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ROLE OF CODE-SWITCHING IN TEACHING
AND LEARNING IN SELECTED SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN BOTSWANA

by

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DEDICATION

This piece of work is dedicated to my late father Royal Seitsiwe Mathula, the man who shaped my life and instilled in me the value of education.

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Embarking on a Ph. D is no easy task, and one would not know it until you find yourself swimming through the deep and dark waters in search of new knowledge. However, the main source of hope is one's supervisor who acts as the 'life-saver' through the long and arduous journey. Professor Vic N. Webb of the Department of Afrikaans' Centre for Research in the Politics of Language was my 'life-saver' and my immense gratitude goes to him. He guided me from the research proposal stage until the finalization of this thesis. His constructive criticism taught me how to apply my mind fully and to develop scholarly analysis that enabled me to critically interrogate my data in order to arrive at the conclusions of this thesis. Without his guidance, encouragement and advice I would not have been able to produce this piece of work. His professional assistance ensured that I remained focused on my goal.

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SUMMARY

This qual-quan case study investigated the role of code-switching (CS) in education in four senior secondary schools in Botswana. CS is a communicative strategy used in many places, including Botswana, during formal and informal social occasions. CS also occurs in education; however, its occurrence i**s** viewed as a somewhat problematical phenomenon – that it signals the speaker's lack of proficiency in the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT). The study also investigated if CS in the classroom contravenes the country's Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP), which states that English is the medium of instruction throughout the education system (Botswana Government White Paper No.2 of 1994).

The study found that CS occurrence in teaching and learning has positive and negative educational effects. However, its use has adverse implications for the LiEP of Botswana. Consequently, recommendations are made on the effective use of CS and on the revision of the LiEP.

The study is divided into nine chapters. Chapter One is the introduction and covers: Botswana's language situation, including the status of English generally and in education in particular, the statement and analysis of the problem, research questions and the importance of the study.

Chapter Two gives a comprehensive review of the literature on CS generally and CS in education in particular. The key words are: code-switching, code-mixing, borrowing, nonce-borrowing and re-borrowing / double-plural. Botswana's LiEP is also discussed with respect to language planning, education and educational development.

Chapter Three discusses the research design and the data-collection methods. These include: the research sites, sample selection and sampling procedures, data-collection instruments and their administration, and the independent and dependent variables used in data-collection. The importance of pre-testing the research instruments, ethical aspects observed and problems encountered during the data-collection stage are also highlighted. The role of the University of Pretoria's Statistics Department is also

explained. Hymes' mnemonic of SPEAKING used in the analysis of the qualitative data is also described.

Chapter Four presents the quantitative analysis of the respondents' demographic details, and highlighting the differences and similarities identified.

Chapters Five and Six present the results from the quantitative analysis of the teachers' and learners' data. The former presents the teachers' evaluation of the learners' language proficiency in class; the latter presents the learners' subjective self-evaluation of their own English proficiency and their evaluation of teachers' proficiency in English. Furthermore, both chapters respectively present the teachers and learners' views on the role of English, Setswana and other indigenous languages in education as LoLT, and their attitude towards CS in education. The significance or the non-significance of the analyzed results is also presented.

Chapter Seven presents the results from the qualitative analysis of the data (through the application of Hymes' mnemonic of SPEAKING) obtained through lesson observations.

Chapter Eight deals with the interpretation and discussion of the results through answering the main research questions.

Chapter Nine presents the study's summary, conclusions and recommendations on CS in the classroom and on Botswana's LiEP. The study's limitations and implications for further research are also discussed.

KEY TERMS

Code-switching

Intra-sentential code-switching

Inter-sentential code-switching

Tag-like / emblematic code-switching

Code-mixing

Nonce borrowing

Borrowing proper

Re-borrowing

Language shift

Language planning

Language policy

Language in education policy

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LIST OF GRAPHS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AG: Agree

A: Always

B: Boys

BG: Boys and Girls

Bio: Biology

C: Class

C/mates: Classmates

DA: Disagree

Eng: English

ES: English and Setswana

Exam: Examination

F: Female

F and F: Fashion and Fabric

Flu: Fluent

Frq: Frequency

G: Girls

HA: High Ability

HE: Home Economics

Hist: History

HL: Home Language

Ika: Ikalanga

Imp: Important

LA: Low Ability

L and L: Language and Literature

Lit: Little

Ln 1: Leaner One

Ln 2: Learner Two

M: Male

MA: Medium Ability

MF: Missing frequency

Mod. Flu: Moderately Fluent

Naa: Not at all

Not Imp: Not Important

NW: Not that Well

NS: Not Sure

Nv: Never

Ques: Question

RQ: Research Question

S: Sometimes

Sets: Setswana

S/mates: Schoolmates

T: Total (within tables)

