

**EFFECTS OF CODE SWITCHING ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE
LEARNING AND TEACHING IN BILINGUAL CLASSROOMS: A
CASE OF BURETI DISTRICT- KENYA**

BY SIELE C. HILARY

REG.NO EDU/PGCM/31/06

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF
PHILOSOPHY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION.**

**SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM, INSTRUCTION AND
EDUCATIONAL MEDIA.**

MOI UNIVERSITY

NOVEMBER, 2009

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

This thesis is my own original work and has not been presented anywhere for the award of any degree.

No part of this work may be produced without the permission of the author or Moi University.

Sign: _____ Date: _____

SIELE C. HILARY

EDU/PGCM/31/06

DECLARATION BY THE SUPERVISORS

This thesis has been submitted with our approval as the university supervisors.

Sign: _____ Date _____

Dr Peter Barasa

Senior Lecturer

Department of Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Media.

Moi University.

Sign: _____ Date _____

Dr. Elizabeth Abenga

Lecturer

Department of Curriculum and Instructional Technology

Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of code switching on English language teaching and learning in secondary schools in Kenya; a case of Bureti district, Rift Valley province. The study was carried out to determine how code switching takes place in a language classroom, the dominant language in the codes switched and the extent to which it influences learning English as second language.

The study was carried out based on the background knowledge that in Kenya English and Kiswahili are used in everyday interactions. Such a bilingual or multilingual situation presents problems to students both inside and outside the classroom and as a result, bilingual code switching becomes the norm. The theoretical/conceptual framework for the study was based on a combination of the following: sociological framework, interactional language theory and the theory of language learning.

The study adopted a survey method. Only a target specific category of schools were sampled using stratified purposive sampling and random selection of form three students presumed to be stable bilinguals carried out. A total number of 675 students took part in the study. This was sampled out of a total population of 2160 in the sixteen provincial schools. All the targeted classes' teachers were surveyed. The researcher collected the data using a combination of the following instruments: observation and tape recording and teacher questionnaire. The instruments were developed and piloted before being used. The data collected was analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively in absolute numbers and percentages. The study revealed that code switching affects English language teaching and learning with Kiswahili and Sheng as the most used languages in classroom discourse. Recommendations and suggestions for further research were then given.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE.....	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	iii
DEDICATION.....	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
1.0 Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background To The Study.....	1
1.1.1 Language Patterns and use in Kenya.....	2
1.1.2 Language Policy.....	3
1.1.3 The Current Language Situation.....	5
1.1.4 Code Switching.....	7
1.2 Statement of The Problem.....	10
1.3 The Purpose of The Study.....	12
1.4 Research Objectives.....	13
1.5 Research Questions.....	13
1.6 Research Hypotheses.....	13
1.7 Significance of The Study.....	14
1.8 Justification of The Study.....	14

1.9 Scope And Limitations Of The Study.....	17
1.9.1 Scope.....	17
1.9.2 Limitations.....	17
1.10 Assumptions of The Study.....	18
1.11 Theoretical Framework.....	19
1.11.1 Sociological Framework.....	19
1.11.2 Language Theory.....	20
1.11.3 Language Learning Theory.....	21
1.12 Conceptual Framework.....	21
1.13 Definition of Operational Terms.....	23
CHAPTER TWO.....	25
2.0 Literature Review.....	25
2.1 Introduction.....	25
2.2 Language Learning In Classrooms.....	25
2.3 Bilingualism and Education.....	28
2.4 Codeswitching.....	36
2.5 Codeswitching In Classroom.....	41
2.6 Code Switching and Second Language Learning.....	47
2.7 Review of Related Studies.....	55
2.8 Summary.....	69
CHAPTER THREE:.....	71
3.0 Research Design and Methodology.....	71

3.1 Introduction.....	71
3.2 Research Design.....	71
3.3 The Study Area.....	71
3.4 The Study Population.....	72
3.5 Sampling Procedure.....	72
3.6 Research Instruments.....	73
3.6.1 Observation and Tape Recording.....	74
3.6.2 Teacher Questionnaire.....	74
3.7 Validity and Reliability of The Instruments.....	75
3.7.1 Piloting of Research Instruments.....	76
3.7.2 Results of The Pilot Study.....	77
3.8 Administration of Research Instruments.....	79
3.8.1 Administration of Observation and Tape Recording.....	79
3.8.2 Administration of The Questionnaire.....	80
3.9 Data Collection and Analysis.....	81
3.10 Summary.....	82
CHAPTER FOUR.....	83
4.0 Data Analysis, Interpretation and Presentation.....	83
4.1 Introduction.....	83
4.2 Codeswitching and Language use in Classroom.....	84
4.2.1 Results of Observation and Tape Recording.....	84
4.2.2 Results From The Questionnaire.....	90
4.2.3 Summary.....	100

4.3 Codeswitching and Language Dominance.....	100
4.3.1 Results From Observation and Tape Recording.....	100
4.3.2 Results From Teacher Questionnaire.....	105
4.3.3 Summary.....	109
4.4 Codeswitching and Learning English.....	113
4.4.1 Results From Observation and Tape Recording.....	113
4.4.2 Results From Teacher Questionnaire.....	115
4.4.3 Summary.....	118
4.5 Chapter Summary.....	118
CHAPTER FIVE.....	121
5.0 Discussion, Conclusion, Summary and Recommendations.....	121
5.1 Introduction.....	121
5.2 Discussion.....	121
5.3 Conclusions.....	129
5.4 Implications.....	131
5.5 Recommendations.....	131
5.6 Suggestions For Further Research.....	132
REFERENCES.....	133
APPENDIX A.....	144
NOTES ON TRANSCRIPTION.....	144
APENDIX B.....	145
OBSERVATION AND EVENT RECORDING SCHEDULE.....	145

APENDIX C.....	147
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS.....	147
APENDIX D.....	151
ACTIVITY 1:.....	151
APENDIX E.....	152
ACTIVITY 2.....	152
APPENDIX F.....	153
BURETI DISTRICT; ADMINISTRATIVE BOUNDARIES.....	153
APENDIX G.....	154
RESEARCH PERMIT.....	154

DEDICATION.

Dedicated to my parents and the entire family for the struggle to educate me.

To my wife Joan, for the moral support she gave me while undertaking the study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Peter Barasa, Department of Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Media, Moi University, Dr. Elizabeth Abenga of Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, Department of Curriculum and Instructional Technology, for their valuable and scholarly suggestions, criticisms, corrections and discussion they engaged me in and made me go through the course.

I acknowledge the colleagues in the school of education in the same course for their valuable criticism they gave me that led me to understand the aspects of my area of study and their encouragement.

I wish to extend my appreciation to Teachers Service Commission and Moi University for giving me the chance to pursue a course in Master of Philosophy in English Language Education.

I also acknowledge the patience of my wife Joan and the entire family for moral support, understanding and encouragement while undertaking the study.

Lastly, I wish to extend my thanks to the secretary of Limosam Enterprises, Eldoret, especially Jonas Tagal who typed my work. All errors and mistakes in the thesis are exclusively mine.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

KCPE: Kenya Certificate of Primary Education

KCSE: Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

MT: Mother Tongue

SAT: Speech Accommodation Theory

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Professional Qualification of the English Language Teachers.....	92
Figure 2 Teachers Knowledge of Languages.....	93
Figure 3 Language used by the teachers most of their time.....	95
Figure 4 Teachers' Code Switching in Language Classroom	96
Figure 5 Teachers' opinion on effects of code Switching	99
Figure 6 Teachers' opinion on Languages Used outside the Classrooms.....	110
Figure 7 Teachers' Response on students Code Switching	111
Figure 8 Teachers' Response on Languages Used by Students.....	112

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Number of Schools under Observation and Tape recording.....	86
Table 2	Number and Languages known by Teachers in order of Degree of Fluency.	94
Table 3	Relationship of Number of Languages Known and order of Fluency.....	98
Table 4	Teachers' Opinion on Code Switching and Teacher direct involvement....	106
Table 5	Teachers' Opinion on the Occurrence of Code Switching on English language.....	107
Table 6	Observation of Students' Language Use in Classroom.....	116
Table 7	Opinion on Influence of Code Switching on Pronunciation Competence..	119

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION.

As a background to the study, it is important to discuss briefly the various issues ranging from language situation in Kenya at present, the language policy, mainly on English and Kiswahili and the dynamics of their roles and functions as well as their use with regards to alternation that is, code-switching. The chapter will also discuss the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study; justification of the study; assumptions of the study; definition of operational terms and the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.

Multilingualism and language contact is a reality in the modern world. This is brought about by several factors among them; education, social and economic mobility and migration. As individuals maintain their home languages, situations where different speakers of different languages come into contact gives rise to multilingualism, with each language serving a particular communicative demand and role. Africa posts the highest number of multilingual speakers, Kenya included. For example in Kenya, English functions as the medium of instruction, administration, legal systems, the country's press and media and communication among different languages users, where as Kiswahili functions as a lingua franca besides the indigenous languages that serve to establish and reinforce ethnic identities of various communities. This linguistic situation can be viewed from different perspectives.

1.1.1 LANGUAGE PATTERNS AND USE IN KENYA

Kenya is a multilingual society with over 42 languages spoken besides English and Kiswahili as official and national languages respectively. It is difficult to state the exact number of languages spoken in Kenya depending on the source one is citing (Ogechi, 2002). Both stable and unstable codes like Sheng could be included in the number of languages spoken. According to the population census report 1999, (Opondo and Achieng, 2003) the Bantu speakers account for a total of 65.39% whereas Nilotes and others account for 34.61%. The Bantu linguistic group consists of the Swahili, Pokomo, Mijikenda who are found in the coastal area and the rest in the upcountry areas with the bulk coming from the Luyha and the Kikuyu.

The Luo and the Kalenjin groups form the bulk of the Nilotes. The other linguistic groups are the Cushites mainly the Gala and Somali, and the Indians and Arabs.

Indigenous languages are largely spoken at homes especially in rural areas where the speakers are homogenous. At work or schools and other public domains, English and Kiswahili are used where the speakers are from different ethnic backgrounds. Sheng is increasingly gaining recognition among the urban youth and adults (Ogechi, 2002). Myers-Scotton (1995: 39) observes that when neighbours and leisure time associates are from one's own ethnic background, then the mother tongue is used in interactions with such persons. She charges that, 'school children are perhaps the speakers who do the most code switching no matter the socio-economic level' (P.39). Sheng, a mixture of Kiswahili and English with a large borrowing from other indigenous languages mainly, Luo and Kikuyu, is widely spoken among the urban and a few rural youngsters in Kenya (Ogechi 2002:4)

English is used as a language of international and official communication while Kiswahili is a national language as well as a lingua franca among different ethnic speakers in public interactions and service encounters in Kenya. It is not uncommon to find two or three languages being spoken in a given situation. This phenomenon of bi/multilingualism gives rise to code switching. English and Kiswahili are the most used languages in public domains.

1.1.2 LANGUAGE POLICY

The issues of language development and policy as well as the roles of English and Kiswahili have been documented in various works; from Gorman (1968), Whiteley (1974), to the recent ones like Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000), Okoth–Okombo, (2001) and Barasa (2005)

It suffices to give an overview of the policy developments of the two languages in the last 25 years in Kenya as this would form the basis of the view of the researcher about the two languages and their implications.

After independence in 1963, English remained the official language used in government legislation, legal documents, official documents and other official transactions. However, the government wanted a unifying language and the choice became Kiswahili. Though it had spread across ethnic borders as a result of trade, it served as a lingua franca. It was officially adopted as a national language and even proposed as a discipline in the department to be established later in Royal College (later University of Nairobi) (Mukuria, 1995: 39).

It is worth noting here that the educational curriculum in Kenya has been undergoing several changes occasioned by recommendations of various government commissions and these have impacted on language policy and practice both in primary school and secondary school level. The major changes that occurred to Kiswahili as a language was after the introduction of the 8-4-4 system when it was made a compulsory subject way back in 1984. It was to be examined in two national examinations; Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) and Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE). The government made frantic efforts to implement it by employing untrained teachers to teach in secondary schools and at the same time popularized the subject in Diploma courses in Teacher colleges, in servicing and establishment of full Kiswahili departments in universities (Op.cit). During the same time English suffered major changes. It was combined with literature and given fewer lessons.

According to Mazrui Ali (1998: 80) the government's decision to make Kiswahili a compulsory and examinable subject in both primary and secondary schools puts it in competition with English. Mazrui charges that, "this may have long term implications for the potential of Kiswahili to compete with English as we witness an increasing number of graduates, constituting potential educational elite who are proficient in Kiswahili" (Ibid).

It is important to note that the changes that form part of government policy are in line with UNESCO'S recommendation (1953), that the first grade one to three be taught in mother tongue because the learners understand it best and because to begin the school life in it will make the break between home and the school as small as

possible. Where English is taught as first language in exclusive schools, it is recommended that Kiswahili should be taught as a subject.

In this case, mother tongue has no place in school except may be in home setting. Where Kiswahili is the first language, L1, English should be taught as a subject. In such cases it is often in a multilingual environment. However, where the language of the catchment area is mother tongue or a monolingual environment, English and Kiswahili are taught as subjects. From grade 4 onwards English is the medium of instruction.

The practice on the ground is different. Many parents, guardians and even headmasters insist on the use of English both in primary one and Kindergarten because of its prestige. (Ogechi, 2002). These foregoing circumstances allows for code switching by the teachers and the students at both primary and secondary level.

1.1.3 THE CURRENT LANGUAGE SITUATION

Language situation currently in Kenya is a complex one, both inside and outside the curriculum. Over the years, the study of Kiswahili as a subject has become popular with the students in various universities and colleges. This is occasioned partly by the fact that currently certification considers a pass in either English or Kiswahili. In effect, the two languages carry equal weight. English and Kiswahili are two languages which hold significant positions in the curriculum. (Barasa, 2005:3). Kiswahili has however, gained tremendously and has “undermined the role of English as a service language in the curriculum”(Ibid)

The recent gains in Kiswahili has, seen the rise in its use and publication of books aimed at improving the teaching of the language. Authors like Ken Walibora, Swaleh Mdoe among others are coming up with novels, classical poetry and children stories which are aimed at putting Kiswahili on an equal footing with English (Mazrui,1995). Its role has also been recognized as a language enhancing national cohesiveness so that the politicians as well as the media use it even in areas where the speakers are homogenous. This fact is further attested by the increasing use as a language of communication in official domains. For example they are used together with English in official forms, telecommunications and as lately as in internet. In other words, it is assuming a universalistic role. Mazrui, (1998:191) states; “Kiswahili’s universalistic role includes the process of making it a scientific language”. It is a language of oral communication in government offices and, a language to convey government policies to the people. Kenya’s proposed constitution that was subjected to a referendum and rejected in 2006 was written in both English and Kiswahili. The two languages are arguably co-official.

It can no longer be said that Kiswahili is incapable of accommodating scientific and technological concepts as this is no longer tenable considering its use in mobile telephones and internet. Bearing this in mind, the question that can be asked is: what are the implications of these developments? Mazrui (1995) argues that the complementarity and partial competition of languages leading to interplay in roles and functions may trigger sociolinguistic dynamics in the language system. It is a fact that English has its role in Kenya and that Kiswahili may not replace it, but code switching is a product of such a system both in private and public domains.

1.1.4 CODE SWITCHING

Multilingual speakers who live together in a community have two or more languages available to them and therefore can switch from one language to another. In such situations, speakers tend to choose language fairly quickly and automatically without being aware of the determiners of language choice (Gumperz, (1982:61). This phenomenon is known as code switching.

Code switching has been a subject of research to many scholars, but there is no one acceptable definition of the term because of its study from different perspectives and fields. According to Crystal (1987), code or language switching refers to alternation between two languages by a bilingual during speech with another person.

Numan and Carter (2001) define code switching as a phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse. Alternation can take a number of different forms including alternation of sentences, phrases from both languages succeeding each other and even switching in a long narrative. Nilep (2006:17) views code switching as alternation inform of communication that signal contexts in which linguistic contributions can be understood. In this case, the context may be very local such as turn talk at the end or general as positioning. The signal of communicative intention is accomplished by the action of the participant in a particular interaction. He posits that code switching is a practice of parties in discourse to signal changes in contexts by using alternate grammatical systems or subsystems or codes, of which the mental representation of these codes cannot be directly observed.

Other scholars differentiate between code switching and code mixing (Kembo- sure, 2000). Myers Scotton, (1995) refers to code switching as a language alternation a cross sentence boundaries while code mixing refers to alternation within sentence boundaries. She refers to the two as intersentential and intrasentential respectively. The following examples in English and Kiswahili serve to illustrate this point.

Speaker1: *Mwalimu alikuja* class yesterday morning?

Speaker 11: No, she didn't. *sikumwona yeye.*

Notice that the first speaker alternates from Kiswahili to English within the sentences boundaries. This is code-mixing. The second alternates across the sentence boundaries. This is code switching.

A common situation, though in Kenya especially among the school going children is switching within words. For example, speaker III could reply thus:

Alicome kuteach.

(He - past - come - to teach)

Here, Kiswahili provides the matrix language with English embeddings. These further mixed with other words borrowed from indigenous languages, mainly Dholou and Kikuyu, gives rise to a code called 'Sheng'. Sheng is a mixture of Kiswahili and English and borrows heavily from other languages. Sheng is a grammatically unstable social code that sounds like Kiswahili but has a distinct and unstable vocabulary (Ogechi 2002). For the purpose of this study, code switching will be used to refer to the above different aspects of language switching.

Code switching has acceptably gained roots in both urban and rural areas, while Sheng – which can be seen as part of code switching, is spoken among the urban youth and a few adults in the rural areas. Today's youth in Kenya, most of them in schools, find code switching a normal phenomenon in their interaction during learning. This presents problems to both teachers and students in a language classroom. Knowledge of effects of code switching will heighten the teachers' awareness of its use in classroom discourse and perhaps device better instruction in English language teaching. Omulando (2002) reports widespread code switching among the teachers in classroom across the curriculum.

Code switching affects the way students learn English and its use as a service language after school. Furthermore, there has been an outcry in the past on the falling standards of English in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE), which has been attributed to Kiswahili, (Barasa, 1997), and by extension Sheng and code switching. This is a linguistic problem that will affect English language teaching in classroom and by large English as a service language. It was therefore worth investigating.

The study of code switching has attracted a lot of attention from various researchers. Some of the studies that have been carried out include linguistic constraints in code switching (Romaine, 1995), structural patterns of code switching (Muysken, 2000), and sociolinguistic functions (Myers-Scotton, 1995). While these studies have looked at the structure of sentences and social meanings of code switching, thus identified a variety of functions of code switching in various communities, little is known about what goes on inside a language classroom with regards to English language and the

effects of code switching. Most of the research on code switching has focused on language of minority children and has been associated with the notion of cognitive deficits (Macswan, 1999). In other words, it is a non normative linguistic behaviour that is treated with aberrations. This is not the case in multilingual societies.

Whereas it is stigmatized in other countries, in Kenya and by large Africa, it is an accepted, real phenomenon. Code switching brought about by multilingualism is a linguistic aspect to reckon with in socio-political and curriculum spheres. In a school set up with learners from different ethnic backgrounds, naturally, Kiswahili and English will be logically the most used languages in discourse. It is against this background that this study attempted to investigate the effect of code switching on English language.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In Kenya English is used as a medium of official communication and a medium of instruction in schools while Kiswahili is a national language as well as a lingua franca among various communities. This linguistic situation presents problems to the students both inside and outside the classroom as they switch from Kiswahili to English in their discourse. Code switching is therefore the norm in the classroom. Like other areas in Kenya, students in Bureti district face the same problem of code switching in English language learning because they come from different linguistic backgrounds. It is against this background that the study attempted to investigate the effects of code switching on English language teaching and learning.

Recent research in Kenya, (Kembo-Sure (1993), Barasa (1997) and Omulando (2002) indicates that Kiswahili has gained tremendously in its use in various domains including classroom instruction and that at the moment, it is at par with English. Krashen, (1981:37) argues that a good language learner is an acquirer who first of all is able to obtain sufficient intake in second language and secondly, has low affective filter to enable him utilize this input for language acquisition. Omulando found out that Kiswahili is benefiting from affective filter as expressed by Krashen in his hypotheses and that learners prefer to use Kiswahili than English.

Both Kembo-Sure, (1994) and Barasa (1997) showed that Kiswahili is one of the factors that affect English language teaching. The predictions they made on the challenges posed by Kiswahili may have come to pass as the two languages compete. There are efforts to maintain and teach English in the curriculum as an indispensable tool for scientific, economic and technological advancement and at the same time promote Kiswahili as a co-official language. The result has been development of competencies in both languages and consequently, unconscious, spontaneous alternations between the two, that is, code switching. This study focuses on a bilingual situation where two competing languages form the repertoire of different speakers from different ethnic language backgrounds. It attempts to investigate code switching and its effects on English language teaching.

Right from the time Kiswahili was proclaimed a compulsory subject in both primary and secondary schools with the advent of 8-4-4 system of education in mid 80's and

subsequently making it an examinable subject at both levels, its prestige and use became at par with English.

With the two competing, code switching is a real phenomenon that might in future affect the way instruction is effected in multilingual classrooms in Kenya.

Code switching has acceptably gained roots in both urban and rural areas while Sheng which can be viewed as part of code switching, is confined to urban centers-though spreading into the rural areas too. Today's youth in Kenya, most of them in school, find code switching normative in their discourse during learning. Omulando (2002) found out in her study that teachers do code switching in classroom across the curriculum. Her study, however, did not investigate code switching among the students in a language classroom. Furthermore, there has been an outcry in the past on the falling standards of English in KCSE which has been attributed to Kiswahili. By implication, both Sheng and code switching is a factor in these exams. This is a linguistic problem that affects English language teaching in one way or another. This study sought to investigate this problem on the foregoing factors.

1.3 THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.

The study sought to find out the effects of code switching on learning and teaching of English in secondary schools in Kenya. Alternation between English and Kiswahili is common among the students in Kenyan schools. Furthermore, recent studies indicate that Kiswahili contributes to the poor performance in English and that it has gained in its use more than English, (Barasa, 2005).

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This research was undertaken with the following objectives:-

- To investigate the effects of code switching in English language teaching in a language classroom.
- To determine how code switching takes place and the dominant language in the classroom.
- To determine the extent to which code switching influences learning English as a second language.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- i. What are the effects of code switching in English language teaching in secondary schools in Kenya?
- ii. How does code switching take place and what is the dominant language in the classroom discourse?
- iii. To what extent does code switching influence learning English as a second language?

1.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

- i. Code switching as a common linguistic behaviour among students and teachers does not affect English language teaching in classroom.

