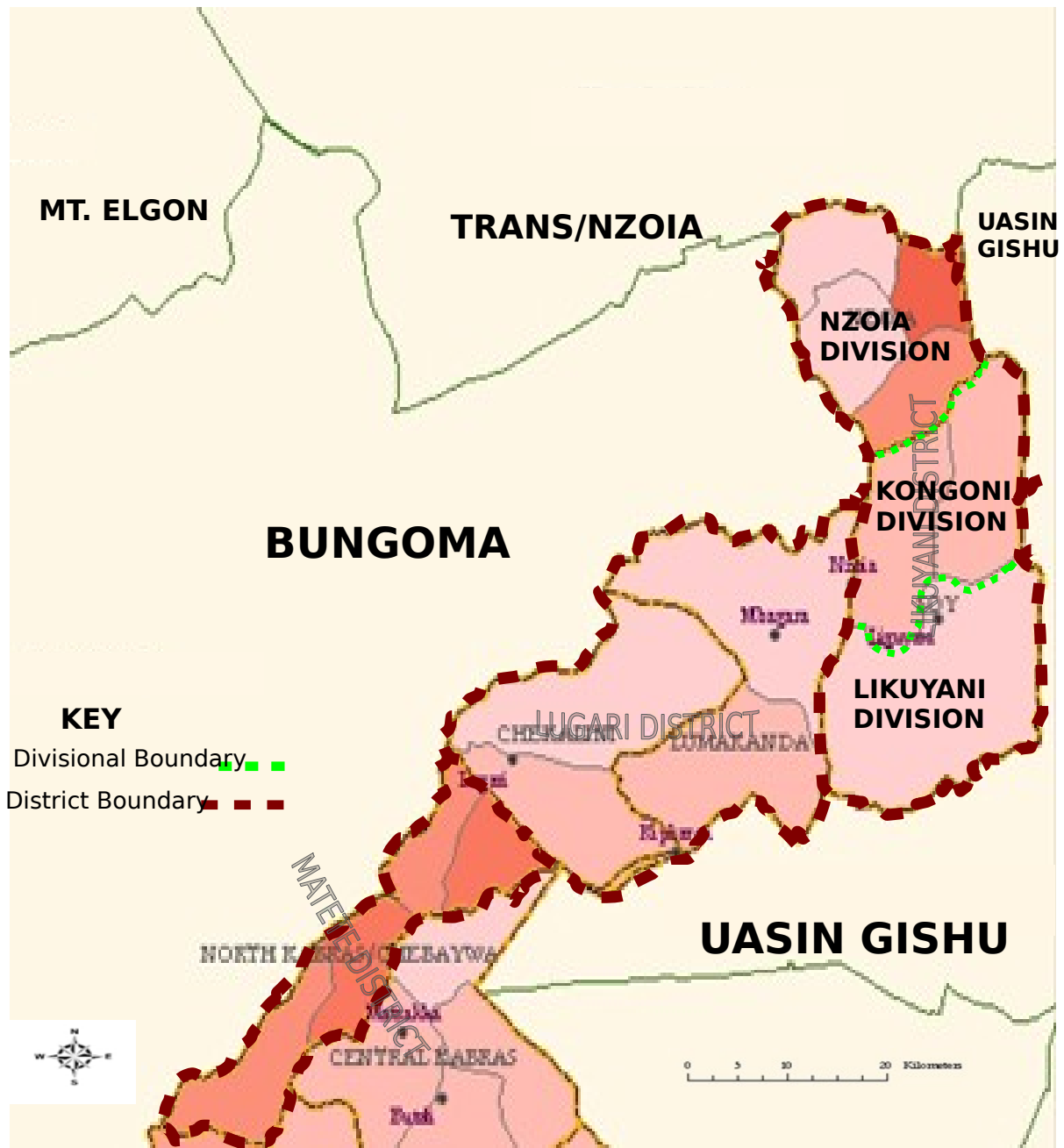
schools in Likuyani Sub-county. Using the key below, indicate your own feelings about the following statements.

Key 5 – Strongly Agree 4 – Agree 3 – Undecided 2 – Disagree
1 – strongly Disagree

Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1. Teachers teach Isimujamii often					
2. The content taught on Isimujamii is well understood					
3. There is adequate teaching and learning resources for Isimujamii					
4. Learning Isimujamii is interesting when done within the specific context.					
5. Isimujamii is given equal attention with the other subject areas.					
6. Students attend educational forums in Kiswahili and discuss Isimujamii as one of the subject areas.					
7. The school organizes internal Kiswahili forums in which students discuss Isimujamii.					
8. Isimujamii should be scraped from the Secondary Kiswahili Curriculum.					
9. The inclusion of Isimujamii in Kiswahili examinations affects performance negatively.					
10. Very little is examined on Isimujamii as compared to the content taught.					

Thanks for your cooperation

Appendix 3: Likuyani Sub-county Administrative Boundaries



Retrieved from: <http://www.flickr.com/photos/albertkenyaniinima/7815494676/>

Appendix 4: Research Authorization


PAGE 2 PAGE 3

Research Permit No. **NCST/RCD/14/012/593**

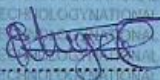

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT: Date of issue **28th May, 2012**
 Fee received **KSH. 1,000**

Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss/Institution
Eric Mugera
of (Address) Moi University
P.O.Box 3900-30100, Nairobi.
has been permitted to conduct research in

Location Kakamega Western	District Province
--	------------------------------------



on the topic: Teacher preparation in teaching sociolinguistics in Kiswahili on students' performance in public secondary schools in Likuyani District, Kakamega County, Kenya.

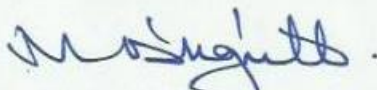


Applicant's Signature **Secretary**
National Council for Science & Technology

for a period ending 31st August, 2012.

Kakamega County, Kenya, I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Kakamega County** for a period ending **31st August, 2012.**

You are advised to report to the **District Commissioner and the District Education Officer, Kakamega County** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.



DR. M. K. RUGUTT, PhD HSC.
DEPUTY COUNCIL SECRETARY

Copy to:

The District Commissioner
 The District Education Officer
 Kakamega County.