T: Teacher (within transcriptions)

V Imp: Very Important

VW: Very Well

VM: Very Much

W: Well

LIST OF ACRONYMS

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

BGCSE: Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CM: Code-mixing (noun / verb)

CS: Code-switching (noun / verb)

EL: Embedded Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

F 4: Form Four

F 5: Form Five

HFFC: High Function Formal Context

HFIC: High Function Informal Context

HFLFC: High Function Less Formal Context

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LP: Language Planning

LPP: Language Planning and Policy

LiEP: Language in Education Policy

LiCCA: Language in contact and conflict in Africa

LFFC: Low Function Formal Context

LFIC: Low Function Informal Context

LoI: Language of Instruction

LoLT: Language of Learning and Teaching

LWC: Language of Wider Communication

ML: Matrix Language

MLF: Matrix Language Frame

MLP: Matrix Language Principle

MoE: Ministry of Education

MT: Mother Tongue

MTBE: Mother Tongue-Based Education

MTBBE: Mother Tongue-Based Bilingual Education

N: Nominal value

NCE: National Commission on Education

NCE 1: National Commission on Education (No. 1)

NCE 2: National Commission on Education (No. 2)

PanSALB: Pan South African Language Board

PSLE: Primary School Leaving Examinations

Qual-Quan: Qualitative-Quantitative analysis

ROS: Rights and Obligations Set

S 1: School One

S 2: School Two

S 3: School Three

S 4: School Four

SAALT: South African Association for Language Teachers

ToR: Terms of Reference

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

The following symbols were used in the transcriptions of lessons (and also in the extracts reproduced in the text) based on Arthur's conventions (2001, 59):

Te= teacher

Ln= learner

Lns= Learners in chorus

C= class

(   ) indicate unclear speech

[BLOCK CAPITALS] indicate comment on an act taking place during the lesson

{   } indicate overlapping speech

Learners' names have been deleted from the transcriptions

Normal sentence punctuation has been used as far as possible, for easy readability of the transcriptions to lay readers.

Commas have been used to indicate normal pauses in the speech; but long pauses or hesitations have been indicated with three full stops (…) or by word [silence]

Plain font has been used in the reproduction of the transcriptions in English in a lesson delivered in English and Setswana in a lesson delivered in Setswana.

Bold represents Setswana *code-switching* in an English text and English *code-switching* in a Setswana text.

Italics represent translations of Setswana into English.

Code-switching texts in English in a Setswana lesson are not translated into Setswana

There are no direct translations for the following frequently used Setswana tags, but are literally used to mean:

> ➢ 'Ga kere': 'you agree with me' or 'it is so'
> ➢ 'A re a utlwana' : do we understand each other
> ➢ 'A re mmogo' : are we together
> ➢ 'ke a utlwala sentle' : Am I well-understood
> ➢ 'mma' : polite form of address for females meaning 'madam'
> ➢ 'rra' : polite form of address for males meaning 'sir'
> ➢ 'ee' : short response meaning 'yes'
> ➢ 'nnyaa' : short response meaning 'no'
> ➢ 'eemm.' contracted form of 'ee mma'

- ➢ 'eerr.' contracted form of 'ee rra'
- ➢ 'ee?' used in the form of a question to solicit a response or to check if the learners agree with the teacher
- ➢ 'mm?' used to check if learners are following what the teacher is saying
- ➢ 'heh?' used to imply that one has not understood or to check if the learners are following what the teacher is saying; meaning depends on contextual use.
- ➢ 'aammh' used to provide a pause in the speech as the speaker still figures out what word to use or what to say.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