- ii. Code switching is a non spontaneous use of language in collaborative group language activity with the dominant language commonly used outside the classroom playing no role at all.
- iii. Code switching in everyday classroom interaction among students does not influence learning English as a second language.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.

This study will shed light on the dynamics of language use in education in Kenya and how code switching affects learning and teaching of English in secondary schools and the subsequent influence on policy and methodology across the curriculum.

The study will assist the teachers of English and educators on the strategies and new approaches needed in order to carry out effective teaching to meet the national objectives of the language curriculum with regards to code switching.

The study will supplement the existing knowledge in the field of language instruction and language education in general. Bilingual education researchers will benefit from the knowledge generated by the findings hence facilitate further research.

1.8 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

In Kenya, English is an official language of interactional and international communication as well as an indispensable language of scientific, economic and technological advancement. To serve this role, it is used in education as a medium of instruction and is examined as a subject in both primary and secondary schools. All subjects except Kiswahili and other languages are also examined in English.

Over the years, the introduction of 8-4-4 system of education in which Kiswahili was introduced as an examinable subject, many educators and critics have lamented the impact it has had on the role of English in the curriculum and its performance as a subject. The argument has been that, although English remained a medium of instruction at primary and secondary levels, English lessons have been reduced and English was given less time to devote to study of a range of literary texts. The implication of this was that Kiswahili gained in its prominence while both the students and teachers, unknowingly, gave less attention to English in instruction and its use. Teachers even switch to Kiswahili in classroom (Omulando, 2002), thus code switching became normative linguistic behaviour among the students and the teachers alike. This study sought to investigate this phenomenon in a language classroom.

Poor results from Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education Examinations have been attributed to the falling standards of English due to effect of Kiswahili (Barasa1997). Universities have also voiced concern over students joining university who can hardly write nor hold discussion in English, (ibid). Plausibly, this scenario does not exclude other aspects a kin to Kiswahili and English, like Sheng and code switching.

Coupled with political public declaration and gain in its social status, the implication has been a developed competence in Kiswahili among the speakers, albeit serving different roles and functions from English.

On the other hand, English is an indispensable medium which both the policy makers and the government feel should be given enough attention. As the two languages achieve a threshold in a situation where they serve different important roles and functions –one being a medium of instruction and official communication and the

other being a medium of interaction and a national language in the society-the resultant parlance gives rise to code switching with far reaching implications on communication and instruction. This study sought to investigate these implications in a classroom setting.

Kembo-Sure (1994) predicted that the impact of Kiswahili would be felt in several years to come. The effect has been that Kiswahili has gained over English in the recent years. Furthermore, recent studies cite Kiswahili as a factor that contributes to poor performance in English (Barasa 1997, Omulando, 2002). It is evident that a balance has been struck between the two languages in their usage in classroom so that code switching has become a normative offshoot of the two. There is a need to investigate this phenomenon considering its effects on English language learning and teaching.

Westaway (1995:5) points out that, whereas, poor performance has been attributed to falling standards of English in Kenya without determining whether examinations are reliable instruments just as the media in Britain complains of children who don't speak proper English anymore; the question should be: should the emphasis be placed on Kiswahili or mother tongue? Considering the role of English internationally and nationally, this is not bound to work. It therefore means that the two languages complement each other and one aspect that the educators and policy makers have to come to terms with is code switching. This study attempted to investigate this aspect and its implications to shed light on the dynamics of language education in a bi/multilingual classroom.

Recent research that have been undertaken have looked at Kiswahili as a factor that affects English language teaching, however, the effects of code switching as an alternation between English and Kiswahili in learning and teaching of English have not been investigated. Besides, the dynamics of such aspects overtime are peculiar due to rapid development and use of Kiswahili. It was therefore potent to investigate it.

1.9 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.

Owing to various factors, among them time frame, resources, population and enormity of the research problems, the study was carried out within a given scope and limitations.

1.9.1 SCOPE

This study was carried out in English language classroom to determine the effects of code switching on English language teaching and learning. A classroom language activity in which students worked in groups allowing student to student interaction with less teacher-directed instruction was adopted. Observation and tape recording was carried out with the help of the school's subject teacher.

Note taking was only made where relevant, and on important speech events during observation of classroom interaction. Only the teachers of languages and students of the specifically selected schools took part in the study. Tape recording was allowed to run for between fifteen to twenty minutes in a group.

1.9.2 LIMITATIONS

This research was carried out curbed by various limitations. One of the limitations was that it was not possible to observe and tape record all the groups at ago and as such, one group of students was observed for a minimum of 15 to 20 minutes before moving to the next group. In the observation, only the attitude of the students in classroom discourse determined how much could be observed and tape recorded during the interactions. While in the group some students were vocal and dominated the interaction, others rarely spoke, were either too shy or indifferent altogether.

In such circumstances, there was little the researcher could do other than record and observe what went on. In some cases, the subjects were initially shy when they realized they were being tape-recorded.

It is worth noting here that the researcher's presence as an outsider might have influenced the outcome of the interaction; the way it was carried out, which would otherwise have been different if the subjects were on their own. Furthermore, languages in informal classrooms may have complex meanings that are part of the shared culture and might have been hidden to the researcher as an observer.

1.10 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY.

This study was carried out based on the following assumptions;

- i. That the schools selected have classes that are heterogeneous enough to enable them use Kiswahili or English in classroom discourse in informal groups
- ii. That there is institutional language policy in each school and therefore teacher's instructions in a language classroom are carried out in English in all secondary schools.

- iii. That both English and Kiswahili are the most widely used languages among the students with different ethnic backgrounds.
- iv. That the English lessons where a simulated/role play activity was used presented an interesting case of social interaction in which learners used language at their disposal.

1.11 THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

The study was carried out based on a combination of the following theoretical frameworks: Sociological framework; developed by Fishman (1972), interactional language theory developed by Richards and Rogers (1986), and language learning theory developed by Scarcella and Crookall (1990). A conceptual framework was derived from these three theories.

1.11.1 SOCIOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK

The study was based on sociological framework developed by Fishman (1972) cited in Kembo-Sure (1996) and Myers-Scotton (1995). Fishman provides a sociolinguistic approach in which linguistic choices available to multilingual speakers and the reason for choosing one code from the other can be analyzed.

The choice of language in an interactional context depends on who uses what language with whom and for what purpose. These determiners are labeled as domains and can be determined by role relations and settings, for example student to student.

According to Fishman (op.cit), speakers will choose a language depending on situations, occasions or topics. Myers-Scotton (1995) extends this framework in her study in code switching between Kiswahili and English in Nairobi; Her main question

was: What do bilingual speakers gain by interacting in two languages through code switching. According to her, most Nairobi youths tend to switch between Kiswahili and English within the same speech event or situation. Multilingual speakers are aware of the choices available for carrying out a conversation. She explains code switching in terms of 'markedness' model.

A 'marked' choice in any context is the unexpected choice while 'unmarked' choice is the normatively expected choice. English-Kiswahili code switching in Kenya thus is the unmarked choice. Her view was that code switching is a skilled performance with communicative intent and not a compensating strategy used by deficient bilinguals (ibid).

1.11.2 LANGUAGE THEORY.

The language theory employed in this study is the interactional language theory reviewed by Richards and Rodgers (1986). Role plays or simulated activity that was used in English language learning and teaching follows from the interactional view. This view sees language as a vehicle for realization of interpersonal relations and for performance of social transactions between individuals.

Language teaching, according to this view, may be specified and organized by patterns of exchange and interaction or may be left unspecified to be shaped by the indications of the learners as interactants (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:17).

The participants would take up responsibilities in a language game or activity; make decisions depending on the situation using available codes. The simulated activity would enable the learners 'display their social skills in an attempt to confound the

task before them' (Ibid). This, in effect, would make them use language at their disposal.

Though the theory was developed with a monolingual situation in mind, it was presumed to be applicable to bilinguals where code switching is the norm and an attempt to interact in a simulated situation would be inevitable.

1.11.3 LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORY.

Tompkins (1998) cites Scarcella and Crookall (1990) in their research on how simulation facilitates second language acquisition. They came up with three learning theories. Learners acquire language when:

- They are exposed to large quantities of comprehensible input.
- They are actively involved and
- They have possible affects (desires, feelings and attitudes).

It is worth noting that the above view mirrors Krashen's (1992) acquisition /learning hypotheses. Comprehensible input provided in simulation or an activity in a language classroom enables the students to engage in genuine interaction. This would give rise to involvement and enable them use the range of codes available. The students were therefore expected to try out new behaviour in a new environment in order to solve problems at hand.

1.12 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The sociolinguistic approaches by Fishman (1972) in Webb Kembo-Sure (2000), Gumperz (1982), Myers-Scotton (1995), the interactional language theory by Richards and Rodgers (1986), and the language learning theory by Scarcella and

Crookall (1990), formed the basis of conceptual framework to the study. According to Fishman (1972), the determiners for choice of language are location, formality and intimacy, seriousness of the situation and sex of the speakers.

This study was conceptualized on the premise that the choice of English or Kiswahili is determined by location, formality and intimacy in classroom. The Kenyan classroom being a bilingual one with students coming from different ethnic backgrounds and already competent in an indigenous language, the choice of language for interaction at a given context within their disposal is English or Kiswahili.

It is conceived that an informal group would present a context for the students to switch between the two languages as opposed to a formal one which would present a situation where rights and obligation sets between the teacher and students would govern interaction. Walker and Adelman (1976), in Stubbs (1992), regard classroom as intense and complex settings. They view 'informal' or 'open' classrooms where students are working in small groups as presenting situations that are crucially different from those of teacher -to-chalkboard-to students learning. The view here is that student-to-student interaction in groups presents a context as to what choice of language should be used.

Gumperz (1982: 61) points out that a speaker tends to choose a language fairly quickly and automatically without being aware of the determiners of language choice. According to Richards and Rodgers (1986) interactional language theory, language is viewed as a vehicle for realization of interpersonal relations and performance of social interactions between individuals. Through role play or simulated activity, it is

conceived that the learners would be able to automatically and fairly choose language to use without being aware of language choice hence code switching.

Furthermore, it is conceived that an informal group provided with a simulated learning activity acts as source of comprehensible input. Scarcella and Crookall (1990) argued that simulation activities facilitate second language learning if they are exposed to large quantities of comprehensible input and are actively involved.

Language as a communication or interaction is a human phenomenon. Recent research in bilingual studies indicates that code switching is not a random process, but a ruled governed behaviour and a communication strategy (Corder, 1981).

Myers- Scotton (1995) considers it a skilled performance. Code switching thus does not presuppose incompetence on the part of the speakers.

Chomsky (1965) and Gumperz and Hymes' (1972) theory of competence in speaker-hearers knowledge focused on a monolingual speech community. To Chomsky, competence is a perfect knowledge of grammar. Hymes (1972) later clarified the concept of 'communicative competence' by saying that language competence is more than knowledge of grammaticality, but also includes the acceptability of what one knows about in a social context. It can therefore be conceptualized that in Kenya, a language classroom has bilingual students who are fairly competent in English and Kiswahili and that the choice of codes impinges on English language learning and teaching.

1.13 DEFINITION OF OPERATIONAL TERMS

Different terms used in the study are operationalized below:

Code: In this study code was taken as a verbal component, small as a morpheme and big as a word or sentences. It is also used as a language interchangeably.

Code switching: This is used to mean alternation of two languages or codes or more in discourse in context i.e. using alternate grammatical systems or codes. Throughout the study it is used as one word.

Discourse: This is used to mean any interaction in which language is used as a means or for communication.

Bilingualism (or bilingual) refers to speaking or having two languages or codes.

Multilingualism: This is a situation where more than two languages are used.

Sheng: This is used to refer to mixture of several codes or languages with Kiswahili forming the basis. It is a mixture of Swahili-English and other indigenous languages.

Matrix language: This refers to the language that provides a base for embeddiment.

First language: Refers to any language spoken first by a child, available in the environment. It does not necessarily have to be parent's language (mother tongue)

Second language: Refers to any language learned or spoken besides the first language.

Lingua franca: language of communication between speakers of different languages.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION.

This chapter reviews past available literature in the area of the study and other related literature. These ranges from language learning in classrooms, code switching and second language learning, code switching in classrooms, code switching and Sheng, bilingualism and education.

2.2 LANGUAGE LEARNING IN CLASSROOMS.

Language is a central aspect in schools and classrooms. It is important to study its use as most pupils use it 70 percent of their time in school. The traditional school settings allowed learning language by letting the teachers do the talking most of the time. In effect, the teachers behaviour determines largely what occurs in class and acts as a reference point. Much of the literature available dwells on classroom interaction in which the verbal behaviour of the teacher plays a great role. Edwards and Furlong (1978:45) assert that sociolinguists are interested in how speech is organized in contexts which are typical, recurrent and repeatedly observable and in part of language behaviour that can be related to social factors. In other words, language is

studied to see how it is organized to serve certain social purposes. Social relationships are studied to see how they are realized linguistically.

Most of the current research has focused on discourse analysis in which the study of language of teachers and pupils has been intensive. This has been necessitated by the desire to search for better ways of teaching communicative competence to second language learners. The argument has been that the rules of conversation and perceiving of intended meaning will assist in finding ways of teaching second language (Brown: 1996). It is important to note that all these studies take place in formal classrooms where the teacher has been the symbol of authority, and in class still, there are predetermined rights, what Myers-Scotton (1995) refers to as rights and obligation sets.

It is plausible that in such a case, the teacher student talk has some element of striving for excellence or competence.

Furthermore, a student who cannot communicate within the context risks being excluded in the language learning process. Edwards and Furlong (1978) observed that in a situation where the students were working in groups in classroom with no obvious leaders and where they could initiate contacts with the teacher if there was need to, they remained free and at home. They charged that “where the students listen to long expositions, talk in their proper turn and talk mainly to the teacher, they become increasingly reluctant” p 47.

This is true of monolingual and multilingual contexts. What can be derived from this is that students are free in informal situations to express themselves. What comes out

is that the classroom demands certain behaviour where the learners are expected to speak appropriately. There is formality that is managed from the teacher (the centre). It leaves no room for emotion or passion thus there is always a social distance in interaction between the teachers and the students. The relationship is impersonalized in interaction as the teacher is seen as the authority. As such, there is always an attempt to learn language using the target language in interaction.

In a multilingual context, what constrains or countenance the language learning largely depends on what the teacher does with various linguistic choices available. As much as the whole business of schooling involves an attempt to reinforce the use of the standard variety of languages, non standard speech can be a disadvantage not because such speech is inherently inferior as an instrument of thought, but because it is so easily read as evidence of low ability. Students who can't speak the form that is expected or is thought proper in classroom are adept at code switching.

The above issue raises the relationship between first and second language learning with regard to language and thought. Stubbs (1992:19) poses the question: does thought depend on language? Most scholars agree that language is related to thinking, learning and cognitive development. Language helps to shape thinking and thinking helps to shape language, but what happens to this interdependence when a second language is acquired? Does the bilingual student's memory consist of one storage system (compound bilingualism?) or two (coordinate bilingualism?) (Brown1996).

The second language learner is faced with the task of sorting out new meaning from the old, distinguishing concepts in one language and even changing the whole system

of conceptualization. Any learning in language classroom depends on the learner's already existing repertoire. Brown observed that the second language teacher needs to be accurately aware of cultural thought patterns that may be as interfering as the linguistic patterns themselves.

Stubbs posits that the question that should be asked is: are there desirable linguistic routines through which pupils acquire information and understanding? To answer this question, he thinks that it can be done by studying classroom dialogue and activities. In other words, the students' conversation or discourse provides a foundation for studying language learning context and its functions. However, such a kind of framework is affected by linguistic variations and other aspects of language use in a bilingual context such as code switching.

Foley (2003:100) argues that, when discourse participants speak more than one language, there is a wider range of discourse options available. Code switching can be regarded as a diverse linguistic resource from which an individual speaker can choose to draw from diverse linguistic resource in order to communicate and therefore will alternate between the languages. There have been various arguments advanced on bilingualism in general with regards to language use and interactions. Foley argues that the first language may not remain the dominant language of use in a wider range of contexts. Each of the languages within the learner's repertoire presents not only information about the world, but also the social situation in which it occurs. This means that depending on the situation, the learners can switch to available choices in interaction provided the required information is obtained.

2.3 BILINGUALISM AND EDUCATION

Bilingualism has been a subject of investigation among several scholars. The definition is made complex in situations that are deemed monolingual and is only considered with the foreign language interests. There is no single definition of individual bilingualism enough to cover all instances of individuals called bilingual. (Hekuta, 1990).

The range of definitions can be from having native like control of two or more languages to possessing minimal communicative skills in a second or foreign language. Such a definition takes into account knowledge or more than one language which other researchers have referred to as multilingualism. (Kembo-Sure, 2000; Myers-Scotton, 1995; Kamwangamalu, 1990).

The definition that bilingualism is having native like control of two languages creates problems, as to what exactly it means. The later definition therefore seems appropriate –that bilingualism involves possessing minimal communicative skills in a second language. Bilingualism can be considered as the addition of two separate competences or as a composite repertoire where the languages in contact interact and combine. (Grosjean, 1993).

There are several primary justifications for the first language being used in instruction as advocated for by UNESCO. UNESCO advocates that the learners at the lower grades should be taught in mother tongue because they are not proficient in English. The basis of this is that literacy is best developed in the first language (mother tongue) when integrated with the activities in which the parents can participate; and

that knowledge acquired during this period through instruction in mother tongue will transfer to English.

At the higher levels, however, there is no clear cut policy on the role of first language in instruction. Most countries, Kenya included, reckon that first language is only instrumental in so far as acquisition of proficiency in English can be achieved and helps the students in learning academic content matter while at the same time acquire enough skills in English. The rest is left to the whims of the teachers and educators.

At this point, it is important to discuss briefly how language learning has developed and its implications for bilingual educators and teachers. Second language learning process has undergone a lot of research in the last several years. These range from behaviorist view, cognitive view to the social context views in which learning occurs. The behaviorist view advocated by Skinner (1957) came to be incorporated in domains of learning a second language.

It is applied to processes involved in language acquisition of second languages. Methods were developed that saw the change of direction in learning second language. The behaviorist perspective was instrumental in the belief that transfer of habits from the native language to the second language facilitates learning that language. The similarities in two languages were seen as facilitating learning (positive transfer) and differences were thought to cause interference (negative transfer) (Brown, 1995).

This led to learning of second language in which learners were required to take large chunks of target language without any regards to context. The paradigm led to the

growth of contrastive analysis where studies were done by comparing the structures of two languages in order to predict problems in the learning of second language. What this implied was that learning a second language entails suppressing the habits of the language that would inhibit learning it.

This view was however rejected on the basis that it made the learners mere copy cats. Learners are not born with clean slates on which knowledge is to be imprinted on. Chomsky (1965) was one of the critics of the behaviorist theories. He came up with the radical view that language is a rich complex system, an innate endowment of human species. This was the cognitive view. Human beings have mental organs that control knowledge and are capable of abstraction and structuring. According to this theory, human beings are biologically determined to acquire language. Language acquisition is innately determined and human brains are biologically programmed. Chomsky argued that human brain consists of an innate language acquisition device (LAD), which naturally takes linguistic data as input and comprehends it as details and as abstract knowledge obeying all the linguistic rules. This follows that learning a language involves knowing the grammatical rules of the language. This view radicalized the way language was taught in classroom as knowledge of rules and structures began to be emphasized in second language learning.

While there were competing views about learning second language through constructed experience and knowledge of the grammar, the focus had changed to the issues of relevance of contexts in which second language took place.

Sociolinguists like Labov (1970) had shown the connection between language and behavior. According to Labov, studies on second language learning should focus on

the contextualization of the formal cognitive capacities. Language learning should focus on the context. The role of the teachers, the parents and society became a focus in determining how language is learned. The environment and exposure provides input for learning language. Recent research has brought together issues of discourse (and by extent code switching) literacy, communication, thinking and writing as necessary in second language learning.

Most scholars, however, agree on some key issues when it comes to second language learning which are of particular importance to the teachers and educators. There is empirical support from the current research about bilingualism with regards to language learning. The first language and the second language are mutually exclusive (Hekuta, 1990). It can be derived from this that Kiswahili and English are mutually exclusive. In addition, proficiency in first language is a predictor of rapid development in second language (Kembo-Sure, 2000). Cross sectional studies show that older children are more efficient second language learners than younger children as their first language proficiency translate to better second language learning (Brown, 1996).

Though it was the view in 1960's that difficulty in second language learning consist of overcoming the habits in first language, the current researchers are of the view that the second language learners have the same problems in terms of difficulties they face regardless of their first language (Ibid).

Studies of errors made by students acquiring second language as reviewed by McLaughlin (1985), in Hekuta (1990), show measurable but not such a great impact

on native language structures in second language acquisition. The interference errors made in second language, which appear to be a result of the first language interference are only noticeable and receive a greater attention by teachers and researchers.

Hekuta (1990) argues that a distinction must be made between functional skills used in interpreting language that draws on context from language that is removed from context. In other words, language that occurs in context occurs in oral and written forms just as language that does not occur in context. Skills that are used in interpreting language in context, in a face to face interaction develops more rapidly than skills needed to interpret language that is not in context, oral or written. Oral skills which are crucial in school are needed for interpreting decontextualized language. Hekuta observes that language proficiency is therefore not unitary, but consist of different skills.

Many researchers agree that in order for limited proficient students to learn English, especially those coming from different language backgrounds, they need three to four years to attain appropriate levels of performance in second language. It has been argued that there is critical period, at puberty when learning a second language is easy and beyond this period it becomes hard (Brown, 1996). There is no clear evidence however on critical period as older people with limited proficiency have been found to have a greater cognitive maturity, and are better at learning. However, it may be true that acquisition of phonological and grammatical skills in second language decline with age. Age may be a factor that constraints the acquisition of certain

phonological and syntactic features of a second or foreign language but not its academic functions.

Although affective factors are an issue in learning second language, it may not be applicable in all contexts as the first and the second language may have some relationship or are analogous in the way they are being learned, for example English and Spanish. This is not the case in multilingual situation like Africa, and by extent Kenya where Kiswahili and English are influenced by affective factors such as motivation and attitude among other factors.

The research in bilingualism shows that bilingualism (or multilingualism) has been attributed to mental retardation and a variety of other undesirable outcomes (Webb & Kembo-Sure, 2000). Current research has, however, shown that negative belief in bi/multilingualism is based on social prejudice especially in countries that were earlier thought as monolingual e.g. US and Britain. With the advent of bilingual education policy brought about by immigrants the situation changed.