To better understand the occurrence of code-switching (CS) in Botswana classrooms, an awareness of the language situation in Botswana is imperative. Equally important is an understanding of the role of English in Botswana. According to Batibo and Smieja (2000), research has not yet established the exact number of languages in Botswana owing to the blurred distinction between a language and a dialect. Webb (2002: 72) made a similar observation on the linguistic profile of South Africa when he commented that it is difficult to be precise about the number and identity of languages of South Africa. Notwithstanding the above, it is generally agreed that Botswana has at least 25 languages, including English and Setswana (Webb & Kembo-Sure, 2000: 47; Molosiwa, 2006: 16; Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004). Batibo (2006) puts the figure at 28. The exact status of Setswana is debatable, as scholars do not agree on the precise proportion of the population of Setswana speakers who speak the language as their mother tongue, or use it only as a second language. For instance, Nyati-Ramahobo (2004: 31) states that Setswana is spoken by eight Tswana tribes that comprise 80% of the population. Other scholars put the figure at 78.6% (Batibo, 2006), or 90% (Webb & Kembo-Sure, 2000: 47). Molosiwa (2006: 17) adds another dimension by stating that Setswana is spoken by at least 80% of the population either as their mother tongue or as a second language. Despite these conflicting figures, all these scholars agree that Setswana is the most widely spoken language in the country, hence its status as the national language. Other languages (at least 23 of them) make up the remaining 21.4% of the population (Batibo, 2006).

English is the official language in Botswana and is used in the secondary domain cluster functioning as the language of education, government administration, the judiciary, science and technology, trade and industry, and the media. Setswana is the national language but has limited use in some of the secondary domain clusters such as education, government administration, the judiciary and the media. However, it still predominantly functions in primary domain clusters as a language spoken by family,

friends, in religion, in the local markets, domestic service, and in traditional social institutions. Other local languages such as Ikalanga, Shiyeyi, and Sekgalagadi to mention but a few function strictly within primary domain clusters.

Setswana was the first indigenous language to undergo status and corpus planning. To date, few indigenous languages, including Ikalanga and Shiyeyi, have undergone corpus planning, mainly by the efforts of some scholars but not by the efforts of government. The language issue in Botswana is beginning to receive much attention. Language activists are pressurizing the government to give all indigenous languages the same treatment as that of Setswana. The feeling among these scholars is that the government is deliberately stifling the development of these languages (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004). In the views of these language speakers, by not promoting their languages in the same way that Setswana is promoted, the government is denying them the right to use their languages in order to assimilate them into Setswana. They view the attitude of the government as treating language not as a right and a resource but as a problem. The proponents of this view were supported by the Government's rejection of Recommendation 18 (e) made by the second National Commission on Education (NCE 2) of 1993: 115 regarding the teaching of local languages in schools which stated that:

> Where parents request that other local languages be taught to their children, the school should make arrangements to teach them as a co-curricular activity.

The government's argument for the rejection of this recommendation was that there would be undue pressure on schools to offer the various languages spoken in the country as schools have no capacity to undertake this new task and the education system is unable to support such a development. In addition, it was contrary to the national language policy. The latter implies that the national language, Setswana, should be the only local language taught in schools with the objective of building a unified nation in which "… tribal groups will … take secondary place" (Carter & Morgan, quoted in Molosiwa, 2006: 23). In the spirit of the national language policy, nationhood takes precedence over ethnic identity.

Looking at the ethnic conflict in Africa, it is perhaps fair to say that the initial decision to promote nationhood over ethnicity was a wise one. Building a unified nation after independence was the greatest priority given that a number of African countries were ravaged by wars resulting from ethnic tensions after independence. These fears were not without reason. However, having succeeded in building a united nation that proudly calls itself the Batswana, whilst other ethnic groups had to accept being collectively identified as Batswana, it is perhaps time for the government to make some concessions and begin to show a willingness to recognize Botswana as a multilingual country and ethnic diversity as a right and a resource, and not a problem. Paying lip-service to the recognition of ethnic diversity without showing any tangible efforts to promote other languages will only exacerbate the problem. The general feeling among these ethnic groups is that their languages and cultures are being suppressed. Consequently, they are also indirectly being suppressed. Botswana is projected as a monolingual country while, in fact, it is not. In this regard it is way behind other countries such as Benin, Ghana, Guinea, Nigeria and Togo, which have promoted indigenous languages (Webb, 1995: 103). Even a young democracy like South Africa has made visible progress regarding the promotion of its indigenous languages by declaring that there are 11 official languages, including nine indigenous languages (Murray, 2002: 436; Webb, 1995: 77). In addition, the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB) is charged with the responsibility of promoting and creating conditions for the development and use of all the official languages, including the Khoi and San languages and the South African sign languages (Heugh, 2002: 462). Therefore, in Botswana, the issue should not be that other languages are not being developed because their speakers are numerically fewer than Setswana speakers, or that some Tswana groups taken individually are viewed as minority groups. Both arguments are weak; in fact, the arguments advanced by both sides (government and language activists) are wrong. All indigenous languages should be developed to enable their speakers not only to identify with them, express their cultures through them, but also to be able to eventually use them in high function, formal contexts. As Bamgbose (1991), Batibo (2004), Kamwangamalu (2004: 34 quoting Diop, 1999: 6-7) rightly noted, one cannot develop a people by using a foreign language. The same observation was made by Shope, Mazwai, and Makgoba (1999: xi in Kamwangamalu, 2004: 36).