Current research has shown that bilingualism is a source of cognitive flexibility and awareness of language. Comparisons of bilingual and monolingual children at various levels of development show that bilingualism can lead to superior performance of intellectual activities. This includes the ability to think abstractly about language and form rather than content. The learner will be able to make sense out of an imperfect sentence.

One of the most important outcomes of bilingual research is that the efficiency of bilingual instruction is that, skills and knowledge learned in first language will

transfer to English. This means that if a student having the content knowledge already available in first language should facilitate the learning of appropriate vocabulary items in second language since it provides what Krashen (1995) calls 'comprehensible inputs'.

Furthermore, learners will always use the schema in order to learn the second language in a given context such as reading. These are comprehension strategies transferred from the first language in order to learn the second language. (Ellis 1995). The act of learning concepts and skills by forming a schema that is independent of the target languages is common in a bi/multilingual situation like Kenya.

Where two languages are involved, there is no confusion, even though in normal conversation children can switch from one language to the other. Skiba (1997) observes that code switching aids in expression of meaning and concepts. This view is in line with Cleghorn's (1992) study findings. In her observation, construction of meaning was facilitated where teachers switched codes in cross linguistic analogies allowing teachers to refer to local items which make lessons more comprehensible. Sert (2005) argues that code switching builds bridges from known to unknown and may be considered as an important element in English language teaching when used efficiently.

Cook (2002) provides observation with regards to code switching in classrooms that consist of multilingual students. Code switching in classes where the students do not share the same native languages may create problems as some students might be

neglected. He says that code switching might only be useful where the students share the same native language as this allows for mutual intelligibility.

The above literature review indicates that bilingualism can be helpful in instruction and provides a clear picture that a bilingual child with two or more languages in her repertoire has social and cognitive capacities enriched rather than impaired or handicapped by multiple languages.

Having two languages is a resource rather than handicap. Alternating between the two can be helpful only if a learning environment that is conducive for their learning potential is provided. Webb & Kembo-Sure (2000) points out that there are educational benefits to be reaped from multilingualism. In one of the pertinent proposals, they posit that mother tongue should be strengthened to provide a base for learning second language; the implication has been efforts to promote the use of Kiswahili. The other recommendation was that teachers should be provided with bilingual education. It should be pointed out that after the introduction of 8-4-4 system of education, most teachers are stable bilinguals in classroom just as the students are and code switching is common in classrooms. Kenya presents a unique situation with two second languages which are co-official and this study deemed it necessary to investigate.

2.4 CODESWITCHING

In Kenya, Kiswahili and English can be argued as the co-official languages. Besides the two languages, Sheng is probably the most spoken language by youth in Kenya today. A sizeable portion of the population who grew up and had their type of Sheng

in their days do try to catch up with today's Sheng as it is used by the youth and in electronic media including music. It has been argued that Sheng has come about as a result of code switching between Swahili and English hence Sheng (Swahili-English) (Mazrui, 1995)

Another argument on how Sheng came about is linked to Kenya's colonial history. The growth of urban centers led to urban rural migration and there was need for a lingua franca.

This may have been in the form of mixed codes and this resulted in some form of pidgin. However, various researchers have argued that Sheng does not conform to the nature of pidgins; that it is a different code altogether. Osinde (1986) argues that Sheng sprung up in areas where English and Kiswahili were already established as lingua francas. A pidgin is established when there is direct need for a compromise medium of communication. The fact that even today, youth have Sheng as their distinct language, show that it is not a pidgin. Neither can Sheng be termed as Creole as it does not draw its lexicon from one dominant language. A Creole is the main language of speech community which draws their primary lexicon from one language whose speakers are in some sense dominant. (Bosire 2006)

According to Osinde (1986), Sheng is a result of imperfect Kiswahili mixed with English and vernacular languages mainly Kikuyu and Luo. Sheng can be traced to the youth of the working class in Nairobi, who speak it as a secondary code to their first languages. In fact, it has been argued that it is becoming the first language for some families (Bosire, 2005). This could be true especially in the slum areas and other middle class residential areas. Mazrui (1995) argues that Sheng is a slang primarily

based on Swahili-English code switching, with elements from Swahili and English ending up obeying Swahili morpho-syntactic structures. In other words, Swahili provided the matrix where the English words are embedded. The opposite or reverse does not occur. For example, the words ‘come’, ‘dish’, ‘slap’, ‘relax’ can take the following forms:

ali –dish

ali-mslap

ali-come

ali-relax

It can be noticed that in the above, English words can take the Swahili subject, tense, aspect markers to form the words. The vice versa is not possible as no Swahili word can take the English tense aspect markers.

To some extent, Mazrui’s arguments are defied in some instances. There is a growing code where Swahili words are ‘anglicized’ so that forms like “I *lalaed* to mean I slept).

‘I *mwagad* some water’ (to mean I poured) and so forth, are becoming common. Only that this new form referred to as ‘Engsh’ here, is common among the upper class and perhaps is exclusivist in nature.

Sheng is a grammatically unstable social code that sounds like Kiswahili but has a distinct and unstable vocabulary. (Ogechi, 2002). It is widely spoken among the urban and a few youngsters in the rural areas.

Like in pidgin and Creole, the creativity of the speakers of Sheng is worth noting. Whereas code switching is the main process going on in creation of Sheng, Sheng is

more than code switching. Sheng is a result of a combination of Swahili and English and borrows heavily from indigenous languages. The example below can show that complexity. (Bosire 2005:2)

Woyee tichee u-si ni rwan-e buu ndio- i- li -ni- leit-ish-a

(Please teacher don't beat/punish/ harm me – I am late because of the bus'

This is compared with Swahili:

Tafadhali mwalimu u -si- nipige – basi ndi -lo li-li-lo-ni – chelewsha'

(Please teacher don't punish me it is the bus that made me late)

'Woyee' is an equivalent Swahili word "*jamani*", *techee* is teacher, *rwande* has its origin from Rwanda where there was genocide therefore it means to harm, punish or kill; *ilinileitisha* meaning it made me late' i.e. inflexed from the word 'late'. It can be noted that the above Sheng sentence has undergone additions, subtractions, reconstructions, inflections and so forth. Notice that there is borrowing from various languages and restructuring to sound like Kiswahili e.g. 'woyee' and 'rwande'.

The complexity inherent in the above example, though code switching is the process, point to the fact that Sheng is more than code switching. Given the multilingual situation in Kenya, it means that Sheng can involve borrowing from the several languages. However, what determines the direction of Sheng still remains the urban areas especially Nairobi where it originated. Osinde (1986) points out its origins to Eastlands of Nairobi in 1970's and has since spread to rural urban settings. This was necessitated by social mobility, education and urbanization hence cross linguistic influence that saw the youth come up with language intended to exclude others in such a setting.

It is a common phenomenon among the youth as a code and is often in use in every day interactions among the students. It is not uncommon to find students discussing a given task or assignment in classroom lesson in whatever subject, in Sheng or code switching between English and Kiswahili and the same work will be required in written form in English

One thing to note about Sheng is that, despite the fact that it incorporates elements from different languages, mainly Kikuyu and Dholuo, it fairly spreads so fast so that speakers are fluent in it. While to some extent Sheng harbors some negative connotations, code switching, which is common across the population, is considered fairly neutral and natural. Sheng depends on code switching in order to thrive and therefore its vocabulary is fluid as slang's (Bosire 2006)

In this study, Sheng is considered as a code. There is no clear cut demarcation between Sheng and code switching as seen in the above literature, and if it is there, it is so thin to an extent that it might be taken as code switching. Furthermore, the classroom discourse is an academic activity that might imply fair, if little, formality using the available languages, Swahili/ English. Myers –Scotton (1995) observes that Swahili, English code switching in Kenya is the unmarked choice in communicative codes. The unmarked choice in communication is the expected. 'Sheng is a variety with Swahili as a matrix language with English embeddings' p39. Myers-Scotton does not differentiate code switching and Sheng as Bosire (2006) does. It can be said that Sheng is common among the youth in urban settings and therefore it is the unmarked choice in communication. If taken as a code, then it is part of the choices available to the students besides Kiswahili and English.

Sheng can function as an identity marker. This is so in cases where the youth develops it to exclude others in their day to day interaction.

Because of its fluidity in nature, Sheng tends to behave like slang in such a case. Sheng can be seen as a form of code switching; either marked or unmarked, depending on the context it is spoken.

It is a common feature in the student's conversation in and outside classroom.

It may have found its way into interactions geared towards developing skills and language learning in general. This study sought to investigate the phenomena as part of code switching.

2.5 CODESWITCHING IN CLASSROOM.

Just as is common in everyday interaction in the wider community, code switching is equally common in classroom. Grosjean & Soares (1986), in Duran (1984), studies in mixed languages – French/ English and Portuguese/ English argued that a bilingual has the choice of activating the other in monolingual context; however, there is never total deactivation of one language when the other is prominent in the situation. In a multilingual context like Kenya, we can infer that the student has at least two or more choices which he or she can activate depending on the situation. However, because of different backgrounds only two languages, Kiswahili and English, are activated in classroom setting in which language interactants or learners find themselves in. In such situation it is plausible that Kiswahili provides the matrix or base in which English is brought in through code switching.

In Kenya, there is no official guidance as to the potential roles of the pupil's native language or their second language like Kiswahili in the mainstream classroom, especially at secondary level, and teachers attempt to avoid although code switching between the teachers and students has been reported. (Omulando, 2002).

Often, the institutional policy determines which language is used by the students both in and out side the classroom. The situation in classroom is such that, where the students are from homogenous group or background, the mother tongue plays a big role in learning English as a second language both in primary and secondary schools. In situations where the students are from heterogeneous backgrounds, a second language like Kiswahili is used to learn English as a second language. In such a case, code switching will take the form of Kiswahili /English. Teachers may be hesitant to switch codes, but the students do switch on their own during interaction. Most teachers avoid the use of first language in second language as much as possible and are suspicious of intrasentential mixing between English and Kiswahili.

Classroom interactions are negotiations that allow for mutual adjustment and leads to an attempt towards simplification or reformulation on the part of the teacher, (Moore 2002). In a conversation between the student and the teacher, there is modification in the speech and the structure of the conversation. This is done by resorting to the first language or by code switching. This is intended to sustain the conversation despite the learner's limited linguistic skills. In other words, switching would be more necessary to create a free environment that can facilitate learning. As code switching is used by the teacher, the aim could be to encourage proficiency in second language

with efforts to check form in the target language. The teacher's task would then be to assist the learner produce language appropriate to the situation.

First language can fulfill a range of functions in classroom. Code switching between languages in classroom can play important part in classroom 'discourse and structuration' (ibid).

One factor that should be taken into account is the affective variables. If the language being learned is beyond the comprehension of the students in the situation, then the teacher needs to come in.

The teacher will need to pay attention whenever the learner switches to the first language or second language that is not being learned (e.g. Kiswahili). He has to pay attention to the discourse in which it occurs, the form, in order to give feed back and allow the negotiation in the second language to go on. It should be mentioned here that the above process seems to be common in primary level. At secondary level students are fairly competent in both English and Kiswahili.

Crystal (1987) observed that learners tend to introduce and or code switch if there is a missing lexical item in second language i.e. to compensate or fill the gap . In such cases the teacher will come to rescue in order to correct or clarify and return to the second language. However, this is not always the case. The teacher- student code switching may be unconscious across the curriculum, however, teachers would be hard put to switch in situation aimed at guiding the students to learn the second language, in this case English.

Adendorff (1996), cited in Chung (2006) carried out studies on code switching between English and Zulu in classroom settings in South Africa.

He found out that code switching is a communicative resource that enables high school teachers and students to accomplish a wide range of school and educational objectives. Adendorff views code switching as a sociolinguistic contextualizing behaviour and are marked choices with referential function and additional meanings. In classroom setting, it functions as encouragement, building solidarity between the teachers and the students as well as establishes authority.

A similar study in Kenya, (Omulando 2002), in her study of effects of Kiswahili on learning and teaching of English in Secondary schools found out that code switching is used by teachers during the various lessons across the curriculum. Her research revealed that code switching occurred in the following circumstances: when rebuking learners politely, giving examples, emphasizing and explaining concepts, and alerting learners' attention. Her view, though, was that code switching was due to interference.

The above studies handled code switching on teacher – student perspective. The studies also showed that code switching between the teacher and student is the marked choice or the expected choice. Though code switching can be attributed to both learners' and teachers' use to survive an unfamiliar language situation, research has shown that code switching is rule governed. Classroom practice where the teacher naturally switches codes as he is competent in two languages could be to clarify or explain, and even so, it would be hard to generalize that all teachers switch. This study was an attempt to find out how code switching among the students occurs

during their classroom discourse based on the premise that they are fairly competent in the two choices - English and Kiswahili.

Teachers' code switching has been attributed to serve several functions. (Sert, 2005). This could be topic switch, where the teacher switches to the students first language. In this case, because of the different backgrounds of the students, the teacher would switch to Swahili or Sheng in dealing with particular grammar points being taught. The point here is to bridge the knowledge gap by allowing the students transfer the content constructed in Swahili (or mother tongue) to English.

In this case context and meaning is made clear by transferring previous learning experience in first language to second language. Amatto (1996:22) observed that the human brain is equipped to handle any language and the ability is not confined to first language alone. The misconception that second language learners will revert to syntactic rules of first language when they are faced with a need or desire to communicate has been attributed more to ignorance than interference. The issue is that there is always need to perform (communicate) before one is ready in a situation, hence there is a tendency to revert to the rules of the first language. This only happens at the beginning but will die out as the learner gains proficiency. In other words, the first language or Swahili as second language for that matter only serves to provide experience for learning English language.

Teacher code switching can serve as expression of affective functions. It is used to build solidarity and intimate relations with the students. In effect, it serves to reduce the social distance and create a free environment in which learning can take place. Edward and Furlong (1978) describe classroom relationship between teachers and

students as one in which the personal feelings are largely subordinated to the tasks at hand. They refer to classrooms as ‘affective deserts’ because most of the talk there is devoted to official business and teaching, though cognitively stimulating, leaves no room for passion or emotion. Code switching therefore serves to reduce the social distance by creating an atmosphere of friendliness and creates supportive language environment in classroom. It is worth noting that much of the input in language learning depends on environment and appropriate exposure in order to develop speech. (Krashen,1985). Certain affective factors like the teacher’s attitude and emotion will impact on the learner’s attitude towards learning language. Code switching is unconscious process some times on the part of the teacher just as its occurrence in the wider community.

Code switching in the classroom by the teacher may serve other functions like clarifying meaning. A teacher may, for instance switch to Kiswahili or English to clarify meaning and in some way, stress the importance on second language content to achieve efficient comprehension.

However, this needs to be done sparingly in order not to expose learners to limited discourse of target language as this will constrain the learners learning.

On the other hand, student code switching has been attributed to serve various functions. One of the functions of students’ code switching is equivalence.

The learners will make use of equivalent lexical item in the target language by switching to the available choice, say Kiswahili. This could be occasioned by lack of appropriate linguistic term in the target language or failure to recall the appropriate

lexical item in particular situation. Code switching in such cases serves to bridge the gap.

If in a conversation the learner is unable to recall the lexical item or is not fluent in the target language, she will resort to another language acceptable in the circumstances which is within her disposal. This function is referred to as 'floor holding' (Sert 2005). The other function may involve repetition where the learner switches codes by making use of repetition techniques. This means that either the students may have not transferred the meaning exactly in the second language or thinks that it is more appropriate to switch to indicate that she has understood or they are in mutual agreement with the teacher.

In situation where there is conflictive language use, for example where the student misconstrues the use of the language intentionally for other purposes, code switching is used to transfer the intended meaning. Such situations may involve situations of lack of some cultural equivalent lexicon. Code switching will serve as a control tool in such situation to avoid misunderstanding.

It is important to point out here that the above functions were based on teacher student code switching in classroom. Most of the literature reviewed so far concentrates on code switching in which language discourse between the teacher and the students is studied. There is little that has been studied on code switching with regards to student-to-student discourse in classroom. This study sought to investigate the effect of code switching in teaching and learning of English in classroom setting.

This is based on the premise that different students from different backgrounds will have English and Swahili as the appropriate choices in interaction.

2.6 CODE SWITCHING AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Code switching can be viewed from language acquisition perspective. There are various theories that have been postulated to show how language acquisition takes place. One of the earliest theories that attempt to explain this phenomenon of language acquisition is the behaviorist theory fronted by Skinner (1957).

According to Skinner, learning takes place through operant conditioning without a necessary observable stimulus. The operant behaviour is maintained by consequences. If the consequence is punishment, then the behavior is weakened and or stopped. In other words, applied to human beings, language acquisition is a verbal behaviour and therefore individuals are reinforced by their own speech in conversation as they receive reinforcements of others within that environment. As they repeat grammatically correct constructions in their speech, they acquire language. The same can be said to be true when acquiring or learning second language.

It can be derived from the foregoing that code switching provides opportunity for language learning. The behaviorist view was rejected by the proponents of nativist theories. The most notable theory that revolutionized directions on second language learning was by Chomsky. Chomsky (1972: 1975: 1979) posits that language acquisition takes place as the brain matures and exposure to the appropriate language is obtained.

Chomsky criticized the behaviorists on the grounds that language is an extremely complex system rather than a series of associations between words in the sentence.

He pointed out that people have innate universal language structures and as children, they are capable of abstraction. The behaviorists were assigning little or no innate ability to children (Ingram 1989). To Chomsky, a child can produce a sentence that she has never heard before and that grammar can generate an infinite number of sentences.

According to Chomsky (1965), children are born with language acquisition device (LAD) principles of language in place. Children are therefore capable of producing complex structures at young age, not through imitation or association but through a highly complex innate ability. This innate ability is universal in human beings. LAD contains pre-programmed subsystems responsible for meaning like a computer. Therefore, subconscious choices are made from experiences. If the program has choices for a different language, the brain will choose the relevant programs.

In second language acquisition the brain resets the parameters when the language to which it is exposed deviates from the way parameters were set in first language.

Chomsky's idea of universal principles contained in LAD gained more support as subsequent studies were carried out to validate this view. Chomsky's disciples described language as specie-specific and that human beings were biologically predetermined to have language. They claimed that aspects of meaning, abstractness and creativity were accounted for more adequately in LAD. It was later expanded into a system of universal linguistic rules known as 'universal grammar'.

Chomsky's theory was criticized on many fronts both by the behaviorists and the subsequent linguists. Berko- Gleason (1993), in Brown (1996) criticized Chomsky's

exposure point of view with regards to conversational analysis (discourse) on the grounds that exposure alone is not sufficient enough for a child to acquire language, but interaction in context is required. Children do not learn language by overhearing conversation of others or listening to radios, TVs, but they acquire it in the context in which they are spoken to.

The main argument was that language does not take place in isolation. Language develops intrinsically in addition to environment and experience (Rivers, 1983). Brown (1996:28) argues that language learning does not take place without social context and behavioral settings. There is no way one can isolate language from cognitive and affective aspects since thought, perception and emotion, are part of human development and human mind.

Krashen (1995) argued that language acquisition depends upon trying to comprehend what people are saying and understanding it. What is important is the comprehensible input that is picked up from the environment where language is used in context. Cook (1993:2) observes that language learning fails to occur if when the learner is deprived of meaningful language, for example classroom activities that concentrate on form rather than meaning. Recent studies indicate that there is an overlap of several aspects when it comes to language acquisition or second language learning and that cognitive aspects, experience, verbal behaviour and the social system play crucial role. (Kramsch 2002).

It can be derived from the above theories that individuals or interlocutors in discourse in context serve as facilitators of language development by providing input (or

exposure) to cultural elements required to express universal structures appropriate to the social cultural context in which language is used. This means that code switching provides the experiences or exposure where the learners rely on the choices available to provide schema for learning the second language.

A lot of research has been carried out in the recent years aimed at shedding more light on second language learning. Research has shown that children learning two languages simultaneously acquire them by the use of similar strategies. (Brown 1995). Brumfit (1984) posits that the acquisition of structures and rules run parallel in first and second language. Thus such children are in fact learning two first languages and their key to success lies in distinguishing separate contexts of the two languages.

According to Brown (1995:65), individuals who learn a second language in such separate contexts are known as coordinate bilinguals. They have two meaning systems as opposed to compound bilinguals with one meaning system from which both languages operate. Perhaps a common phenomenon in Kenya's urban centers is the first instance where children learn English and Kiswahili simultaneously. However, this is not confined to urban centers as this is also the case in rural areas.

Research has shown that the linguistic and cognitive processes of second language learning in general are similar to first language process. Dulay and Burt (1974), in Brown (1996) observed that the linguistic features and strategies are present in both first and second language learning. Brown posits that adults do approach a second language systematically and attempt to formulate linguistic rules on the basis of available information from the first and the second language. Although most research

cites interference in second language learning, it is not the most crucial factor in adult second language acquisition.

This does not mean that interference does not occur at all, in fact, it is common among adults just as is in children. Children use creative construction when learning a second language just as they do in their first language.

Language alternation or code switching can be viewed as language interference. Interference is the transference of elements of one language to another at various levels (Kasper & Faerch 1993, Skiba, 1997). This can take place at phonological level where elements like stress rhythm, rhyme, intonation and speech sounds from first language influence second language. Grammatical interference is about first language influencing second language in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determinants, tense and mood. Interference at lexical level provides for the borrowing of words from one language and converting them to sound more natural in another, while orthographic interference includes the spelling of one language altering another.

Code switching can be viewed as part of compensatory strategy when learners use it as a resource to acquire language. There is always a possibility of switching from second language to first language. The extent to which this is done depends on the interactants' analysis of the communicative situation. Where the learners share first language, it enables them to code switch extensively between second language and first language. Farch & Kasper (1980:53) observed that by using hypothetical rules and testing them, learners tend to switch whenever they experience a problem; say an item or rule is difficult to retrieve or is considered problematic from a correctness or fluency point of view.

Given this point of view, various scholars have argued for or against code switching as interference or supporting language learning. Seen from sociolinguistic point of view code switching provides linguistic advantages rather than obstruction to communication. (Crystal, 1987)

Language acquisition can be viewed from cognitive and affective domains perspectives. Brown (1996), charges that language interference in learning the second language among the adults is common. This is due to cognitive and affective reasons. Underlying the cognitive reasons in language acquisition is that, while the children learn second language unconsciously or without being aware of the values imposed by the environment, the adult learner has an already existing language and the environment is often controlled or is conscious of. (Kembo 2000:295, Brown 1996)

When a child learns a language and already has the first language which she can operate on with ease, she may see no need of learning the second language.