1.1.1 The status of English in Botswana

English plays a prominent role in all spheres of life in Botswana (cf. para. 2 above). For instance, the Constitution of Botswana states in Sections 61 (d) and 79 (c) that it is a requirement that one should be functionally literate in English to be either a member of Parliament or a member of the House of Chiefs (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004: 52). This implies that both English and Setswana are languages of deliberation in both Houses. Notwithstanding this pronouncement, most members of both Houses continue to deliberate mainly in English because its use is viewed as a sign of high educational status. It is ironic that the latter group – the Chiefs -- are seen as the custodians of culture and language.

The government is the main and active promoter of English to such an extent that most of its business is conducted in English. For instance, communication with the general public is conducted in English. According to Nyati-Ramahobo (2004), a study was conducted in three government ministries, namely Agriculture, Commerce and Industry, and Health to find out in which language the government communicates with the public. The study revealed that, in the Ministry of Agriculture, 61% of the documents were written in English; in the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, 95% of the documents were in English; and in the Ministry of Health 42% of the documents were in English. This practice is not limited to these three ministries only. In fact, it is not uncommon for a government representative to address a large audience, comprising mainly of Batswana, in English with or without a Setswana interpreter, instead of the other way round. This occurs frequently during Independence Day celebrations, the day that the Batswana are supposed to assert their nationhood, but ironically the official programme is often largely conducted in English. In this regard, Batibo (2006) called for a paradigm shift and a radical change so that Setswana becomes functional at official events. He cautions that the tendency not to use the national language during official functions may render it to the mere symbolic status as opposed to a functional status (Batibo, 2006).

Similarly, English is the main language of the media (both public and private). A study conducted at the two government-owned radio stations revealed that RB2, the radio station that targets a youthful audience, broadcasts 70% of the time in English

(Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004). The situation is no better in the print media. The *Daily News*, which is the only government-owned newspaper, prints only two pages out of 24 pages in Setswana. Although no research known to the researcher has been conducted thus far of the government-owned television station, Btv, on the English / Setswana content of its programmes, from an ad hoc observation the situation is no better as most programmes appear to be presented largely in English. Other languages do not feature in the government audio, visual or print media. This is a source for worry because the government should lead by example. However, one government success story is the government-owned magazine, *Kutlwano* which, since its inception after the independence of Botswana, has always been published in both English and Setswana.

The situation is worse in the private sector where the only language of business and administration is English. Setswana is limited to spoken communication only. The private media is no different: of at least eight private local newspapers, only one used to disseminate news entirely in Setswana. This was the *Mokgosi* newspaper launched in 2003 that was unfortunately closed down towards the end of 2005 largely due to lack of advertising. One other newspaper, *Mmegi*, while it publishes mainly in English, used to have some articles printed in Setswana, and a column in Ikalanga, a local language. When the paper changed from a weekly one to a daily publication, Setswana disappeared from its pages, except for occasional announcements prepared by some government departments or parastatal organizations. Instead, a four-page supplement named *Naledi* in the paper is printed entirely in Setswana, while Ikalanga disappeared completely from the publication. This was an unfortunate step backward as this newspaper was viewed as promoting not only Setswana but at least one of the marginalized languages, as well. The only other private television station (the Gaborone Broadcasting Corporation) broadcasts entirely in English. Three privately owned radio stations – Gabs FM (for more mature audiences), Yarona FM and Duma FM (for more youthful audiences) - broadcast entirely in English with some instances of CS or CM as Tshinki (2002) and Ramando (2002) noted, even though they aim to reach a larger audience beyond the capital of Botswana -- Gaborone -- where they are all based.

The use of English is not only restricted to the secondary domain or to a language of communication with foreigners; it is now becoming a language of everyday use even

among the Batswana. This is especially the case in urban centres among the youth and the educated elite. This has resulted in *code-switching* especially in informal public places such as bars, taxi ranks, stadiums, and shops (Tshinki, 2002). In some homes, Setswana or other indigenous languages are not spoken, and English is the main medium of communication. The latter is interesting to note as some language activists advocate for the promotion of their languages through their introduction in schools, yet they fail to teach these languages to their children at home. They do not seem to realize that by promoting English as their home language, they are also contributing to the demise of their languages.

In Botswana, English has always and still continues to play a prominent role in education. When the country gained full independence in 1966, there was no clear policy on the Medium of Instruction (MoI), or the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT). Consequently, it was generally understood that English as the official language was also to be the LoLT, and Setswana was the LoLT at lower levels of primary school (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004; Molosiwa, 2006). It is against this background that the two languages gained their role in education and were used side by side at all levels of education rather than by official announcement. Although English was supposedly the LoLT at upper-primary school level, its use was more theoretical than practical. In reality, there was CS between English and Setswana in the classroom and this extended even to other indigenous languages in various parts of the country where Setswana was not the home language of the majority of the learners (Molosiwa, 2006). In that regard, Nyati-Ramahobo (2004: 43) noted that: "In practice teachers actually code switched between Setswana and English throughout the primary and secondary school level. … Practice further indicated that in the North East District, Ikalanga continued to be used as an informal medium of instruction".

It seems, however, that in both instances described above, what was viewed as CS between English and Setswana, or between English and Ikalanga, was in fact repetition of some parts of the lesson in Setswana or Ikalanga, or even the presentation of the entire lesson in either Setswana or Ikalanga in an effort to overcome the language barrier.

An effort was made in 1977, when the first National Commission on Education (NCE 1) of 1975 was appointed to review the education system in Botswana since

independence, observed that the status that English enjoyed in the education system as the only LoLT, with Setswana being denied the same status, was a serious error which did not auger well for national pride. The Commission (NCE 1) further observed that, "The introduction of English as a medium of instruction as early as Standard 3 … clearly discriminates against the national language …. The Commission feels strongly that every nation ought to give a prominent place to its language in its education system" (NCE 1, 1977: 76).

Consequently, the Commission recommended that Setswana be the LoLT during the first four years of primary education. However, this decision regarding the use of Setswana in education was short lived as it was reversed by the second National Commission on Education (NCE 2) of 1993. The NCE 2 was mandated to undertake a comprehensive review of the education system and to develop a system that would enable the country to better meet the demands and challenges of the 21st century (NCE 2, 1993: i, 1). The Commission recommended in Recommendation No. 18a (NCE 2, 1993: 114) that, "… English should be used as the medium of instruction from Standard One by 2000".

In the Commission's view, the use of Setswana in the early years of children's education delayed their acquisition of English as the language they needed for their entire education and training, and eventually in the vocational field; and that their lack of fluency and competence in English was due to the late introduction of English as the LoLT. The government adopted the recommendation with the modification that English shall be the official LoLT from the second year of schooling and throughout the entire education system (Botswana Government White Paper on Revised National Policy on Education, 1994); and this immediately became official policy. The logic was that the first year of primary schooling would allow learners whose home language was not Setswana to learn Setswana first. Thereafter, all learners would be taught in English. The result was the demise of the role of Setswana in education, apart from being taught as a subject, whilst English again took centre stage as the LoLT and enjoys the greatest prominence in the education system in Botswana.

To date English is still the official language and the LoLT from primary to tertiary levels. Setswana is the national language with limited use in administration, the

judiciary and the legislature; and it is only taught as a subject in primary and secondary schools from the second year of primary education (Magogwe, 2005; Molosiwa, 2006). The situation is even grimmer at the University of Botswana where Setswana is taught in English. Despite the official exclusion of Setswana as a LoLT in schools, its use has not disappeared. In fact, as other studies have shown, Setswana is prevalent in Botswana classrooms (Arthur, 2001; Letsebe, 2002; Nyati-Ramahobo; 2004; Magogwe, 2005; Molosiwa; 2006). Magogwe (2005: 1) states that many Botswana students across all the levels of education are not proficient in the English language. It is against this background that the current study will discuss the phenomenon of CS in Botswana classrooms from both the points of view of educational and language development.

1.2 THE PROBLEM AND ITS STATEMENT

1.2.1 The statement of the problem

Code-switching is an accepted phenomenon in the speech of bilinguals and multilinguals in Botswana and has been accepted as a normal occurrence in utterances made during social occasions, both formal and informal. However, it has not gained the same recognition in educational settings despite its common occurrence. Teachers and students at high school as well as lecturers and their students at university levels often code switch from English – the LoLT -- to Setswana – the national language. (This observation is based on the researcher's experience as a lecturer in Communication and Study Skills at the University of Botswana and as a teaching-practice supervisor in secondary schools).