Learning the second language is only necessary in order to make her friends, control her environment, express opinion and make her feelings known. In other words, the learners will need to learn to communicate with the rest of the group. What this means is that the learner in a bilingual context will communicate with others in contexts that require her to make wishes and needs known in, say, English and Kiswahili. Perhaps this explains why code switching and Sheng are common and can be seen as interference.

Mature cognition has been attributed as a liability to successful second language learning, but this only happens to some individuals. Researchers have found that

mature persons do learn second language successfully even after the critical period. One of the reasons that have been given is that the intervening variables could be outside the cognitive domain and could be in the affective domain.

Underlying the affective reasons are the feelings and emotions which are a source of interference in second language learning. This explains why some people learn language successfully more than others. Children can learn language faster because they are less self conscious and are spontaneous learners. (Brown, 1996; Kembo, 2000). The affective factors range from; attitudes, prejudices about the target language or the learning situation. Older children are aware of themselves and their self identity. At adolescence stage, students are more conscious of themselves as separate identities and therefore develop inhibitions though they express themselves openly for fear of being ridiculed. At secondary level, most students are in their puberty stage undergoing physical, cognitive and emotional stages. Their egos are affected, not only in how they understand themselves, but also how they reach out beyond themselves and how they relate to others socially.

Research accounts for how ego can manifest itself in language in communication process. At puberty the ego is flexible and dynamic and therefore language learning can take place as long as there are no confounding sociocultural factors such as negative attitude towards language or peer pressure. However, this is not always the case as the changes in puberty gives rise to defensive mechanism in which the language ego clings to security of the mother tongue to protect the ego of the young adult. When the language is threatened, the learner has to struggle in contexts which she must be willing to make a fool of herself in order to speak the second language. In

a multilingual context, the process would involve alternating between the two languages available. Thus code switching may then be seen as interference using the first language to bridge the gap within that context.

A child who has already acquired a first language has a first identity and a language ego. Learning a second identity will not be easy. In a bilingual setting, it is plausible that children have more than one identity. The case of code switching and by large extent Sheng seems to entrench this view. Furthermore, attitude towards language- that which is deemed normative- plays bigger role in second language. The learning of negative attitudes towards the people who speak the second language or towards the language itself has been shown to affect the success of language learning in school age upwards. In a bi/multilingual setting like Kenya, it can be inferred that positive attitudes by the youth towards code switching as a natural and normative as well as Sheng, serves to reinforce it in the process of learning English as a second language.

In addition, peer pressure plays a crucial role as affective factor in learning second language. The peer pressure tends to constraint learners to conform in order to be like the rest in the group (Brown, 1996). In peer groups, there is pressure to learn the second language the way the others do. This means if code switching is the norm, the learners in the group will alternate between the two languages. In a bilingual situation, students will be under pressure to learn the language perfectly especially when it is English. Those who cannot conform would rather switch the codes to fill the gap.

2.7 REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES.

Language researchers the world over have studied language contact phenomena from various perspectives. Code switching is one such aspect of language contact phenomenon. The subject of code switching has attracted sociolinguists, social psychologists and anthropological linguists.

Gardner-Chloros' (1985), cited in Myers–Scotton (1995), work represents the sociolinguistic approach to the study of code switching. Her work was on bilingual community of Strasbourg, France (Alsatian/French in which she considers code switching as one of the aspects within a larger discussion of patterns of language use and the social correlates.

Jane & Kenneth Hill's (1986) studies (cited in Myers –Scotton 1995) of the use of Mexicano (Nahuatl) and Spanish in Malinche volcano region, is an example of anthropological approach to the study of code switching. In their work, they examined code switching as one of the ways in which language use reflects social change and cultural values.

Within the social psychology approach there are few researches carried out except by those dealing with speech accommodation theory (SAT) developed by Giles et al (1982), (in Myers–Scotton 1995). However, the emphases in SAT work is on language shift and not switching to another style within the same language; that is, the speaker does not alternate varieties but moves from one to another and then stays with the second (Myers –Scotton 1995).

Most of the current research on code switching by sociolinguists and in anthropological linguistics has focused on the causes, the effects, the characteristics and the linguistic constraints.

Some of the foundational studies on language contact phenomenon got underway in early 1960's. Most of the work then was confined to description activities of bilingual speech communities and the effects of language contacts on other languages. However, this work was mainly confined to anthropological linguistics.

Though it did not describe the practice of bilingual speech, language acquisition or socialization process that takes place in bilingual communities. Early sociolinguistic studies viewed code switching simply as interference phenomenon or that it did not exist at all. Code switching was considered as part of performance of the imperfect bilingual motivated by inability to carry on a conversation in the language on the floor at the moment. Myers –Scotton (1995:48) cites Labov's (1972) comments on code switching 'as one of the puzzling problems in trying to study linguistic variation in the community.'

Despite these views and attitudes, other scholars' work on analysis of language use and varieties became a precursor to linguistic analysis of code switching. These include the works of Ferguson (1959), Fishman (1967) and Blom and Gumperz (1972). Ferguson (1959) came up with notions about domain and binary nature of linguistic-code choices. This was the phenomenon of Diglossia, which he described as a situation in which two different language varieties coexisted in society by maintaining separate domains of use- one consisting of highly codified variety of language that is used in particular situations (H), usually referred to as the standard

variety; and one that is used as low substandard variety, (L). Situations associated with H variety include church sermons, university lectures, political speeches and news broadcasts. The low variety is associated with casual conversations, instruction to servants and folk literature. The two varieties were given different values.

This situation was later expanded by Fishman (1967) to include situations in which different languages were spoken and to describe similar functional divisions between unrelated languages. In both Ferguson's and Fishman's work, it is notable that neither of them cite examples of alternation between the varieties within a single interaction or discourse. The idea of domains and situations, however, seems to have influenced the subsequent works of Blom and Gumperz (1972), though they still maintain varieties and refer to them as codes.

One of the early researches on the sociolinguistics that inspired subsequent research in code switching rests in the work of Blom and Gumperz (1972), (in Nilep 2006).

Gumperz's work on code switching and contextualization carried out in northern India has been the most influential in the fields of sociolinguistics and the sociology of language. Much of his work was based on a range of dialects at three levels: the village dialect, regional dialect and the standard Hindi dialect. All these three dialects with distinct varieties were used in different situations. In other words, according to Gumperz, the choice of variety to use in a situation was determined by the relation between the speakers. Gumperz noticed that male residents, especially those who travel considerably, spoke both village and the regional dialects. The village dialect was used at home with other local residents while the regional dialect was used with people from outside.

The notion of language choice being determined by setting, participants and topic were farther explored by Blom and Gumperz (1972) in their research carried in Hemnesberget, Norway. In their study, they compared the use of two dialects of Hindi in northern India. They noticed that the local dialect was frequently used in the interactions with neighbours while the standard dialect was used in communication across various barriers; caste, class and village groupings in India and in academic, administrative or religious settings in Norway. (Nilep2006).

Blom and Gumperz studies on functions of Bokmal and Ramanal formed the basis of subsequent research in code switching. They argued that the two dialects were distinct codes and not languages, and that the speakers are aware that the two varieties are separate. Gumperz and Blom wondered why the two varieties, despite their similarities, were maintained as separate. Their position was that the linguistic separateness of the two varieties both in form and social functions was conditioned by social factors. The choice of the linguistic variety was thus determined by settings, participants and topic. They posited that in particular situations, some linguistic forms may be more appropriate than others. In order to explain this, they gave an example of how the two varieties were used in different situations. While greeting each other in workshops, men used the variety of language (or code) that differed from that used by teachers presenting text materials in school. In their study they reported that teachers treated lecture verses discussion within a class as different events.

The lectures were delivered in standard Bokmal while the regional Ramanal was used to encourage open debates. This shift determined by situation or social settings was referred to as 'situational switching.'

Blom and Gumperz went on to explain that even if the social setting, topic or goal is not changed, interactions that involve the use of the two varieties to allude to other social events changed the meaning without changing the events or the topic. They gave examples of interactions between clerks and residents in the community administration office where greetings took place in local dialect, but business was transacted in the standard dialect. They referred to this situational phenomenon as 'metaphorical switching.' Though Blom and Gumperz equated dialects to codes in a monolingual context, they demonstrated that in an interaction where two choices are available, there is bound to be a shift or switch from one code to another.

The research became the foundational studies on code switching for many researchers. At the same time, Labov and Fishman (1972) were carrying out studies on code switching though at Macro –level (Myers–Scotton (1995). Fishman (1972), in Kembo-Sure (1996), in his studies referred to Blom and Gumperz social settings as domains. According to him, language behaviour is determined by domains or spheres of activities. This implies that in a multilingual context or situation speakers will only use language that is available to them. The situation is determined by the role relations and locale (setting). For example, a student- to- student, or teacher- to -student choice of codes varies according to the situation.

Fishman's notions were taken up by Myers –Scotton (1995) in her studies in which she questions the socio psychological motivation for code switching among the educated youth in Nairobi. It is important to point out at this stage that Blom and Gumperz situational and metaphorical switching made sense to other researchers

while others criticized the terms for their ambiguities. To them situational switching involves change in participants and or strategies, metaphorical switching involves only a change in topical emphasis (Gumperz and Hymes(1972: 409), in Myers – Scotton (1995:52). Myers - Scotton questions the difference in change ‘in strategies’ from a change in ‘topical emphasis.’

According to her, the definition would only be clear if Blom and Gumperz are referring to code switching “motivated by changes in factors external to the participants own motivations (e.g. make up of participants, setting, topic) when situational code switching is meant” p52.

On metaphorical code switching, Myers –Scotton charges that it is not really ‘topic’ that Blom and Gumperz wish to relate to metaphorical code switching other than presentation of self in relation to the topic or changes in relationship to other participants. This is because their experiment showed that the motivation for metaphorical switching is not topic alone. Myers–Scotton sums up Blom and Gumperz conclusion that “when students switch to the standard dialect they do so because of topic change, but also because use of the standard dialect evokes participants shared experiences as intellectuals” p53.

Gumperz (1982:25) seems to have recognized the discrepancies in his description of switching as either situational or metaphorical. He extended his earlier ideas by introducing the term ‘conversational code switching’. He acknowledged that it is difficult to identify particular language choices as situational or metaphorical, and that speakers of a language are not aware of their own choices. He argued that there is

need for a closer analysis of spoken exchanges especially in small groups to identify the functions of code switching.

Some of the functions he suggested include; quotation marking, addressee specification, interjection, reiteration, message qualification, personalization and objectivization. These were sometimes interpreted as contextualization cues. Niley (2006:10) argues that code switching may provide a means for speakers to signal how utterances are to be interpreted.

Blom and Gumperz early work on code switching points to the fact that where there are available linguistic choices in an interaction the speakers will switch between the available codes. Although Gumperz (1982) later gave an insight into the code switching phenomenon by giving several functions in the conversation, he did not give explanation of why code switching occurs as it does and what functions it serves in the conversation. Myers- Scotton's markedness model was influenced by Gumperz's notion that, "speakers do not use language in the way they do simply because of their social identities or other situational factors, but rather exploit the possibility of linguistic choices in order to convey interactional meaning of social pragmatic nature" p57.

According to Myers-Scotton, most youth in Nairobi tend to switch between Kiswahili and English within the same speech situation. Her analysis of code switching was based on the premise that, multilingual speakers have a range of choice of codes available and appropriate for particular contexts in conversation. Thus language in a multilingual community is associated with particular roles which she calls 'Rights

and Obligations' p.84. When a particular speaker speaks a particular language, she signals that she understands the situation of context and her role in the context.

Using more than one language in such a context is possible to initiate negotiation over relevant social roles. Either the speakers understand the social meanings of the available codes or not, hence there is no basis for using the choices. This follows that switching from Swahili to English and vice versa depends on the participants understanding of the situation and context.

Myers-Scotton explains code switching in terms of 'Markedness' and 'unmarkedness' model of language choice. The markedness model is based on the negotiation principle modeled on Grice's (1975) cooperative principle:

'Choose the form of your conversational contribution such that it indexes the set of rights and obligations which you wish to be in force between the speaker and addressee for the current exchange.'

(Myers-Scotton 1995:113)

From this principle, three maxims follow: the 'unmarked- choice maxim', the 'marked-choice maxim' and the 'exploratory –choice maxim'. According to Myers – Scotton, the unmarked –choice maxim directs speakers thus:

'Make your code choice the unmarked index of the unmarked Rights and Obligations set in talk exchanges when you wish to establish or affirm that Rights and Obligation set' p.114.

The above maxim results in code switching as either a sequence of unmarked choices (which she calls sequential unmarked code switching), or as code switching itself as the unmarked choice. She explained that sequential unmarked code switching is

brought about by the situational factors changing within the course of a conversation and thus the unmarked Right and Obligations set may change. Myers –Scotton gives the example of an instance in her research where when the security guard discovers that an inquirer at the gate comes from his own ethnic group, the content of the factors ‘ethnicity’ changes from ‘unknown’ to ‘shared’ and the unmarked Rights of the Obligation set changes from that holding them as strangers to that of between them as brethren. The speakers remain the ones to make choices depending on the circumstances.

On the other hand, speaking two languages in the same conversation is away of following the unmarked choice maxim. This is code switching itself as the unmarked choice. This kind of switching carries communicative intention. According to her, this type of switching is sometimes intrasentential and sometimes within the word. Using this argument we can infer that code switching in which Kiswahili and English are used in the same discourse is unmarked and that it carries communicative intention.

The ‘marked maxim’ directs:

‘Make a marked code choice which is not the unmarked index of the unmarked Rights and Obligation set in an interaction when you wish to establish a new Rights and Obligation set as unmarked for the current exchange’ (p131).

According to Myers-Scotton, this maxim allows for the speakers to put away the rights and obligation sets. In other words, nuances of formalities are to be avoided when such a choice is made. It is important to point out here that though her model was based on code switching in a wider context, it can as well be in the classroom context. In that case, it is plausible that teacher- to-student or student –to- student interaction can be directed by this maxim. When such a choice is made it serves

particular functions. Myers-Scotton argues that marked code switching can be used to increase (or decrease) the social distance via authority or anger or annoyance.

It can also work as an ethnically based exclusion strategy. Where people are aware of their own ethnic group, they might use marked code switching to exclude others in a conversation. In this case, the unmarked choice like Kiswahili will not be used. Such a switch is determined by the costs and rewards.

In a multilingual context like Kenya, it is not common as the costs are often higher than the rewards. Though it does exist, speakers would be frowned at for playing the tribal card. Even if it were to be used, such code switching will act as a medium. A marked choice in such a case can have a message of its own. When each one uses her language after using Swahili first in the conversation there is a message in it.

Myers-Scotton views marked choice as having an aesthetic effect. This can involve retelling of how incidents happened in a language none of the participants understands or seems to laugh at. It can also involve imitating what the other speaker in authority said.

‘The exploratory- choice maxim’ directs:

‘When an unmarked choice is not clear, use code switching to make alternate exploratory choices as candidates for unmarked choice and thereby as an index of Right and Obligation set which you favour’ p141.

According to her, exploratory code switching is not common as it not needed since an unmarked choice is clear. The unmarked Rights and Obligation sets are clear and can be derived from the context unless the norms clash.

The markedness and unmarkedness model of language choice developed by Myers-Scotton with regards to multilingual situation like Kenya has been developed over the years and is one of the most influential works in the study of code switching in a wider context. This is of particular importance in this study in an attempt to investigate code switching in classroom. To simplify the model, the unmarked choice in a particular context of exchange is what is normatively expected. It is unconscious and spontaneous. On the other hand, the marked choice is the unexpected or the unusual choice. In an exchange, the speakers are aware and responsible for the consequences of making marked or unexpected choices.

Speakers tend to choose the expected code (unmarked) in the interaction though this is not always the case, considering Myers-Scotton views.

What this means is that, Kiswahili, English and indigenous languages, could be the choices available in any context in a multilingual situation and that speakers know when to use what language in a given context.

It can be inferred that in school and particularly classroom context, the same choices are available to students. However, due to the nature of discourse, different ethnic backgrounds of the students, the rights and obligation sets between teachers and students or students themselves, notwithstanding, the situation could be different.

To explain markedness model, Myers-Scotton (1995) incorporates Hyme's, (1972), communicative competence. Hyme's concept of communicative competence was developed with grammaticality and acceptability in mind. Underpinning this concept is the view that competent speakers know what a well formed sentence in their language is and what is not well formed sentence in a given social context. She

charges that 'if grammatical competence depends on a universally present innate human language faculty, communicative competence must have the same basis' p79. She expands Hyme's concept of communicative competence by adding that the speakers know whether a linguistic choice is marked and how it is to be interpreted in the context in which it occurs. Speaking two languages in the same conversation is away of following the unmarked choice maxim for speakers in a bilingual community and carries communicative intention.

Myers –Scotton's model has been one of the most influential piece that has provided an opening for further research. However, this was not without criticism. It has been criticized on the grounds that it relies so much on the external knowledge of the language use by the analyst and not on the internal states of the speakers of a language. (Auer 1998:19, in Nilep 2006).

Bilingual code switching in community context has been attributed to various functions by different scholars. According to Trudgill (2000: 105), speakers switch to manipulate or influence or define the situation as they wish and to convey nuances of meaning and personal intention. In other words, code switching is used for self expression and personal intention.

Others view it as a tool for creating linguistic or group identity, (Holmes, 1992, Kembo-Sure 2000, Crystal 1987), or expression of modernization, (Kamwangamalu, 1989).

Crystal (1987), in Skiba (1997), advances the view that people switch codes when after a certain level of fluency and frequent use of second language, a language

behaves as if it were the bilingual's first language i.e. bilinguals come to rely on it more. Thus regardless of which language the bilingual learned first, the more active language determines the choice of the code.

This is equally true when one considers the use of Kiswahili and English in Kenya. Most speakers tend to use Kiswahili mainly in public domains besides their mother tongue.

It is worth noting here that while code switching was viewed as a randomized behaviour in the past, the current research has shown that it is rule governed behaviour, a skilled performance with communicative intent, and not as a compensation for deficiency in bilinguals (Myers –Scotton, 1995).

Nevertheless, most studies carried out in other countries that were monolingual in the past portray code switching as a non-normative linguistic behaviour that is neither appreciated nor supported and associated with the notion of cognitive deficits. This is because it is in direct conflict with conventional forms about what is 'good language'. (Nilep, 2006: 5).

Research on code switching has also focused on linguistic constraints (Romaine, 1995), grammatical constraints. The grammatical constraints are based on the free morpheme constraint and the equivalence constraint. The free morpheme constraint states that a switch cannot occur between a lexical form and morpheme unless the former has been phonologically integrated into the language of the later. The equivalence constraint rule states that the words order immediately before and immediately after a switching point should exist in the two languages to make it

possible for a switch to take place. The two languages can then be interchanged freely (Myers- Scotton, 1993).

Other studies have focused on structural patterns (Muysken, 2000) as well as factors that bring about code switching e.g. integrity, self pride, comfortability and prestige (Kamwangamalu, 1989). Besides focus on functions, causes and factors, he gives the effects as innovation in structures in other languages and making one language more dominant than the other. Kembo-Sure (2000) has also noted the change in styles, registers and pragmatics in code switching.

While the above studies provide various perspectives on code switching, this study seeks to investigate it in classroom contexts. Furthermore, it can be observed that all the studies on this phenomenon reviewed so far above are silent on classroom contexts and implications of code switching. Though it is drawn from a wider context of language use in community context, it is relevant in the present study as the same dynamics could be in force in classroom context.

2.8 SUMMARY

In an attempt to find out what other scholars have done and said about the study in question, the researcher has looked at various aspects and related studies on code switching.

It has been established in the literature review that various views have been expressed about code switching. A lot of research has been carried out on code switching in community contexts. The views that have been expressed range from how code

switching is perceived either as a natural normative linguistic behaviour that poses intellectual challenge.

Different scholars have looked at code switching in terms of linguistic constraints, functions and the general effects in sociolinguistic contexts. All agree that code switching is a product of bi/multilingualism.

Attempts have been made to review what other researchers have done and said on bilingualism and education. This by extension includes code switching in classroom and its impact on English teaching. The researcher has attempted to discuss the phenomenon as can be viewed from different perspectives with regards to language learning in classrooms, language acquisition and code switching and sheng.

On Sheng phenomenon the assumption is that the demarcating line between it and Swahili /English code switching is complex.

However, code switching has been taken to include all the codes in the study.

The researcher's view throughout the study is grounded on the view that the Kenyan situation is unique in that, besides indigenous languages, English and Kiswahili are competing languages in the pupils' repertoire in classroom, thus allowing for bilingual code switching. The next chapter lays out the research design and methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION.

This chapter focuses on the design and the methodology used in the study. It also describes the area of study, the population, sampling procedures, research instruments used, piloting of instruments, results of piloting, method of data collection and analysis.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study adopted the survey method. In the study, the bilingual language learners and the social context of language used was taken into account. Various socio-linguistic studies of language use have been carried out using survey method. A number of researchers have used a form of survey methodology to collect empirical data on speech acts such as compliments and compliment exchanges, (Holmes, 1988; Manes and Wolfson, 1981), cited in Johnson, (1992). It is in this light that survey method was adopted. The research was carried out in the expansive Bureti district, south rift valley, Kenya, with several secondary schools of which all could not be studied.

3.3 THE STUDY AREA

The study was carried out in selected secondary schools in Bureti district. Bureti district is one of the districts in south Rift Valley Province. It is bordered by Bomet to the south, Kericho to the north, Nyamira to the west and Nakuru to the east.

The district has several secondary schools which are classified as provincial or district and on gender, that is boys or girls or mixed schools.

3.4 THE STUDY POPULATION

The study targeted secondary schools in Bureti district, south Rift valley province in Kenya. It included teachers of English language and students during the period of study. The population consisted of form three students from the provincial schools only.

Bureti district has a total of sixteen provincial schools. Out of these, ten are boys schools and six are girls schools. Each school admits 85% of the students joining form one from the district. The classes are therefore linguistically heterogeneous enough to use English or Kiswahili during classroom interaction. In this study, the form three students were chosen on the premise that they are stable bilinguals and able to express themselves in both English and Kiswahili. Each class in average had 45 students.

3.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

In the study it was not possible to survey the entire population as defined above and therefore only target specific category of schools were studied

(Provincial schools only). The sample selected for the study must be similar to the population (Johnson,1992).

In the study, stratified purposive sampling was used. Only provincial secondary schools were selected for the study, the reason being that these schools contains heterogeneous population as it admits 15 percent of the students from outside the district who are integrated into the mainstream classrooms that have 85 percent of students from the district. The provincial schools were then categorized according to gender (strata) i.e. boys and girls schools. Of the sixteen provincial schools, ten are boys schools and six are girls schools. Only five schools, three boys and two girls schools were picked at random. These made up 31 percent of total number of provincial schools. Each school had an average of three streams with an average of 45 students per class and the total population in the study was 2160. A class of 45 students was picked at random in each of the five schools bringing the total number of students who participated in the study to six hundred and seventy five (675) This formed 31 percent of the total sample. All the English language teachers, one subject teacher per school, was sampled.

3.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

This study adopted a combination of various instruments so as to capture qualitative data. This includes observation and tape recording, and questionnaire. Bogdan and Bilken (1992) observed that the presence of the researcher in a particular setting under study is very important because he or she is concerned with context. They argue that the researcher should understand the

action in the setting as it occurs, to know how, where and what circumstances they come into being. This was very important in the language where the researcher observed language interaction in the context and augmented it with other instruments such as tape recording and note-taking.

3.6.1 OBSERVATION AND TAPE RECORDING

Language is a communication and therefore observations were made regarding the behavior of the students and at the same time verbal interaction was recorded using a pocket tape recorder.

According to Johnson, (1992 : 115) observation and tape recording methods yield relevant details of language in context and the relative status of the interlocutors. The researcher used an observation schedule, where verbal and nonverbal behavior, interest and fluency were observed. Other methods like note making were used alongside observation to describe the specific contexts of language use. McDonough (1995 : 136) observes that a combination of two or more methods in data collection is necessary to obtain a detailed knowledge of what is observed in classroom.

3.6.2 TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

The study used questionnaire to obtain data from the teachers of English in the schools under study. One of the reasons for using questionnaire is that it requires less time and is less expensive. The questionnaires used were both open-ended and closed ended. Johnson, (1992) points out that questionnaire is useful in gathering qualitative information at the early phases of questionnaire

development and therefore can allow response to be incorporated into closed items. A questionnaire enables the researcher to elicit data by asking the subjects in research questions rather than just observing their behaviour. (Tuckman,1978). The questionnaire could provide personal views from the teacher about the students' use of language in classroom and their attitude on code switching.

It is also ideal when used in small scale intimate settings because of low risk in response as opposed to large samples (ibid). The questionnaire was developed and tried before being used.

3.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS.

A measure is valid if it measures what it is intended to measure, (Johnson , 1992) In this study , it was necessary to ascertain the validity of the research instruments to see whether they assessed important aspects of language interaction in classroom.

One of the measurement instruments that the researcher used to obtain data on variables of interest were questionnaires administered to teachers. It was necessary to ascertain the validity of this instrument. To do this, the construction of the questionnaires involved review of relevant related literature. The instruments were then submitted to the course experts in the Department of Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Media in Moi University for review and revision where necessary. The experts assessed what concepts the instrument was trying to measure and to determine whether the set of items accurately represented the concept under study. The major topics addressed by the questionnaire included subjects used or known, taught,

language use in classroom, language spoken by the students and the teachers views or options on language use.

Observation and tape recording schedule was another instrument used. To ascertain the validity of observation and tape recording schedules, the experts from the Department of Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Media were asked to assess the concepts the instruments were trying to measure and to determine if the observation and tape recording schedule represented the concepts under study. The study involved observation of verbal behaviour and non verbal behavior and therefore it was necessary to provide evidence that the instruments were valid.

A measure is reliable if it yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. (Johnson 1992). The questionnaire, observation and tape recording instruments used in the study had to be assessed to determine their reliability.

To ascertain the reliability of the questionnaire and observation and tape recording schedules a test –retest method was used. The observation and tape recording instruments were administered in the pilot secondary schools in the neighbouring Kericho district where the students were tape recorded as they discussed a class activity. The class subject teacher filled the questionnaire separately. Problems detected were revised and items reviewed. This was done with the help of course experts in the Department Of Curriculum Instruction And Educational Media – Moi University. The instruments were revised and re tested before being used.

3.7.1 PILOTING OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Pilot study was carried out before the main study. This was necessary to try out tools which were to be used in the research to determine their appropriateness

and effectiveness. Equally, piloting is necessary to all methods of data collection to test whether they will enable the researcher to collect what he or she intends to collect. (Croll, 1986).

Commenting on the questionnaire, Johnson (1992: 114) says:

“The most crucial step in questionnaire development, one that should never be omitted is careful pilot testing. Questionnaire should be tried out with respondents who are similar to those who will respond in the study .It is inevitable that problems will be detected then revised”.

The purpose of pilot testing was to find out whether the respondents understood the questions and whether the tools would obtain the required information. Pilot study was carried out in neighbouring Kericho District. Two provincial schools with similar characteristics to those in the real sample were picked at random. In each school, a form three class consisting of an average of 45 students was picked at random. An activity was given to students in groups of between five to seven. Their conversation was tape recorded and observation made at the same time. The questionnaire was meanwhile administered to the subject teacher of English in the classroom under study.

3.7.2 RESULTS OF THE PILOT STUDY

The pilot study revealed some anomalies that needed to be rectified. Initially observation and tape recording was to be carried out for at least 10 minutes in each group in a language classroom lesson. The pilot study showed that ten minutes was such little time to allow tangible interaction to be recorded or observed.

This was rectified by allowing more time, 15 to 20 minutes. It was not therefore possible to tape record and observe all the groups.

In a lesson of 40 minutes only two groups picked at random and recorded were deemed enough for the purpose of the research.

The pilot study showed that certain questions in the questionnaire could not elicit the required information in line with the research objectives. Questions 9, 10, 11 and 12 were modified or entirely changed to reflect the objectives of the study. This was done in consultation with the course experts in Moi University. Question 9 initially read: In classroom when you give out work in informal groups or peers, which language do you find your students use most?

This was struck out and replaced with the following statement that required the teacher's opinion: As a subject teacher, when teaching in classroom switching from one language to another affects teaching of English as a second language.

This was meant as an opinion question augmenting question 8 (see appendix b). The initial question was taken to question 11 but modified to read as follows:

In the classroom, do students ever switch to another language when interacting in a group learning activity apart from English? This required 'yes' or 'no' answer. The second part therefore became: If yes, which language do students use most? Here options were provided as choices. In effect, the initial question 11 that read: Does switching between English and Kiswahili among students while carrying out language activity in class affect learning English? Was modified and brought as opinion question in question 13. This read as follows:

‘Switching from one language to another affects the learners’ fluency in spoken English:

Question 10 which read:

‘To what extent would you say switching from Kiswahili to English and vice versa affects teaching of English?’ was removed and replaced with question 12 appearing in the same number (see appendix b).

The other questions remained unchanged. It was not however possible to pinpoint how exactly the sequence should have been with regards to objectives as all the questions were related in one way or another.

3.8 ADMINISTRATION OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The administration of instruments was carried out separately. The administration observation and tape recording was however done at the same time.

3.8.1 ADMINISTRATION OF OBSERVATION AND TAPE RECORDING

The class was provided with an impromptu simulated decision making activity by the researcher with the help of the subject teacher during the lesson. Below is a sample of the activity. The aim was to develop speaking skills and decision making through language interaction. The activity was subject to change and therefore two versions of it were used in the study.

ACTIVITY 1 : Imagine that the Minister of Education is coming to open a newly constructed school library in your school. Your group is the

committee concerned with the reception of guests. The committee is made up of different people both from within and outside the school community. Allocate yourself roles and duties and discuss how you will carry out the reception.

ACTIVITY 2: Imagine that one of the rivers has burst its banks. You are marooned by floods in what is now an island. The island will be submerged by the floods in the next 30-60 minutes and an escape plan must be implemented quickly.

There are make – shift life boats to carry you to the higher ground, but a consensus has to be reached on who will go where with whom etc. Draw up plans to be implemented and make decisions immediately, bearing in mind the short time and the state of boats which might be unworthy.

The researcher was introduced to the class by the subject teacher as a teacher who comes from another school. The class was divided into small groups of between six to eight students. In each class of an average of 45 students, there were six groups in average. The two activities were given at random to the groups. The researcher tape recorded and observed one group at a time. Each group was observed and tape recorded using a pocket tape recorder for 15 minutes. In a lesson of 40 minutes only two groups were recorded.

The purpose of the activity was to provide learners with an environment where they would make use the choices of languages available to persuade, disagree, elicit cooperation and make judgments.

3.8.2 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was administered to the subject teacher in each school personally by the researcher. These were self filled questionnaires which were completed by the teachers and returned at end of the lesson. The questionnaire consisted of teacher background knowledge, perspective and or attitude with regard to English language teaching and learning in school.

3.9 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The study employed a combination of various instruments to collect data. This involved tape recording the students' conversation using a pocket tape recorder. The researcher planned with the subject teachers in advance when to give out the activity. The activity was to be part of the language lesson. It acted as an impromptu activity where the students had to use language at their disposal during the interaction. At first, the subjects were shy when the tape recorder was introduced in their group. However, attention shifted to the activity after some few minutes. The tape recorded interaction was later transcribed so as to enable the researcher examine how code switching occurs. The tape recorded interactions were transcribed so as to enable the researcher to examine and analyze the data based on the objectives of the study.

Bogdan and Bilken (1992 : 129) caution that tape recorder tends to create the illusion that research is affordable and as such recording should be as short as possible to minimize expense. In this study, groups were recorded only for 15 minutes. It is important to note here that data analysis began from the field.

Bogdan and Bilken (ibid) suggest that the researcher should base his or her analysis on relevant research questions in their study. Note making was used to augment recording.

Whereas it is acknowledged that transcribed data from various groups were analyzed, only a few extracts were used to exemplify issues in the study based on the objectives and to enable the researcher examine whether there is any correlation with the teachers' reports in respective schools. The researcher administered questionnaires to the subject teachers in schools under study. The data obtained by the questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively using absolute numbers and percentages. Opened ended questions provided opinions that were analyzed descriptively. The next chapter focuses on data analysis, interpretation and presentation.

3.10 SUMMARY

This chapter looked at the research design and methodology employed in the study. These include the study area and population, the sampling procedures adopted and the research instruments used. The chapter discussed validation and evaluation of instruments, how they were piloted and their results, administration of the instruments and how data was collected and analyzed. The next chapter handled data analysis interpretation and presentation

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on data analysis, interpretation, and presentation. The data analyzed was obtained using a combination of the following instruments; questionnaires, observation and tape recording.

Data presentation is based on instruments and themes represented by the objectives of the study. The following objectives of the study formed the basis of the analysis and presentation:

- a) To investigate the effects of code switching on English language teaching in a language classroom.
- b) To determine how code switching takes place and the dominant language in language classroom.
- c) To determine the extent to which code switching influences learning English as a second language.

The data collected are presented using descriptive statistics in the form of absolute numbers and percentages. The information obtained through classroom observation and tape recording is presented descriptively.

The data is presented in the order of the following themes:

- a. Code switching and language use in classroom

- b. Code switching and language dominance
- c. Code switching and language learning
- d. Summary

4.2 CODESWITCHING AND LANGUAGE USE IN CLASSROOM

Under this theme the results were presented based on the instruments used: Observation and tape recording and questionnaire.

4.2.1 RESULTS OF OBSERVATION AND TAPE RECORDING

The data was collected in five provincial schools made up of two girls and three boys' schools. Observation and tape recording was carried out in an English lesson where students were given two variants of activities intended to elicit language interaction without direct involvement of the teacher.

This was intended to give the learners the hands-on free experience during the interaction and use language within their disposal. At the same time tape recording was carried out, the researcher made notes using the observation schedule, on the group participants.

In the observation and events recording schedule, question one and two sought to verify the school name and status. Table.1 shows the number of schools under observation and tape recording by category of students. In the recorded group interaction it was found out that students used both English and Kiswahili in varying degrees. Different schools either extremely used code switching or used it sparingly depending on various factors. Only a few extracts recorded were used to analyze the data in the study. The activity, provided in the appendix was intended to be a learning activity in what would be a listening and speaking skills lesson. The whole activity

was based on the premise that language teaching requires an environment that enables the learners to take charge of the learning process.

It was observed that as far as English language teaching was concerned, student- to-student interaction gives an opportunity for code switching to prevail. The following extract from school A serves to illustrate.

EXTRACT I

This was an extract from a boys' school in a group engaged in activity 2.

A: Ok ... *Hii plan tutaanza kuandika sasa itakuaje?*

Ati river ndio imeburst, halafu..... make plans to be implemented and make decisions.

(Ok this plan we are going to put in writing. How will it be? That the river has burst its banks, then therefore make plans to be implemented and decisions)

B: *Ni boats zinakuja kuokoa*

(There are boats coming to rescue)

C: *Lakini imagineama*

(But imagine.....or)

A.: *Sasa your measuresyou should take (now)*

B: *Sasa (now) steps..... and the state of some boats*

D. *Hii nini ime- collapse?*

(What is this that has collapsed?)

A: (interruption) *maji inakuja juu..... inakuja kwainakuja kuzama ndani ya boat*

(Water is getting in/up..... It is getting into the boat)

B. *Sasa* where... (Now where...?)

C: You have got idea *ati*..... that

TABLE 1: NUMBER OF SCHOOLS UNDER OBSERVATION AND TAPE RECORDING

CATEGORY	NO. OF SCHOOLS	PERCENTAGE
BOYS	3	60
GIRLS	2	40
TOTAL	5	100

A: *Sasa-utafa-nini* (shortened form of Swahili

Words *sasa* (now) and *utafanya* (what will you do)

B: Draw... make plans to be implemented and the decision immediately.

Notice that in the transcribed extract above, the students in the group alternate between Kiswahili and English in spite of the fact that the activity was meant for discussion in English as part of listening and speaking skills in a language lesson. It was observed that after alternating between the two codes, the decision was sought and had to be written down in English. Learners tend to think or discuss in both Kiswahili and English, opting in this case to use Kiswahili mostly. In the last sentence in the extract the learners seems to signal the need or urgency to change. The decision had to be made in writing in English. It could not be established whether Kiswahili was the first language for all the group participants.

When student A. explains how the water gets into the boat thus: *inakuja juu ndegwa inakuja kuzama ndani ya boat*; he used a lot of gestures to enable the others understand him. Notice that the word in Kiswahili does not correspond to appropriate words in English. It appears that he is explaining the statement *inakuja kuzama* for the boat is capsizing in English-meaning something different in Kiswahili.

In extract one, it can be noticed, as was observed, that code switching took place in specific language contexts. Some of the major contexts in this case include seeking clarification, signaling attention or interruption, elaboration, explaining, emphasizing,

among others. These specific language contexts can be explained one by one using the above extracts.

At the beginning of the extract above, student A makes it clear from the onset that every thing has to be put in writing. To do this, he uses Kiswahili to emphasize the fact that decision made has to be written down.

He goes back to the task at hand to clarify. Again, he starts the sentence with Kiswahili word 'Ati' and switches to English then Kiswahili. Notice that there is code mixing where the English verb 'burst' is embedded in the Swahili morpheme 'Ime' – meaning 'It has'.

While thinking about the next course of action, the second student seeks to clarify further in Kiswahili that is in a long uninterrupted sentence. In the two instances, it seems code switching (or code mixing) functions as contextual cues in which issues under discussion are clarified, emphasized or stressed.

It was observed that certain Kiswahili words like *sasa, ati, hii, lakini* are common at the beginning of the sentences. These are equivalent to conjunctions in English, like *there, now* or *at the moment, that, this, but or however* depending on the contexts. Though it can be said to be words to bridge the gaps in communication, this may not always be the case. It is plausible that these are habitual spontaneous sentence starters in everyday conversation in the first language or Kiswahili which may find their way into English which is a second language. By implication, making grammatically correct sentences in formal situations may prove hard for the learners. The teachers will have problems teaching the usage of the grammatical items like conjunctions, connectors and paragraphing.

Furthermore, it may result also in repetition and redundancy, if the students are to transfer these elements to writing. Whether this happens is beyond the scope of this study.

Even when students switch to Kiswahili in a long discourse, it was observed that there were gaps marked by hesitation where the student either looked for the appropriate word in order to pass the meaning. For example, an interruption or hesitation made by student A in the extract, followed by the sentence '*inakuja..... Kuzama ndani ya meli*' was meant to look for appropriate term or lexicon in the language (Kiswahili) in order to transfer the meaning. It is plausible that the student switched in order to ensure that the task is understood by others in the group.

This means that while helping the others understand concepts or meanings by transference, it may affect how the students could have learned the right lexicons in the target language if they had been used. Towards the end of the extract, it was noticed that the switched words mainly from Kiswahili, were shortened.

This phenomenon was noticed throughout the study. Influenced perhaps by the situation or context, which at first appeared formal and serious but later relaxed, the students switching acquired some stylistic forms.

The shortening of Swahili lexicons e.g. *Sa* - for *sasa*, *utafa-* for *utafanya* may have been used as a style either for intimacy, solidarity or to reduce social distance. While this and other nuances in the group interaction served some communicative intention, it may defeat the objective of learning the target language through practice and exposure.

Other specific contexts in which code switching were used throughout the study were; to signal the start of the sentence, to personalize, to summarize and to seek attention. For example, most students, as can be seen in the extract, start with the Kiswahili word *Sasa* (now) and *lakini* (but or however). In order to seek attention, most learners use words such as “*na*’ (and), and the same word *sasa*.

4.2.2 RESULTS FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

The questionnaire was administered to all the respective English language teachers in the classroom observed and tape recorded. The questionnaire contained questions intended to obtain background information from the teachers and their perspectives on effects of code switching on English language learning and teaching.

All the teachers in the study filled the questionnaire and the response was hundred percent. Question one, two and three were intended to identify the name of the school, the professional qualifications of the teachers and the subjects taught respectively.

The questionnaire results, summarized in figure 1, indicated that 80 percent of the teachers were graduates while 20 percent were diploma. All the teachers taught English/literature.

Question three sought to find out the number of languages known by the teacher. The result indicates that 80% of the respondents know at least three languages. Mother tongue, English, Kiswahili e.t.c. Twenty (20) percent reported having knowledge of at least two languages English and Kiswahili; figure 2 summarizes this information.

These results show that most teachers have at least three languages in their repertoire, thus creating environment for code switching.

In order to establish the order of fluency on the languages known, the respondents were asked to list down in order of degree fluency: from the most fluent to the least fluent. Sixty (60) percent of the respondents, as captured in Table 2, indicated that they were most fluent in mother tongue, English, Kiswahili and other, in that order, while 40 percent were most fluent in English, Kiswahili and other in that order.

In order to establish if there was any relationship between languages known and the order of degree of fluency, results from question five and six were compared. It was established that those who were fluent in mother tongue, English, Kiswahili and other in that order, had knowledge of at least three languages while those fluent in English and Kiswahili had at least two. Probably mother tongue is the first language in the first group while in the second group English or Kiswahili could be their first language.

Question seven sought to establish the language most used by the teachers. As captured in figure 3, sixty (60) percent of the respondents reported using English most of the time, while 20 percent reported using Kiswahili, and another 20 percent reported using English / Kiswahili. This means that majority of teachers use English most of the time in and outside classroom.

When asked whether they ever switched to another language while teaching in class, 60 percent of the respondents (figure 4) reported switching, while 40 percent reported that they don't switch at all. Majority of those who switch are the groups with at least three languages

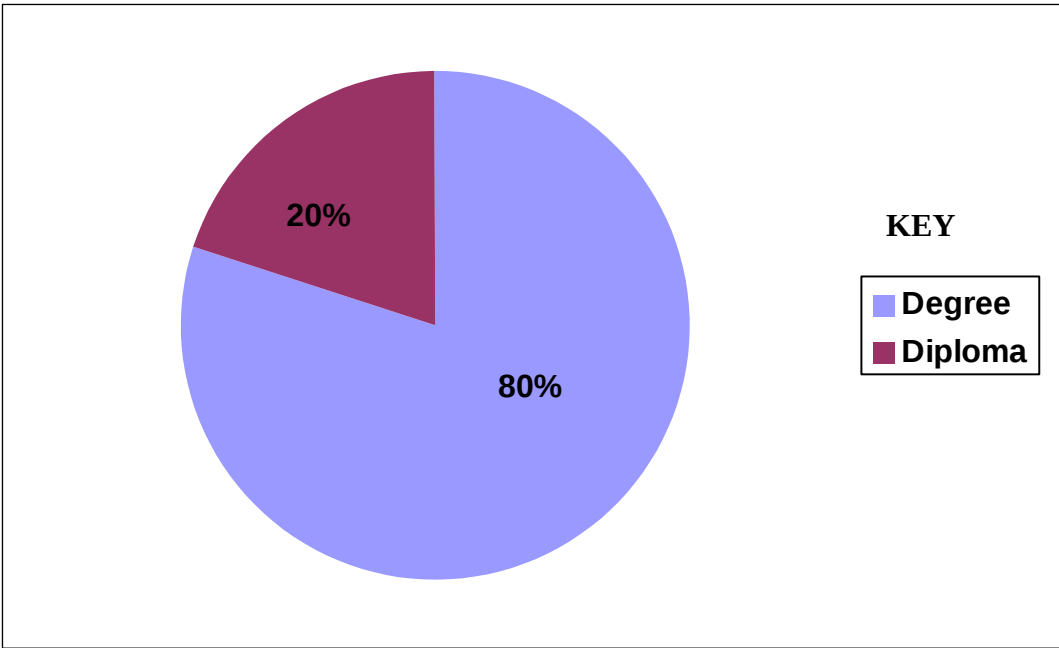


Figure 1: Professional Qualification of the English Teachers.