Code-switching in schools is, however, a somewhat problematic phenomenon. It appears, for instance, that from a theoretical perspective, the use of CS in educational settings in Botswana may not be cases of CS. From a general perspective, CS socially functions symbolically, thereby signalling speakers' social identity (or some feature of identity that a speaker may wish to convey) and speakers' perception of the conversational context in which they are operating. Code-switching does not function as a means of conveying objective information. In schools, however, it appears that

CS is used more to repeat information than to convey objective information. A teacher may, for instance, say:

- Do you understand? *A lo a tlhaloganya?*
- The assignment is due tomorrow. *Tiro e tlisiwe ka moso.*

In both examples, what the teacher says is exactly the same thing in two different languages with no new information being given in the language to which he / she switches. The teacher thus translates the English sentence into Setswana to ensure that the learners understand and can follow the lesson, instead of conveying social information.

The issues in this case are as follows:
- Is the phenomenon that occurs in Botswana classrooms really code-switching?
- Does it serve any useful purpose?
- Is it didactically justifiable?

A second problematic issue is that it appears that CS in educational settings in Botswana takes place in violation of the Botswana Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP), which states that English is the LoLT throughout the education system (NCE 2, 1993). Again the questions are:

- Does the use of CS not demonstrate the lack of proficiency in English by both the learners and their facilitators?
- Does it not prevent the educational system from functioning efficiently?
- Is it not possible for teachers to use the time more profitably by instructing the learners in the language that the learners best understand, that is, Setswana?

There are clearly a number of matters that need careful investigation regarding the role of CS in teaching and learning in the secondary schools in Botswana.

1.2.2 Problem analysis

The topic of this dissertation can be described in terms of several sub-problems. These are:

- The first sub-problem: Not enough is known about the didactic value of CS in educational settings.

- The second sub-problem: The occurrence of CS in a classroom situation suggests a lack of proficiency in English as a Second Language (ESL) among the learners and maybe also their teachers, and it is therefore problematic as a LoLT.

- The third sub-problem: CS from English to Setswana in a classroom situation may be discriminatory against non-Setswana speakers.

- The fourth sub-problem: The use of CS in the teaching and learning situation seems to be in conflict with Botswana's Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP).

- The fifth sub-problem: The current LiEP of Botswana promotes English at the expense of Setswana and does not promote knowledge acquisition and skills development.

- The sixth sub-problem: The use of CS in a classroom situation may waste instruction time and slow down the pace of content delivery and learning.

1.3 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Given the preceding list of sub-problems, the following research questions will be asked in the proposed research:

1.3.1 What are the defining characteristics of the phenomenon of CS?
1.3.2 To what extent is CS used in educational settings in Botswana?
1.3.3 Can the phenomenon in the classrooms in Botswana be called CS?

1.3.4 What are the didactic consequences of CS in the schools? Is CS educationally beneficial? Does the use of CS in a classroom situation slow down the pace of teaching and learning to an extent that it is detrimental to content coverage within the prescribed time?

1.3.5 Is the practice of CS from English to Setswana in a classroom situation discriminatory to non-Setswana speakers?

1.3.6 Does the use of CS in a classroom situation violate Botswana's LiEP? Is the LiEP consistent with the practical realities of the classroom situation? If this were to be the case, should the LiEP not be revised to ensure that the LoLT promotes maximum delivery and acquisition of knowledge and skills development?

1.3.7 Does the current LiEP promote negative perceptions about Setswana and other local languages?

1.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Although there are several studies which deal with CS in educational settings (Adendorff, 1993; Moyo, 1996; Hussein, 1999; Moodley, 2001; Martin-Jones & Saxena, 2001; Arthur, 2001; Akindele & Letsoela, 2001; Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004; and Letsebe, 2002), not enough attention has been given to the topic from specifically a didactic point of view -- its nature in teaching and learning situations and whether or not it is of any didactic value. In Botswana, for example, no comprehensive study known to the researcher has investigated why CS takes place, and what effect it has on education at senior secondary school level. This study proposes to investigate this question. In addition, the study seeks to do the following:

- establish if CS occurs in teaching and learning due to the lack of proficiency in the LoLT by both the learners and their facilitators at secondary school level;

- investigate to what extent the current LiEP in Botswana is being properly implemented, whether English is a more effective LoLT and whether CS occurs in the classroom as a result of poor implementation of the LiEP -- thus meaning that the use of English as a LoLT is ineffective (Arthur, 2001).