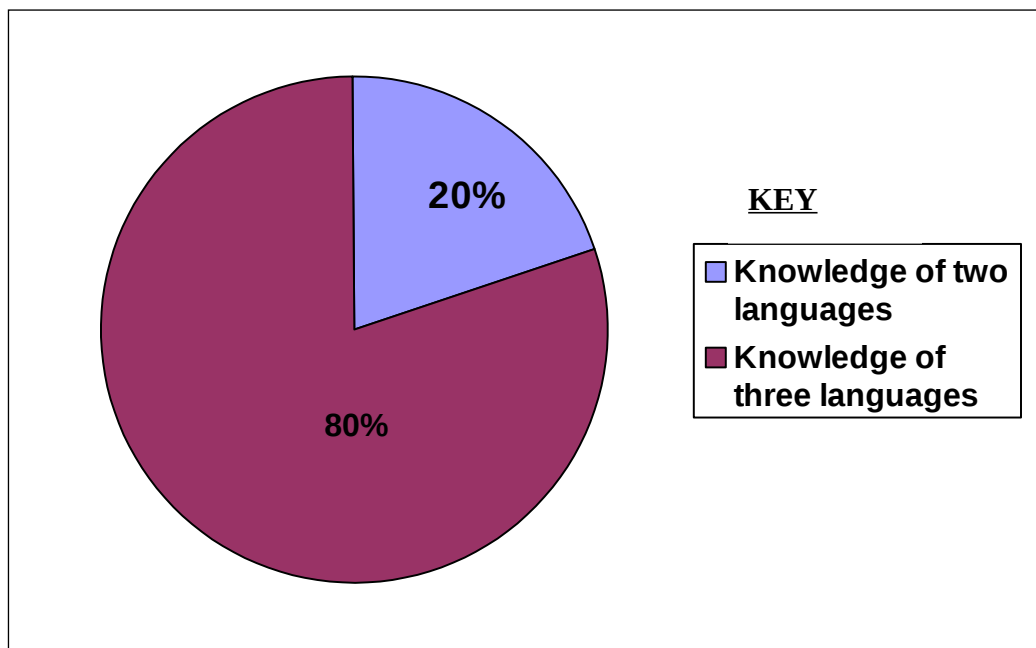
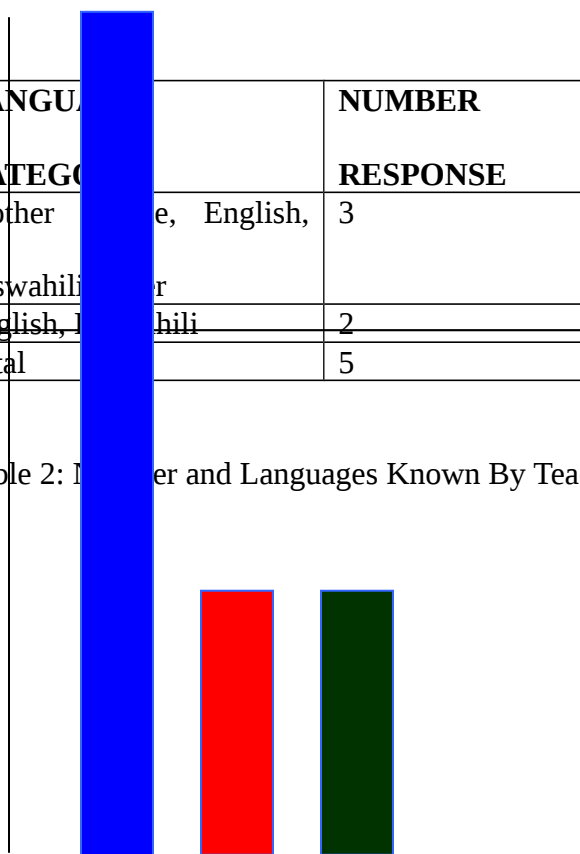


Figure 2: Teachers Knowledge of Languages.

Percentages no of t teachers

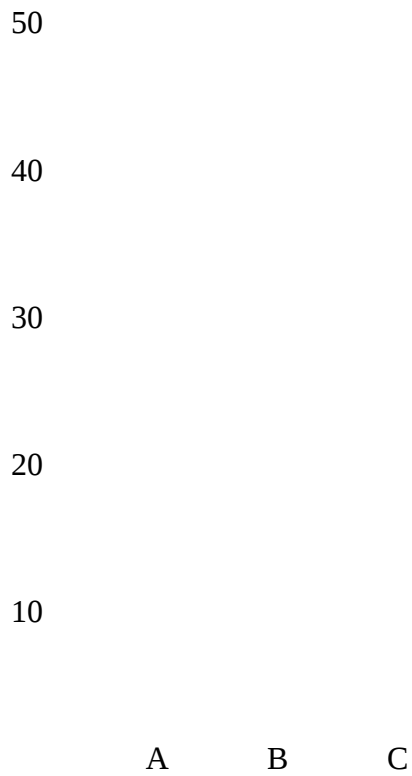
LANGUAGE CATEGORY	NUMBER OF RESPONSE	PERCENTAGES
Mother tongue, English, Kiswahili	3	60
English, Kiswahili	2	40
Total	5	100

Table 2: Mother and Languages Known By Teachers in Order of Degree of Fluency



Response on language use





KEY

English

Kiswahili

English/Kiswahili

Figure 3: Language Used By the Teachers Most of the Time.

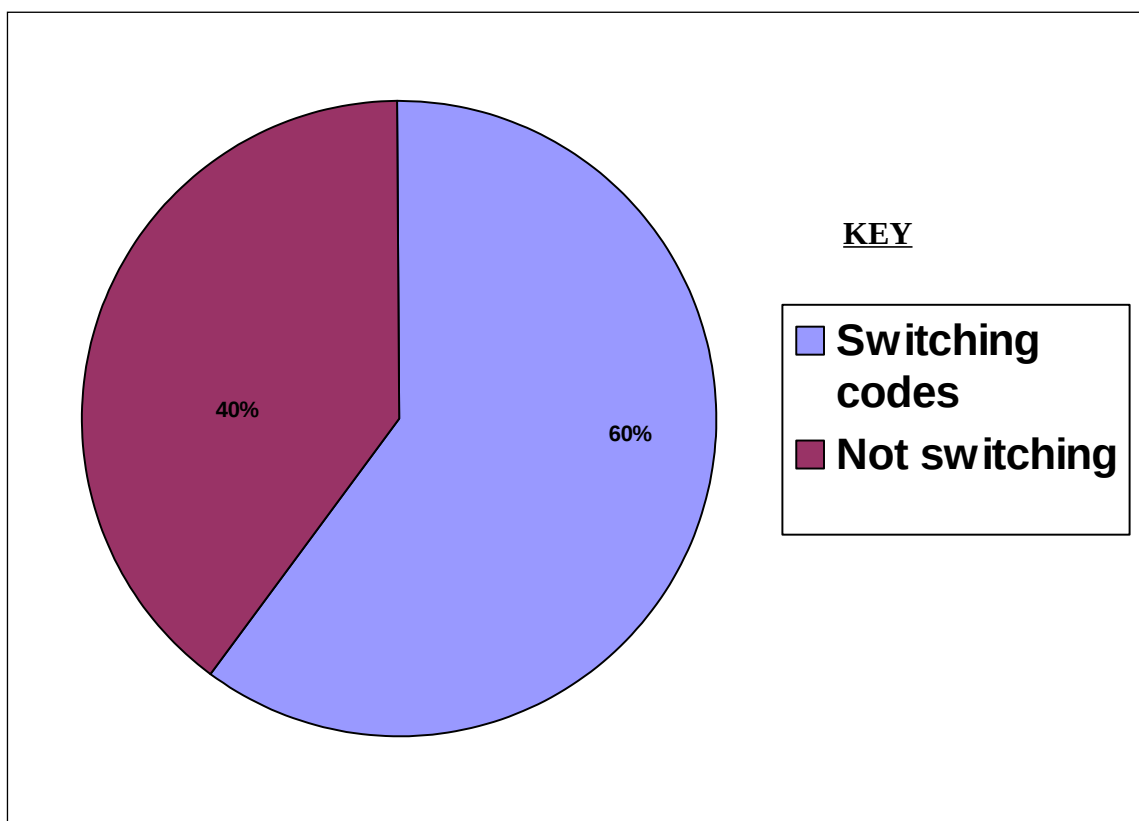


Figure 4: Teachers' Code Switching in Language Classroom.

An attempt was made to establish the relationship between knowledge on the number of languages and teachers' code switching in classroom as summarized in table 3. The

results established that those who had knowledge of at least three languages and were fluent in mother tongue, English, Kiswahili in that order, switched the most, while those with knowledge of two languages; English, Kiswahili in that order reported not switching at all.

The most notable explanation given by respondents as to why they switch was either to elaborate or clarify when teaching vocabulary and structures. Code switching can be seen by teachers as changing the learners' world view or perspective in order to understand and learn. One respondent reported switching to Sheng. This is plausibly to make the learning environment friendlier and reduce the social distance between the teacher and the learners.

The results on relationship between the number of languages known, and degree of fluency and code switching can help us establish one thing: that possibly the more fluent the teacher is in mother tongue as first language, the more likely that he will code switch in classroom. This shows that were it not for the heterogeneous of the learners, switching to the language they are fluent would be common. However, they switch mostly to Kiswahili in order to teach the vocabulary and structures.

Subsequently, question nine sought to establish whether in their opinion teachers code switching while teaching in classroom affects teaching of English as a second language. Of those surveyed, 60 percent agreed that switching to another language affect teaching of English, while 40 percent did not think so. This information is summarized in figure 5. This shows that as much as many teachers code switch, ironically they disapprove of it on the basis that it affects teachings of English.

.

NO. OF LANGUAGES KNOWN		ORDER OF FLUENCY	CODESWITCHING IN CLASSROOM	
A	3	English, Kiswahili, other		No
B	3	Mother tongue, English, Kiswahili, Sheng	Yes	
C	2	English, Kiswahili		No
D	3	Mother tongue, English, Kiswahili, Sheng	Yes	
E	3	Mother tongue, English, Kiswahili, Sheng	Yes	
Number of Respondents		5	3	2
Percentage		100	60	40

Table 3: The Relationship of the Number of Languages Known, the Order of Fluency and Code Switching In Classroom.

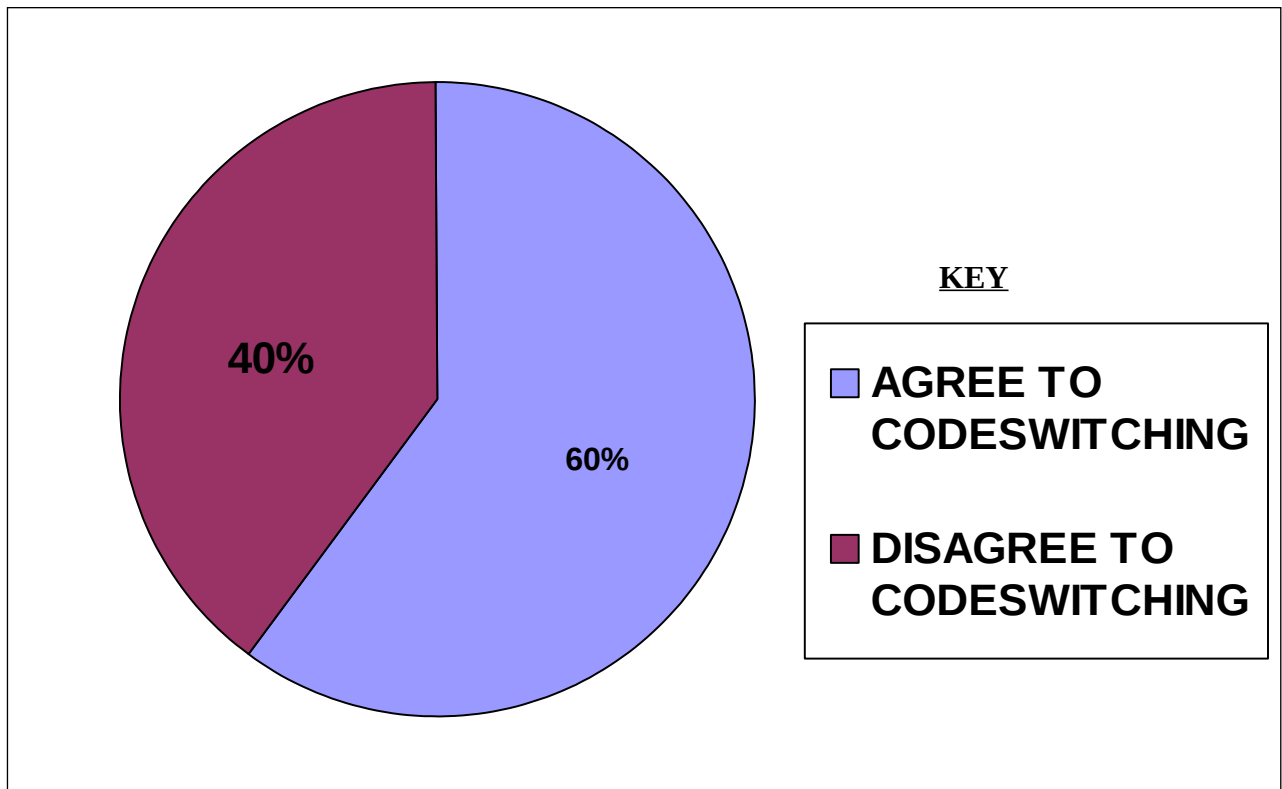


Figure 5: Teachers Opinion on Effects of Code Switching On English.

4.2.3 SUMMARY

This section has analyzed the results of both observation and tape recording and teacher questionnaire with regards to code switching and language and effects of English language teaching in classroom. The results from observation and tape recording showed that code switching does occur in classroom and affects English

language teaching. Teachers' results indicate they code switch in classroom especially to teach vocabulary and structures.

4.3 CODESWITCHING AND LANGUAGE DOMINANCE

Under this theme the results were presented based on the instruments used: Observation and tape recording and questionnaire.

4.3.1 RESULTS FROM OBSERVATION AND TAPE RECORDING

It was observed that code switching is spontaneous and unconscious in the classroom discourse. However, this depended on situations. Sometimes it takes a form of a long sentence (or conversation) and sometimes short sentence. It was found at the beginning of the sentence, in the middle or at the end of the sentence.

Extract 2

A: a) *si boats zinakuja ku? Ai.. na kupokota pia*

(I thought boats are coming to ...? And to be involved included too). *Kupokota* is a Sheng word meaning be included)

C: b) Imagine that *kwa room yaani*.... Implementing plans, *waelewa?*

(Imagine that in a room that is implementing plans, do you understand?)

A: c) So your measures..... how you should take *na* (and) the state of the boats .

Si (You will.....)

B: d) *Hii ni nini*.... *Hii* (what is this.... This, (gesturing)

C:e) *sasa* imagine *kwa room unampa* exams then.... (Now imagine in room you are giving out exams then...)

A: f) *Kuna meli hapa inakuja kuto watu na kupelek mahali* (there is a boat coming to rescue people and ferry them somewhere)

C: g) Make tactics, plans *haraka* immediately)

B: h) So *angalia tuendeki..... ata sija*-get time

(so look where we are heading to Even I have not got time)

A: i) *waacha ... soma* (No. stop read)

Notice that sometimes one language is used continuously uninterrupted in discourse. Kiswahili, English and Sheng are codes that are switched in the extract. In line (a) for instance the sentence starts with *si* which is some form of a style to mean ‘don’t you think’ or something close to that followed by a word in English ‘boats’ and what follows is accompanied with hesitation as the speaker tries to get the right term in Sheng - *kupokota* (meaning be included). This shows that in discourse, alternation between English and Kiswahili and by extent Sheng entails borrowing, using some style or using one code throughout. This trend was observed throughout the study in situations where code switching took place with Kiswahili as the most used language.

It can be noted that in the sentences in the extract, most of them, Kiswahili provides the matrix for embedding. In line (h) the Swahili pronoun I + negation ‘have not’ - *sija* –has the word ‘get’ embedded in it. This is referred to as code mixing. In the same sentence, the speaker uses the word *tuendiki* to mean ‘where we are going’. This is a Sheng word that borrows from the Swahili word *tuende* or *tunaenda* that has been restructured to conform to expectation of peer group.

From this extract we can infer that morphemes constituting certain words like:

Sijaget come from both languages Kiswahili and English. However, the constituent morphemes for words *kupokota* and *tuendeki* have Swahili morphemes and Sheng morphemes. It is important to point out here that little is known about sheng morphemes. The researcher only relied on side informer, previously a high school student. The sheng language found its way into the discourse perhaps for identity reasons, (social) or peer language that served some communicative need. The hesitation in line (a), *kupa? ai...* and subsequent utterance of the word *kupokota* indicates that the speaker was trying to look for a word to use in that circumstance though he could have chosen to use Kiswahili or English. He chooses to fill the gap with a sheng word.

When one of the speakers digresses, the other chooses to bring him back to context by resorting to a long uninterrupted sentence in Kiswahili.

It was observed that such narrative form in discourse served to simplify or drive the point home for the other speakers.

Where the students in the group use Kiswahili frequently, code switching becomes pronounced more. Sometimes sheng becomes equally used with Kiswahili, replacing English completely. What comes out is that in such a case, sheng /(English/Kiswahili) code switching is marked while Kiswahili is unmarked i.e. expected and unexpected respectively.

The extract below shows the shift in the choice of codes.

Extract 3

A: a) *Sasa andika Haa watu* you know..... *vijana* (now write down Those people ... you know... youth) (*haa* is a style or short form of Swahili word *hao* meaning those)

B: b) *Kuna wait, hata watoi haa....* Life *mazee* (there are ,...even babies they Life guys) (*watoi* is Sheng word for babies or young ones; singular *mtoi*, *mazee* is sheng for guys.

C: c) *Kuna mama wajaa wazito* (there are pregnant mothers)

A: d) *unachagua watu fake wee..... mazee na wenye wamezeeka?*

(You are selecting useless peopleguys and what about the old ones)

B: e) you know...

A: f) *Una waacha hao wenye wanajua kuogelea*

(you leave those who can swim)

B: g) *Na wenye wana Cheki??* Carry and those who have Check, let's carry).

From the above extract it can be noticed that Kiswahili or sheng is used more frequently than English. This presents opportunity for more code switching. Speakers tend to code switch more when they communicate in Kiswahili or sheng. It was observed that sheng is marked. It is difficult to pinpoint exactly how embedded language constituents come from since sheng is unstable code. However, it can be said to occur due to peer influence.

The first speaker starts the sentence in sheng and thus triggers the use of sheng and Kiswahili throughout the interaction. Plausibly, it can be said that the first

speaker creates or signals which code is accepted immediately he begins conversation. The rest will follow the cue. Perhaps we can say sheng, as a code here, is marked and conveys the message of how conversation should go on. In other words, it is a contextualizing cue that signifies social identity or solidarity in the group. That was not the case throughout. In some schools there was minimal code switching if any. In such situation, English /Kiswahili code switching was sparingly used. The extract below illustrates.

Extract 4

This conversation was tape recorded when the interaction had already began

A: a) Now let me tell you that thirty minutes... it will be possible for you to tie three boats when it begins ...? You just go on boat

D. b) But think.....

E: c) What if you call for....

B: d) No we start with women because they are at high risk

C: e) What about kids, children and the disabled?

D: f) Take the disabled *kwanza* (first)

A: g) No! How will you when the you know the time is running out.

E: h) Just sixty minutesthat means its one hour, one hour.

B: i) When ... Iam going write....

In the above extract, it was found out that English is the most frequently used language in the interaction but code switching is not common as found in other extracts/ interactions throughout the study where Kiswahili or sheng was used.

It can be observed that where the speakers use Kiswahili or sheng, there is more code switching than when the learner interaction is on English which is the second language.

4.3.2 RESULTS FROM TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

One of the objectives of the study was to investigate how code switching occurs and the dominant language in classroom. In order to do this, questions 10, 13, and 14 in the questionnaire were intended to obtain the teachers' opinions. Question 10 sought to handle the first part of objective two: how does code switching take place? Table 4 shows the respondents opinion on whether code switching takes place with less teacher-direct involvement in language where switching is free and unconscious.

Of the total respondents, 80 percent agreed that code switching is unconscious event among the learners when teachers are not involved directly, while 20 percent did not think so. The opinion on the occurrence of code switching is summarized in Table 5.

The results shows that while 60 percent may have given work which they found the students on their own code switching, 40 percent might have never taken interest in the classroom interactions.

Question 12 sought to establish the institutional policy of the schools surveyed, if there is any. The respondents were asked if they ever made their students aware of the need to use English.

OPINION	NO. OF RESPONSE	PERCENTAGE
Agree	4	80
Not sure	-	-
Disagree	1	20
Total	5	100

Table 4: Table Showing Teachers Opinion on Code Switching In Classroom with Less Teacher Direct Involvement.

OPINION	NO. OF RESPONSES	PERCENTAGES
Agree	3	60
Disagree	2	40
Total	5	100

Table 5: Teachers' Opinion on the Occurrence of Code Switching.

All the respondents were of the view that they always do so. This is in agreement with what most of them reported: that they too use English most of the time. Despite this, in practice code switching may be the case always.

Question 13 ascertained what the teachers think might be happening on the ground. This question sought to find out the language mostly used by the students outside the classroom apart from English. The results, as given in figure 6, showed that 40

percent of the respondents think that Kiswahili is the most used language outside classroom apart from English, while 20 percent think it is both Kiswahili and English combined and the rest 40 percent reported sheng is used. The results indicate that Kiswahili and sheng are two most used codes outside the classroom. This means English language is facing competition from Kiswahili and sheng.

Questions 14 sought to establish the teachers' opinion on students switching in a language classroom. Sixty percent of the teachers were of the view that students code switch in classroom while 40 percent said the students don't switch. This shows that a fairly large number, as shown in figure 7, are aware of code switching among the students in classroom.