- establish whether the LiEP promotes educational development, which is important for the self-esteem and the self-confidence of the learners; and

- to determine whether the phenomenon that takes place in the classrooms of Botswana can be rightly referred to as CS as universally defined.

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study is divided into nine chapters, as follows:

Chapter One is the introductory part of the study and covers the background information about the research topic. The chapter includes also the description of the problem and its setting (the statement of the problem), the analysis of the problem, research questions, the importance of the study, and how the study is organized.

Chapter Two gives a comprehensive review of the literature on CS in general, and CS particularly in education. It is from this review that the theoretical framework that informed this study was conceptualized. The review also included literature on language planning, language policy and the current LiEP in Botswana that came into effect in 1994 (Government White Paper on Revised National Policy on Education, 1994: 59).

Chapter Three discusses the research design as well as the methods that were used for data collection, including preparations that were made in readiness for statistical analysis of the data. Hymes' mnemonic of SPEAKING (Hymes, 1974), which is used as the framework in the analysis of the qualitative data collected through lesson observations, is also described.

Chapter Four presents an explanation of the statistical analysis of the data. Then the quantitative analysis of the respondents' (teachers and learners) demographic details is presented. Then the differences and similarities between the data of the teachers and those of the learners are highlighted.

Chapter Five deals with the presentation and analysis of the quantitative data obtained from the teachers. The results are presented according to their statistical significance or non-significance.

Chapter Six presents the results from the quantitative analysis of the learners' data. Like the teachers' data, the learners' responses are also presented according to their statistical significance or non-significance whilst taking into account the effect size because of the size of the learners' sample.

Chapter Seven presents the results of the qualitative data collected through lesson observations and then analyzed by the application of Hymes' mnemonic of SPEAKING.

Chapter Eight deals with the interpretation and discussion of the results. Both the quantitative (Chapters Five and Six) and the qualitative data (Chapter Seven) are used to answer the research questions. This is done to determine if the results obtained via the two data-collection methods are in harmony with or contradictory to each other. The literature reviewed in Chapter Two is used as the basis or framework for the analysis of the results obtained. Within the conceptual framework set out in Chapter Two, the main topic of the study, namely *The role of CS in teaching and learning in selected senior secondary schools in Botswana* is discussed with respect to the responses to the research questions. The LiEP of Botswana, in relation to the phenomenon of CS, is also discussed.

Chapter Nine presents a summary of the study, conclusions and the recommendations in relation to CS in the classroom and the LiEP of Botswana. The chapter is concluded in the form of a discussion of the limitations of the study, and implications for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will cover the theoretical framework within which this study will be conducted. It includes the review of related literature that will inform the study. Because this study is two-fold as it covers CS in the classroom and its effect on teaching and learning, as well as the implications that it has on the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) in Botswana, the following aspects will be discussed. An historical overview of CS research; the definition of key concepts; a review of some major studies in CS in general; some studies on CS in teaching and learning in particular; and the social functions of CS. Furthermore, the review will also cover the LiEP of Botswana, which will reveal the status of English in the education system in relation to Setswana as a national language, as well as to other local languages. The LiEP will be discussed within the framework of language planning; the functions of language in human communication; and its role in education and educational development.

2.2 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF CS

CS as a speech phenomenon initially did not receive much attention from researchers on bilingualism. It was merely regarded as interference in the speech of bilinguals (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 47). The earliest known study on CS was based on Spanish-English CS and carried out in the United States by Espinosa in 1917 (in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 257). This study concluded that "… there was no rationale for code-switching, and that code-switching was just a random mixture of the languages available to a bilingual speaker" (Kamwangamalu, 1999: 250). Espinosa's claim received wide support over a long period of time, and continued to be ignored by researchers. Even four decades later, researchers on bilingualism -- such as Haugen (1950: 211, and Weinreich, 1953: 50, in Milroy & Muysken, 1995: 8), continued to share Espinosa's view on CS, and respectively wrote:

"… except in abnormal cases speakers have not been observed to draw freely

from languages at once. They may switch rapidly from one to the other, but at a

given moment they are speaking only one, even when they resort to the other for

instance. The introduction of elements from one language into the other means …

an alteration of the second language, not a mixture of the two".