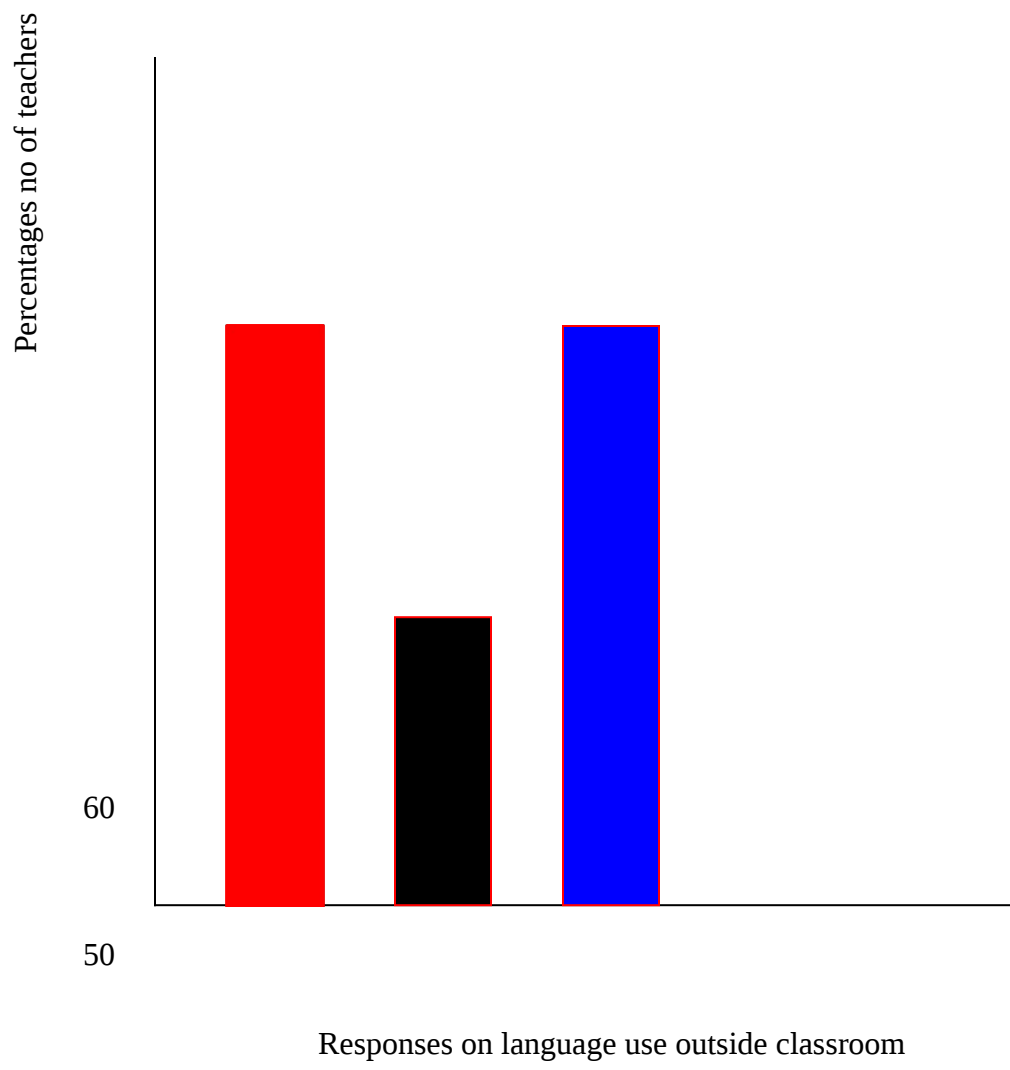
Asked to list down the languages used, majority of the respondents, 80 percent, gave Kiswahili and sheng while 20 percent reported sheng. This information is summarized in figure 8. The results indicate that the languages commonly used outside the classroom find their way into the classroom discourse. These are Kiswahili and sheng.

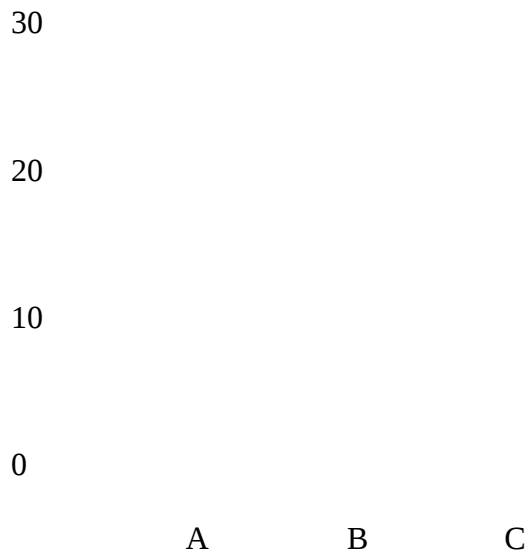
4.3.3 SUMMARY

The section analyzed the observation and tape recording results as well as teacher questionnaire with regards to code switching and language dominance.

The results indicate that sheng and Kiswahili are the dominant languages though not always the case. The speaker's circumstance usually determines this. Sheng as part of

code switching is marked. Questionnaire results indicate that a large percentage of teachers view Kiswahili as the dominant language in classroom.





KEY

- A. Kiswahili
- B. Kiswahili/English
- C. Sheng

Figure 6: Teachers Opinion on Languages Used Outside the Classroom Apart From English.

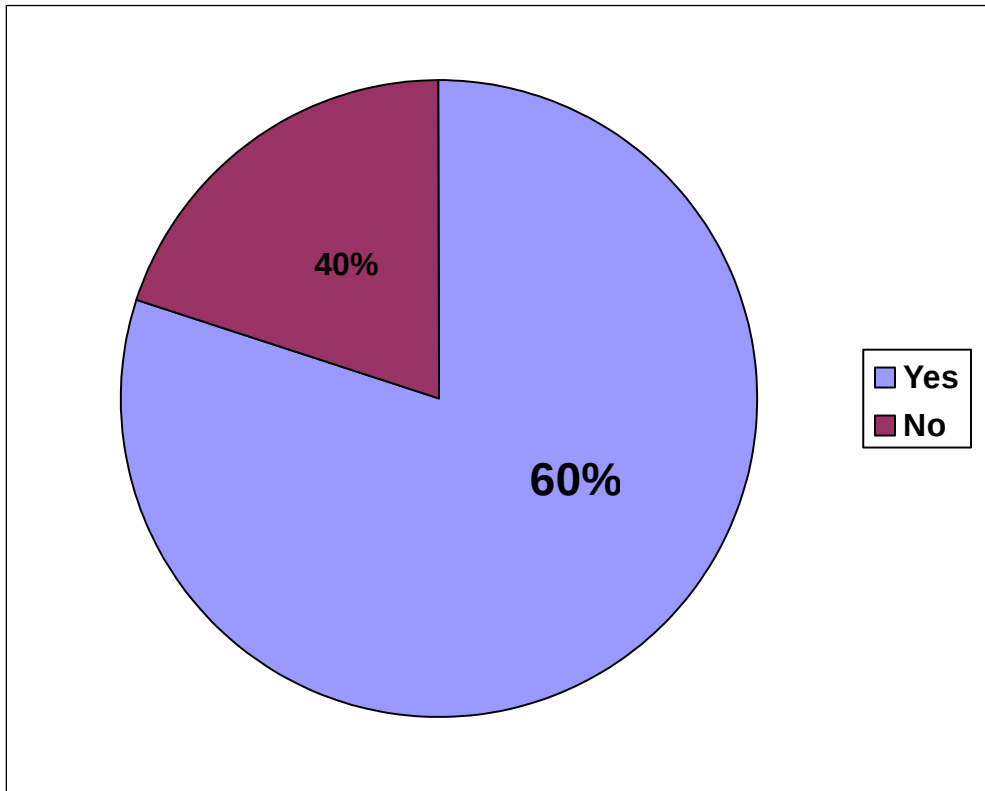


Figure 7: Teacher Response on Students' Code Switching In Language Classroom

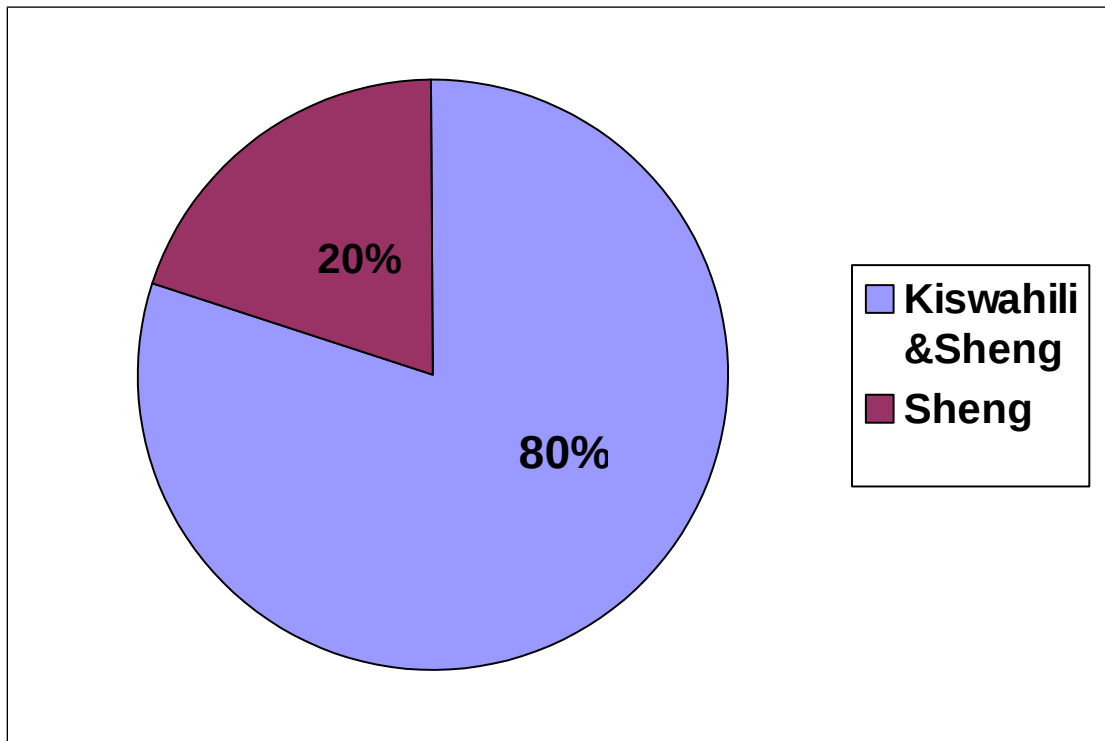


Figure 8: Teachers Response on Languages Used By the Students

4.4 CODESWITCHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH

Under this theme the results were presented based on the instruments used:

Observation and tape recording and questionnaire.

4.4.1 RESULTS FROM OBSERVATION AND TAPE RECORDING

This study was carried to investigate the extent to which code switching influence learning English as a second language. Observation revealed that the kind of code switching in which Kiswahili, and to a large extent sheng, dominated the classroom discourse serve to supplement the learners thought processes in the classroom. It was observed that the interaction later had to be written down in paper.

Code switching, as was observed, seems to occur as part of interlanguage. Interlanguage is the interaction of two (or more languages) developing simultaneously. In this case the code or languages are modified, simplified, restructured. The kind of sheng observed (see extract 3) can be seen as part of interlanguage. The word *tuendiki* which is partly Kiswahili that has been modified appears to have been unconscious effort used for the speaker's purpose.

When seen as interference, code switching can affect learning English a second language at various levels. At phonological level, intonation and speech sounds from Kiswahili appears to influence the sounds in English. The most notable sounds observed in the spoken English were /t/, /th/,/d/ that seemed to have acquired a certain style of pronunciation. It was further observed that when reading out the activity some learners adopted the stress and intonation of Kiswahili language without knowing.

Code switching may be said to present grammatical interference in terms of word order and pronouns. This was observed in the form of how the questions take.

For example, the sentence in extract 3: '*Hii nini...hii*' which when transcribed becomes: 'This is what This'. In essence, this is supposed to be, 'what is this?' as a question in English language. Other examples of this nature exist throughout the

study. This ranges from words, pronouns, to simple statements. For example, the word 'si' functions as a pronoun or as determiner + verb 'I thought'.

At the lexical level, code switching provides for borrowing of words from English language which are then converted to sound more natural in either Kiswahili or sheng. For example, the word 'check' in English has been borrowed and restructured to sound like Kiswahili by addition of the vowel at the end - 'cheki'-. The same can be said of the word 'fake' and others found throughout the study. The use of these words in English language may be construed to have the same meaning as used in Kiswahili /sheng which is not always the case.

In some instances, it was observed that the learners in the group switched to avoid certain words altogether or where the anticipated statement might appear ungrammatical. This was marked by hesitation or was explained using gestures. This was not the case in all the groups as those who dominated the interaction were fluent in whatever code used under the circumstances.

As the students were tape recorded, observation on language use was made. What was observed included asking and answering questions in English or Kiswahili; correct pronunciation of English words and to find out whether students were fluent whenever they used English language and use of gestures and other non verbal behaviour in self expression. The observation was then rated often, rare, or not at all as shown in table 5.

It was observed that students asked and answered questions in English /Kiswahili most often. It was further found out that correct pronunciation of English words were

rare. This could be because of the influence of Kiswahili language. The students often resort to gestures and other non verbal behaviour such as nodding when accepting or rejecting other's point of view.

4.4.2 RESULTS FROM TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE.

In order to determine the extent to which code switching influence learning English as a second language, question 11 to 15 were analyzed in relation to others in the questionnaire.

Question 11 sought to establish the teachers' views with regards to whether in their opinion, code switching influences pronunciation competence in spoken language. The teachers' opinions are summarized in table 7.

OBSERVED LANGUAGE USE	RATED		
	OFTEN	RARE	NOT AT ALL
Asking and answering questions in English/ Kiswahili	Yes		
Correct pronunciations of English words		Yes	
Use of gestures in self expression	Yes		

Table 6: Observation of Students' Language Use in Classroom.

Sixty percent (60) of the respondents believe that code switching affects pronunciation competence of spoken English. This view was reinforced by what was observed in the classroom where certain sounds in English were influenced by Kiswahili and sheng as discussed earlier. Forty percent (40) of the respondents did not think so.

As much as questions 13 and 14 sought to ascertain how code switching occurs and the dominant language, the same questions were also used to establish the extent to which code switching influence learning English as a second language. The reported results, by implication, showed that a large percentage, (60) believed that Kiswahili and Sheng, the languages used mostly outside the classroom setting, do find their way into the classroom and this affects English language learning.

A general opinion from the language teachers was sought using question 15; on what should be done to improve English learning with regards to code switching and effects from other languages. Different responses were obtained. One notable response was that, there should be consistency in the use of English by both the teachers and the students inside and outside the classroom. This view, however, depends on the schools policy. Others advocated for wide reading and class activities that favour the use of English language.

It should be noted here that majority of the teachers reported switching mainly to Kiswahili and this contradicts what they think should be done to improve English and shield it from the effects of other languages. Nonetheless, all agree that English has suffered influence from other languages mainly Kiswahili and sheng.

4.4.3 SUMMARY

This section analyzed the results based on the third objective / theme of code switching and language learning. The results from observation indicate code switching affects pronunciation, lexicon and orthographic presentation of learners. The results from the teacher questionnaire indicate that most teachers think that code

switching has an influence in learning English as a second language especially in terms of fluency.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has looked at the results of the study as were obtained using a combination of the following instruments: observation and tape recording and teacher questionnaire. Data analyses was done qualitatively and quantitatively based on the objectives of the study. This was done under three principal headings:

- a. Code switching and language used in classroom
- b. Code switching and language dominance
- c. Code switching and language learning
- d. The data from observation and tape recording, and teacher questionnaire were analyzed in line with the research objectives and hypotheses. Results from observation and tape recording indicate code switching takes place in language classroom. Both teacher questionnaire and tape recorded /transcribed data revealed that code switching does occur in classroom and serve various functions. Teacher questionnaire showed large percentage of teachers do code switch and this affects English language teaching

OPINION	NO. OF RESPONSE	PERCENTAGE
Agree	3	60
Disagree	2	40
Total	5	100

Table 7: Teachers Opinion on Influence of Code Switching On Pronunciation Competence

The tape recorded results indicate that in some circumstances one language is more dominant than the other. English, Kiswahili and sheng code switching forms the continuum of the languages being alternated. The dominance of one language, Kiswahili, though not always the case, is determined by the speakers. It was established that sheng as form of code switching is marked. The results of the teacher questionnaire indicate both Kiswahili and sheng as the dominant languages.

It was further observed that code switching affects attempts to teach English language in terms of pronunciation, lexicon and orthographic presentation. Teacher questionnaire results indicate that code switching affects learning English as a second language. Sheng and Kiswahili are the dominant languages that have an influence when learning English. The next chapter attempts to discuss these results, draws conclusions, and gives implications and recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results of data analysis, their implications and significance. This was done with reference to the research objectives and hypotheses. In retrospect, the literature review was considered with a view to comparing the results with earlier

findings by other researchers and drawing divergence from the same. Conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research were then made.

5.2 DISCUSSION

One of the main objectives of the study was *to investigate the effects of code switching in English language teaching in a language classroom*. This study's results indicated that teachers' perspectives on code switching may have something common with what was observed in the classroom. The interpretation of the results is two pronged- a view that has divided bilingual educators for a long time. Many teachers admit that code switching is useful communicative technique that can be used to teach English language. The questionnaire results indicate that 40 percent of teachers code switch while teaching grammatical structures and vocabulary. On the contrary, the same number did not support use of code switching during language classroom instruction. The first group's view was that, English language teaching can benefit from code switching. However, the second group's view was that code switching affects English language teaching and proposed that students should use English language both in and outside the classroom and across the curriculum.

One interesting thing that the teacher questionnaire results revealed was that there is a correlation between the teacher's background and code switching while teaching in classroom. Majority of the teachers with knowledge of at least three languages and admitted fluency in them (mother tongue, English and Kiswahili in that order) were found to code switch in a language classroom, while those fluent in English, Kiswahili and other, in that order, did not code switch at all.

This indicates that teachers who were most fluent in mother tongue as the first language code switch the most, while those fluent in the second language i.e. English, may not switch at all. It can be argued that teachers' code switching in classroom is countenanced by the fact that they have a rich language repertoire in which they are most fluent in mother tongue or the first language. It is not possible to establish whether the same happens with the students because the study did not reveal this.

According to Heredia and Brown (2007), there is more code switching when speakers communicate in their first language or the dominant language, and little or no code switching when they communicate in the second language. Drawing from this view, we can say there is more code switching when speakers are fluent in their first language or mother tongue and little or no code switching when they are fluent in second language.

On the other hand, observation from the English language lesson classrooms indicate that code switching is a tool for learning the language. In any activity given, the students switched mainly to Kiswahili and Sheng. It is plausible that the activity at hand made cognitive demands on the learners and they therefore switched unconsciously. In effect, code switching provided experiences for learners to interpret what was before them, and enable them understand the task at hand. This seems to be in line with what other scholars have said; that the first language can assist in learning second language (Kembo-Sure 2000, Cook 2002).

Kembo-Sure argued that mother tongue should be strengthened to provide a base for learning second language. Foley (2002: 99) pointed out that mother tongue is not

necessarily the most frequently used language in everyday life, but it is the language on which the speaker relies on for intuitive knowledge in terms of form, structure and meaning for bi/ multilinguals. Perhaps the question that can be asked here is: Do the Kenyan multilingual students use mother tongue or Kiswahili for complex cognitive reasoning when learning English as a second language? From the above arguments, we can infer that since Kiswahili is the language that brings together different ethnic groups, and in some instances a first language, it equally becomes a first language in a bilingual classroom.

If learning a language using first language provides experience for understanding of grammatical structures and vocabulary, as teachers put it, then code switching can have benefits in learning English as a second language. Only teachers should gauge and guard against its use or over use by coming up with appropriate institutional policies.

To this end, we can hypothesize that: *code switching is a common linguistic behaviour that affects English in a classroom learning environment involving both students and teachers.* The bi/multilingual nature of the interactants is not something that can be ignored but should be harnessed.

The second objective of the study was *to determine how code switching takes place and the dominant language in the classroom.*

Throughout the study, the results indicated that code switching is a spontaneous and unconscious linguistic behaviour where it occurred. This takes place either as a single word, a clause or sometimes as uninterrupted discourse. Kiswahili-English code switching in language classroom is 'unmarked'. According to Myers- Scotton,

Kiswahili/ English code switching is unmarked. In her words, the markedness model provides a basis for the speakers to know the consequences of making marked or unexpected choices. She argues thus; ‘the unmarked choice is ‘safer’ (i.e. it conveys no surprises because it indexes an expected interpersonal relationship) hence speakers generally make this choice’ (p.75). In the classroom language interaction, Kiswahili is unmarked or expected choice in the students’ interpersonal relationship.

It can be argued that Kiswahili and Sheng, as illustrated by the results, are the dominant codes in language classroom discourse. Heredia & Brown (2007) attributes code switching to language dominance. In their view, the language that is frequently used plays an important role in code switching. There is more code switching when speakers communicate in their first language or the dominant language and little or no code switching when they communicate in the second language. This is true of Kiswahili and English. It was observed that when students used Kiswahili, there was a lot of code switching as opposed to when they used English, which is a second language, as seen in Extracts 1 and 4. Equally there was more code switching whenever the learners used Sheng yet it is not their first language (Extract 3).

Sheng is unstable code and it is not clear why it becomes dominant, just like Kiswahili, in the students language interaction. It is plausible that it is dominance just as Kiswahili is because it is used mostly outside the classroom by the students. However, it is important to point out that, Sheng, as used in classroom interaction, is ‘marked’, or un expected choice. Myers-Scotton (1995: 132), points out that a marked code switching indicates arrange of emotions and negotiated outcomes. “The effect is to negotiate a change in the expected social distance holding between the participants

either increasing or decreasing it". Most teachers agreed that the language(s) used outside the classroom setting, a part from English, is Sheng and Kiswahili, and this influenced the discourse in the classroom. From the above arguments, we can infer that Sheng /Kiswahili-English code switching serves some negotiated outcomes. It is plausible that at some stage, the learners used this type of marked code switching to express annoyance at failure by others to comprehend the task at hand, or anger at failure to come up with tangible decisions.

Throughout the transcribed extracts used in the study, what triggered the switch in codes might be said to depend on the learners' perceptions and positions with regards to issues at hand. If one learner starts the interaction, as it was observed, with Kiswahili, others would stick to Kiswahili /English and when they switched to Sheng or English, they all switched. It is possible to infer that learners make expected or unexpected choice of codes depending on position, circumstances, emotions and perceptions.

To this end the results have indicated that Kiswahili/ English code switching is expected or the unmarked choice, while Sheng /English code switching is the expected or the marked. Myers-Scotton's view is that the unmarked type has one of the codes as the dominant language. However, the marked type in this case, as indicated by the results, has one of the dominant codes, sheng, which is an unstable code. It is important to note that Kiswahili is the matrix language in which morphemes from English and other languages (that form Sheng) are embedded.

It is possible to suggest here that where the dominant language provides a matrix the new code, though unstable, is equally dominant in the interaction, whether marked or unmarked.

To this extent, the discussions above showed that both Sheng and Kiswahili are arguably the two codes that dominate interactions outside the classroom settings and potentially find their way into the classroom discourse.

We can therefore hypothesize that *code switching takes place in a collaborative group language activity with the dominance of language(s) commonly used outside the classroom playing a bigger role.*

One other major objective of this study was *to find out the extent to which code switching influences learning English as second language.* As in the first objective, the study's results illustrated that this can be discussed from different points of view. Observation and tape recorded results indicate that code switching can influence learning English as a second language if seen as a part of interlanguage or interference. Interference occurred at various levels; at phonological, grammatical and lexical levels. At phonological level, it was observed that word-stress and intonation and other prosodic features took Swahili rhythm. Pronunciation of certain sounds had either been influenced by Kiswahili or had taken a style common in Sheng; lengthening of vowels unnecessarily or production of the dental sounds as alveolar. At the lexical level, results indicated extensive borrowing and restructuring of words from English to Kiswahili, for example, 'check' to *cheki*, etc.

At the grammatical level, the Swahili word order and questions formation have influenced the way they are used in English language. All these can be seen as part of interference within interlanguage. Tarone (1983) views code switching as a communicative strategy. In his view, code switching that is linguistically motivated often takes the form of avoidance strategy. In this case, 'the learner transports native words or experiences untranslated into the interlanguage utterance' (p.64). In such cases, it is motivated by language switch (an attempt to avoid difficult target language forms or one that has not been learned) or social situations (such as desire to fit in ones group or peers). Although, naturally, it is a strategy, the avoidance of the target form may spell failure to learn English as a second language.

Many teachers agreed with this point of view that, code switching can affect the pronunciation competence. Similarly, observation results indicated that learners made hesitations and code switched whenever they could not recall appropriate words in the target language. This shows that there is a possibility that learners may not become fluent in English language in the long run.

On the other hand, many scholars do not see code switching as a source of language interference, but a source of exposure, providing samples for learning second language. Skiba (1997), a proponent of this view, bases his argument in relation to language acquisition theories of Chomsky (1972: 1975: 1979) and Skinner (1957). Chomsky's theory postulates that language acquisition takes place as long as the brain is mature and one is exposed to appropriate language. He argues that human beings have innate abilities that enables them acquire language according to their particular culture. According to Rivers (1983), language learning depends on environment and

experience. On the contrary, the behaviorists, represented by Skinner, argued that language acquisition is a verbal behaviour which is dependent on rewards or reinforcement. A speech is reinforced by the providers or adults to obtain desired results. The two theories, according to Skiba, rely on exposure to appropriate samples of language. Code switching therefore, can provide appropriate samples for learning English a second language. From the above arguments, we can infer that learners in English second language classroom construct their world view using the deeper structures of the languages they have been exposed to. Most scholars agree with the view that the first language aids in learning the second language (Brumfit 1984, Ellis 1992, Brown 1996). Learning the second language using the first language is due to ignorance rather than interference (Richards 1996). It is possible to suggest that, code switching influences English language learning when seen as interference, but could be bilingual's source of exposure in learning it as a second language.

The above arguments partly seem to support the hypothesis that *code switching in everyday classroom interaction among students does not influence learning of English as second language.*

Whereas it is acknowledged that, partly it provides samples of exposure to a bilingual, we can hypothesize that *code switching in everyday classroom interaction among students influence learning of English as second language, positively or negatively, depending on environmental factors (exposure, motivation and institutional policy).*

It can be argued that to the extent the learners are exposed to the target language (English) and instructions is carried out in that target language, learning will be effective.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

From the study, several conclusions can be drawn. These are based on the teaching and learning of English language, the language use in and outside the classroom, and the influence of code switching on learning English as a second language. It was found that generally, code switching does affect English language teaching. Most teachers engage in code switching just as the students do, but they themselves disapprove of the students' code switching. Teachers who are knowledgeable in at least three languages and are fluent in their first language, other than English, do code switch the most, while those with two or less than three and are fluent in the second language, hardly code switch in classroom.

Bearing this in mind, perhaps code switching should only be used minimally, if at all, or in circumstances where it is thought to accrue more benefits than forcing the learners to speak English given the inevitability of switching codes.

For clear understanding or clear communication in classroom instruction, it seems the teachers hands are tied when they want to drive home the point; hence they resort to code switching. We can argue that, teaching a second language in a bilingual classroom raises questions about methodology, for example, the role of first language in second language learning. This, therefore, means that teachers should guard against the damage brought about by code switching.

On the language use in classroom, the study found out that Kiswahili and sheng are the dominant languages used in classroom language interaction.

English is increasingly becoming less used by the students in and outside the classroom, and is facing competition from Kiswahili and Sheng. Kenyan schools are becoming stable bilingual situations marked by widespread code switching. The two codes are used as aids in learning English and transmission of subject contents. However, it could not be established whether Kiswahili, as first language, or mother tongue plays any role in the cognitive processes of learning English language.

Besides, it could not be concluded as to whether Sheng provided a basis for cognitive processes of learning more than Kiswahili. Nonetheless, the two provided interference at various levels; in learning or acquiring English as second language, or simply acted as a communicative strategy. Code switching may be said to provide exposure to language samples and input in learning English as a second language.

5.4 IMPLICATIONS

This research presents various implications for bilingual educators and teachers. The issue of institutional policy with regard to staff attitude towards English across the curriculum should be of concern.

This survey contributes to the knowledge of how both the learners and the teachers' bilingual backgrounds, which are an important factor in this context, impinge on English language teaching and learning in a setting such as Kenya.

The study established that a large percentage of both teachers and students switch languages, and that though Kiswahili is the dominant language, Sheng is growing and is becoming normatively accepted. The implication here is that English is facing competition from Kiswahili and Sheng, at least at school level. What should be of concern is the school language policy fronted by the concerned teachers and what the future holds for the English language in question.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the foregoing analyses and discussions, the following recommendations can be made:

- Teachers must underscore the career prospects arising from competence in English language through enhanced school policy in order to guard against competitions and effects from other languages.
- Teachers should ensure high exposure of learners to English language early enough to promote proficiency and to curb negative effects of code switching.
- Teachers, as role models, should strive to use English all the time and minimize code switching, if necessary, in their interaction with students, both in and outside the classroom settings.

5.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In the study, a number of issues have been raised that require further investigations:

- Further research should be carried out to determine the effects of code switching on reading and writing.

- Investigation should be carried out to establish whether bi/multilingual learners rely on first language (L1) or mother tongue in cognitive processes when learning English as second language.
- Further research should be carried out to determine if the learners' knowledge of concepts through code switching is independent of knowledge of language.
- Research should be carried out to determine whether the learners code switching affects language proficiency.

REFERENCES

- Amato.R.P. (1996). Making it happen: interaction in the second language classroom, from theory and practice. Addison -Wesley publishing Co.
- Andendoff R. (1996). The functions of code switching among high school teachers and students in Kwazulu and implications for teacher education. In Chung H. (2006) *code switching as a communicative strategy*.

Bilingual Research journal 30. Retrieved on May 9,2007
from <http://brj.asu.edu/vol30/art3.html>.

Auer, P. (1984). Bilingual conversation.

In Nilep C. (2005) '*Code switching' in socio cultural linguistics.*

Research in linguistic vol.19 Boulder: University of Colorado. Retrieved on May, 9, 2007 from

http://www.colarado.edu/ling/CRIL/vol19 issue 1paper.a.html.

Barasa L.P. (1997). English language teaching in Kenyan secondary school:

Policy planning and practice. Unpublished Thesis.

University of Hull. In Omulando (2002). *The effect of Kiswahili on the use of English as a medium of instruction and Language in Kenyan Secondary Schools.* Unpublished Thesis. Moi University.

Barasa, L.P (2005). *English language teaching in Kenya : policy training and*

Practice'. Eldoret: Moi University Press.

Berko –Gleason, J. (1982), Language acquisition. In Brown D. (1996)' *Principles of language learning and teaching'*. San Francisco state University: Prentice Hall Regents.

- Blom & Gumperz, J. (1972). Social meaning in linguistic structures.
 In Myers- Scotton, (1995). *Social motivations for codeswitching: Evidence from Africa*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Bogdan & Bilken, S.K (1992) *Qualitative research for education, ' An introduction to theory and methods'*. Syracuse University. Alyn Bacon.
- Bosire M. (2006) *Hybrid languages 'The case of Sheng'* Albany. State university of New York Retrieved from <http://www.lingref.com/cpp/aca//36/paper1423.pdf.html>.
- Broughton & Mills (1993), *Teaching English as a foreign language*. London: University of London.
- Brown, D. (1996), *Principles of language learning and teaching*. San Francisco state University: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Brumfit, C. (1984), *Communicative methodology in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Brumfit, C. (1992), *Communicative language teaching methodology: Accuracy and fluency*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brumfit, C. (1992), *Communicative language teaching methodology: Accuracy and fluency*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1965), *Aspects of theory of syntax*, Cambridge Mass MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1972), *Language and mind*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. New York.

- Chomsky, N. (1975), *Reflections on language*. Pantheon: New York
- Chomsky, N. (1979) , *Language and Responsibility*. Pantheon: New York
- Chung,H.H.(2006). Codeswitching as a communicative strategy A case study of Korean-English. *Bilinguals Research Journal*,30.(p 1-17). Retrieved on May 9,2007 from <http://brj.asu.edu/vol30/art3.html>.
- Cleghorn A. (1992) *Primary level science in Kenya 'constructing meaning through English and indigenous languages, qualitative studies in education'*. Nairobi
- Cook, V. (1989), *Reciprocal Language teaching and language* Melbourne:.. Arnold/Hodder Headline Group
- Cook, V. (1993), *Linguistics and second language acquisition*. London: Macmillan Press.
- Cook, V. (2002). Portraits of the L2 user. Clevedon: Multilingual matters.
- Corder, S. P.(1981). Error analysis and inter language. London: oxford university Press.
- Croll, P (1986), *Systematic classroom observation*. London: The Falmer press.
- Crystal D. (1987). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of language* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Dulay & Burt (1974) Learning second language. In Brown. (1996). *Principles of Language Learning & Teaching (3rd Ed)*

San Francisco State University: Prentice Hall Regents.
(65 -66).

Duran, L (1994), Towards a Better Understanding of Codeswitching and Interlanguage in Bilinguality: Implications for Bilingual Instruction. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students V.14 p. 69 - 88*. Retrieved on March 12,2007 from www.ncela.gwu.edu

Ellis, R. (1985), *Understanding second language acquisition*.

Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Ellis & Tomlinson (1992), *Teaching secondary English: a guide to teaching of English as a second language*. London: Longman.

Edward A.D & Furlong V.J (1978).*The Language of Teaching meaning in classroom interaction* London: Heinemann.

Ferguson, C.A (1959). Diglossia.

In Webb & Kembo -Sure (2000) (Eds) *Introduction to languages and linguistics of Africa*. South Africa. O.U.P.

Foley, J and Thompson L, (2003) *Language learning 'A life long process'*.

London: Arnold.

Gardner- Chloros ,P. (1991). Language selection and switching in Strasbourg. Oxford : Oxford University Press. In Myers-Scotton (1995), *social motivation for code switching: Evidence from Africa* Oxford: Clarendon Press p(47).

Gorman, TP (1974) *The development of language policy in German E.A. 'language in Kenya' Ed.* (Whiteley O.U.P NB (397 - 453)

Green Baum, S. (1990), "*Just whose language are we speaking of here*"

'Reflection on the state of language,'

Ricks and Michael: Faber and Faber.

Grosjean, F (1982). *Life with two languages*. Cambridge, Harvard university

press. In Nilep. 2006. [http:](http://www.colorado.edu/ling/CRL-vol9)

www.colorado.edu/ling/CRL-vol9

Gumperz, J & Hymes D (eds) (1972) *Directions in social linguistics 'The ethnography of communication'*. New York: Rinehart and Winston.

Grice, H.P.(1975) *Logic and conversation* in Myers-Scotton, (1995). *Social motivation for code switching evidence from Africa* Oxford : O.U.P

Hekuta, K.(1990).Bilingualism and Bilingual Education: A Research Perspective. *NCBE Focus: occasional papers on Bilingual Education. Number 1*. Retrieved from [http: // www.nclela.gwu.edu/pubs/focus/html](http://www.nclela.gwu.edu/pubs/focus/html).

Heredia, R.R.,& Brown, J.M (2007). Codeswitching. *The Encyclopedia of Linguistics*. Chicago : Fitzroy Dearborn

Publishers. Retrieved on March 12 2007 from. Ling. Articles database. Hill J, & Hill, K .(1986). Speaking Mexicano

Tucson, Arizona: university of Arizona press. In Myers Scotton (1995), *social motivations for code switching: Evidence form Africa*. Oxford: Clarendon Press. (47 - 48).

Hill J, & Hill, K .(1986). Speaking Mexicano

Tucson, Arizona: university of Arizona press. In Myers Scotton (1995), *social motivations for code switching: Evidence form Africa*. Oxford: Clarendon Press. (47 - 48).

Holmes J. (1992), *Introduction to socio linguistics*. London: Longman.

Hymes (1972b), *On communicative competence*. In Myers-Scotton (1995) 'social motivation for code switching; evidence from Africa;'

London : Clarendon Press

Ingram, D. (1989). *First language acquisition: method, description and explanation*: Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, D.M. (1992). *Approaches to Research in second language learning* New York: Longman

Kamwangamalu N. (1989), *Code mixing and modernization*. World Englishes.

- Kasper & Faerch, (1983), *Strategies in communication*. New York: Longman.
- Kembo, J. (1997) Inferencing in second language. 'How far is language proficiency a factor?' Unpublished D.phil thesis. University of Reading.
- Kembo, J. (2000) Language in education and language learning in Africa. In Webb & Kembo -Sure (2000) (Eds) *Introduction to languages and linguistics of Africa*. (P 287-302) South Africa. O.U.P.
- Kembo-Sure, (1996). Language attitude use and proficiency 'A sociolinguistic study of English in Kenya'. Unpublished D. phil thesis. Moi University.
- Kramsh, C. (1998), *Language and culture*. Oxford: O.U.P
- Kramsh, C. (2002), *Language acquisition and language socialization: Ecological perspectives*. Oxford: O.U.P
- Kashen, S.D.(1981). Principles and practices in second language acquisition. Prentice_Hall, UK.
- Krashen, SD.(1995). *Bilingual Education and Second Language Acquisition Theory*. Engelwood Cliffs.NJ: Prentice Hall International.
- Labov, W.(1972). Sociolinguistics. In Myers-Scotton, (1995). *Social motivations for Code switching: Evidence from Africa*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Mazrui, A. (1995). Slang and code switching: A case of Sheng in Kenya. In Bosire (2006), *Hybrid languages*. Albany. Retrieved from

<http://www.lingref.com/cpp/acal//36/paper1423.pdf.html>.

McDonough, S.H (1995), *Strategy and skill in learning a foreign language*. London: Edward Arnold.

McLaughlin, B.(1985). Second language acquisition in childhood: Vol. 2 school age children. In Hakuta (1990) *Bilingualism & bilingual education: research perspective NCBE Focus: occasional papers on Bilingual Education. Number 1*. Retrieved from <http://www.nclela.gwu/edu/pubs/focus/html>.

Macswan, A.(1998). *A minimalist approach to intrasentential code switching*.
Garland publishing,NJ.

Moore, D.(2002).Case Study: Code switching.
International journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism vol.5,No.5.(280-290). Retrieved from yanmoore@aol.com.

Mukuria D. (1995) Kenya's language policy developments 'Kiswahili'
In Senanu & Williams (ed.) (1995) *creative use of language in Kenya*. Nairobi: JKF.

Muysken (2000) *Bilingual speech 'A typology of code mixing'*.
Cambridge uk: Cambridge University.

Myers-Scotton, C (1993b), *Dueling languages: Grammatical structures in code switching*. Oxford: O.U.P

Myers-Scotton, (1995) *Social motivations for code switching: Evidence from*

Africa. Oxford: O.U.P.

Nilep C. (2006) '*Code switching' in socio cultural linguistics*.

Research in linguistic vol.19 Boulder: University of Colorado. Retrieved on May, 9, 2007 from

<<http://www.colarado.edu/ling/CRL/vol19> *issue 1paper*>.

Numan, D & Carter, D.(2001) *Teaching English to speaks of other languages* Cambridge,UK: Cambridge university Press.

Ogechi, N. (2002), on language rights in Kenya. Moi University. Eldoret.

Nordic journal of African studies 1,2(3) : 277 -295' . Retrieved on

May 23rd 2007 from:<http://www.njas.helsinki.fi/vol.12.3.html>

Okoth Okombo, (2001) *Language policy ' The forgotten parameter in African*

development and governance strategies' Inaugural

lecture

University of Nairobi.

Omulando, C (2002). *The effect of Kiswahili on the use of English as a medium of instruction and language in Kenyan secondary schools'*

Un published Mphil Thesis. Eldoret. Moi University.

Opondo, O. and Ochieng, S. (2003). *Population and housing census of Kenya*. Nairobi, Kenya. Government printers.

Osinde, (1986). Sheng an investigation into social and cultural aspects of an evolving language. Unpublished MA Thesis. Nairobi: University of Nairobi

Peter, CB (1994), *A guide to academic writing* Zapf: Chancery. Eldoret.

Richards, J. & Rodgers, S. (1986). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge university press.

Rivers, W.M (1983), *Communicating naturally in second language: practice in language teaching*
Cambridge: OUP

Romaine S. (1995) *Bilingualism* (2nd ed) Oxford, England: Blackwell.

Scarcella R & Crookall D. (1990) *Simulation/gaming and language acquisition*. In Tompkins (1998) , *Role play/simulation*. *TESL Journal vol. Iv. No. 8 August 1998*. Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/articles.html>

Selinker, L. (1972), Interlanguage. In Corder S.P (1981) *Error analysis and interlanguage*. London : O.U.P

Sert, O. (2005), The functions of code switching in ELT classrooms.

The internet TESL journal vol. Xi.no.8 August 2005.

Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/article/sert-codeswitching.html>

Skiba, R. (1997), *Code switching as a countenance of language interference*.

The internet TESL journal 3,10. Retrieved from May 12, 2007 <http://ites//.org./Articles/Skiba-Code-switching.html>>

Skinner, B.F (1957), *Verbal Behaviour*.

New York: Appleton –century Crafts.

Stubbs, M (1992), *language schools and class*. Suffolk: Chaucer press Bungay.

Tarone (1983). *A closer look at some interlanguage terminology: framework for communication strategies*. In Faerch & Kasper (1983) 'strategies in interlanguage communication' Longman: New York.

Tompkins, P. (1998). Role play/simulation. *TESL Journal vol.iv.no.8 August 1998*. Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/articles.html>

Trudgill, D. (2000). *Socio linguistics: An introduction to language and society*.

London: Penguin Books.

Tuckman, B.W. (1978). *Conducting educational Research*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc.

Webb, V. & Kembo-Sure, E. (2000), *Introduction to languages and linguistics of Africa*. In African voices ed. South Africa: O.U.P.

Westaway, G. (1995). English language in Kenya: Development or decline. In Senanu & Williams (Ed) (1995), *Creative use of language in Kenya*. Nairobi: J.K.F.

Whiteley, W. (1974). Ed. *Language in Kenya*, Nairobi: O.U.P.

APPENDIX A

NOTES ON TRANSCRIPTION

A short pause is indicated by..

... Indicate a long pause

[] Indicate simultaneous alternation

?? Indicates doubt, unintelligible item

* Indicates ungrammaticality of the item

// Words in Swahili as well as those embedded in them or Sheng are italicized.

NB Transcriptions are done word for word that is with the corresponding English words. Meanings are explained in brackets.

APENDIX B

OBSERVATION AND EVENT RECORDING SCHEDULE

This schedule will be used to record student language in discourse in group work.

1. Name of the school _____

2. Status of the school a) Girls { }

b) Boys { }

c) Mixed { }

3. Context of lesson: Group work activity.

Recording Schedule

English	Kiswahili	Code switching	Specific language context

Observation schedule

Visible aspects of communication, verbal and non verbal shall be recorded by the researcher.

What to observe:

- a) Student non verbal behaviour and speech acts
- b) Students' interpersonal relations e.g.
 - Asking questions
 - Asking questions/ making decisions or judgments.
- c) Context of the word usage/ fluency
- d) Interest and self expression.

APENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Instructions

Below are questions about the language use in language classroom. Please assist by filling in the questionnaire as honestly as possible. Put a tick or comment in the space provided only your opinion will be of interest for to us.

1. School name:

2. Status of school:

a) Girls []

b) Boys []

c) Mixed []

3. Professional qualifications

a) Graduate []

b) Diploma []

c) Untrained []

d) Other (specify []

4. What subject (s) do you teach?

a)

b)

5. How many languages do you know?

a) English only []

b)English and Kiswahili []

c) English, Kiswahili and other []

10. Language learning with less teacher's direct involvement allows switching freely and unconsciously

- a) Strongly agree []
- b) Agree []
- d) Disagree []
- e) Strongly disagree []

11. Switching from one language to another affect the learners pronunciation competence in spoken English as second language

- a) Strongly agree []
- b) Agree []
- d) Disagree []
- e) Strongly disagree []

12. Do you at all as a subject teacher make them a aware of the need to use English?

- a) All the time []
- b) Some time []
- c) not at all []

13. In your school which is the language that is mostly used by the students outside the classroom setting?

- a) English []
- b) Kiswahili []
- c) Kiswahili and English
- c) English & Kiswahili []
- d) Other (specify) []

14. In classroom, do students ever switch to another language when learning in group activity apart from English?

a) Yes { }

b) No { }

If yes which language do students use most?

a) Kiswahili []

b) Kiswahili and Sheng []

a) Sheng []

b) Other (specify) [] _____

15. In your own view what should be done to improve learning English with regards to effect from other languages?

.....
.....
.....

APENDIX D

ACTIVITY 1:

Imagine the Minister for Education is coming to open the newly constructed school library in your school. Your group is the committee concerned with the reception of the guests. The committee is made up of different people both from within and outside the school community. Allocate yourselves roles and duties and discuss how you will carry out the reception.

APENDIX E

ACTIVITY 2

Imagine that one of the rivers has burst its banks. You're marooned by floods in what is now an island. The island will be submerged by the flood in the next 30-60 minutes and an escape plan must be implemented quickly.

There are make shift life boats to carry you to the higher grounds but a consensus has to be reached on who will go where with whom etc. Draw up plans to be implemented and make decision immediately bearing in mind the short time and the state of some boats which might be unworthy.

APENDIX G

RESEARCH PERMIT

PAGE 2

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss.....
HILLARY C.
SIELE

of (Address).....
MOI UNIVERSITY
P.O.BOX 3900 ELDORET

has been permitted to conduct research in.....

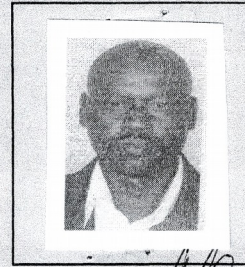
.....Location,
BURETI District,
RIFT VALLEY Province,

on the topic.....
EFFECTS OF CODE SWITCHING
ON ENGLISH ON ENGLISH LANGUAGE
TEACHING AND LEARNING IN KENYAN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS: A CASE OF
BURETI DISTRICT.

for a period ending.....
28TH FEBRUARY, 20 08

PAGE 3

Research Permit No.
MOST 13/001/37C 697
Date of issue.....
18.10.2007
Fee received.....
SHS.500.00



M.O. ONDIEKI

Applicant's Signature.....
Permanent Secretary
PERMANENT Ministry of
MINISTRY Science and Technology
TECHNOLOGY

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2)/four(4) bound copies of your final report for Kenyans and non-Kenyans respectively.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice



REPUBLIC OF KENYA
RESEARCH CLEARANCE
PERMIT