<div align="right">Haugen (1950: 211, in Milroy & Muysken, 1995)</div>

"… a bilingual's speech may suffer the interference of another vocabulary …, that

is, the limitations on the distribution of certain words to utterances belonging to

one language is violated. In affective speech, when the speaker's attention is

almost completely diverted from the form of the message to its topic, the transfer

of words is particularly common".

<div align="right">Weinreich (1953: 50, in Milroy and Muysken, 1995: 8)</div>

Researchers did not believe that CS existed, and simply regarded it as an interference phenomenon, the use of which demonstrated that the speaker was an imperfect bilingual who could not conduct a conversation perfectly in the language that was being used at that moment (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 47-48). Lance (1975, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 257), also studying Spanish-English CS in the United States upheld Espinosa's view and maintained that, "… bilinguals engage in CS because there are no restrictions as to what they can or cannot mix in their speech". However, this myth has since been dispelled by successive researchers on CS and it is widely agreed that CS occurrence is not random, but it is governed by linguistic and extra-linguistic factors (Gumperz, 1982; Kachru, 1983, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 257). *Linguistic factors* refer to the bilingual speaker and the languages at his / her disposal. These could be his / her attitude towards the codes available to him / her (Agheyisi, 1977, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 257), the use of CS as interjections, hesitation, false starts to mark the discourse (Clyne, 1980, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 257), and the bilingual speaker's level of competence in each of the codes he / she uses (Kachru, 1986, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 257). *Extra-linguistic factors* include the participants in the conversational exchange, the setting, what they are talking about and why they are engaging in the speech interaction (Kamwangamalu, (Kamwangamalu, 1999: 258). Therefore, CS is used to serve various communicative needs, later discussed under social functions of CS (cf. 2.4).

Furthermore, the *extra-linguistic factors* are based on Blom and Gumperz's notions of situational CS or metaphorical CS to describe types of CS in the interactional approach (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986: 409). The former (situational switching) involves change in participants in the conversation or the strategies they use, or both, triggered by factors external to the speaker's own motivations. These may be the makeup of participants in the conversation, the topic of discussion, and where the speech interaction is taking place (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 52). The latter (metaphorical switching) involves only a change in the emphasis of the topic (Gumperz and Hymes, 1986: 409). Further, metaphorical CS relates to particular kinds of topic or subject matters discussed by the same participants in the same setting (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986). Myers-Scotton (1993a: 52) adds that metaphorical CS does not necessarily refer to CS that takes place owing to a change in topic alone, but also to the self-presentation of the speaker in relation to the topic being discussed or to changes in relationship to other speakers partaking in the speech interaction. Therefore, in metaphorical CS, the participants remain the same but the switch from one language to the other depends on what the participants are talking about (topic or subject matter), as well as how they perceive one another in relation to the topic under discussion.

Although this approach has been criticized by scholars such as Auer (1984), Scotton (1983a: 119; 1983b: 121, in Myers-Scotton, 1993a), and Pride (1979, in Myers-Scotton, 1993a) for its lack of clarity in defining the two notions (situational switching and metaphorical switching) as well as differentiating between strategies and topical emphasis (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 52), it nonetheless laid a foundation for CS research. It positively influenced other sociolinguistic researchers to acknowledge that "CS does not demonstrate lack of fluency in any of the languages involved (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 74). The Markedness Model (MM) (discussed in the next section) of Myers-Scotton (1988, in Myers-Scotton, 1993a), based on the interactional approach, was influenced by the two notions of situational and metaphorical CS. In the interactional approach, CS is viewed as a contextualization cue, meaning the following:

> "It [code-switching] signals contextual information equivalent to what in monolingual settings is conveyed through prosody or other syntactic or lexical processes. It generates the presuppositions in terms of which the content of what is said is decoded".

This implies that in the interactional approach, CS is one of the discourse strategies that bilingual and multilingual speakers can employ to perform different social functions such as to negotiate, challenge, or change different conversational situations (Kieswetter, 1995: 2). It is a dynamic conversational strategy that constantly changes according to the participants, the situation, the context and the intentions of the speakers (Kieswetter, 1995: 6) that speakers can employ to meet a number of identifiable communicative needs such as to express confidentiality (Gumperz, 1982, in Kamwangamalu, 2000: 60; Kieswetter, 1995; Tshinki, 2002), in-group membership or solidarity (Kieswetter, 1995; Moodley, 2001; Tshinki, 2002) and modernization (Kamwangamalu, 1992, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 258; Kieswetter, 1995; Tshinki, 2002).

Scholars now agree that CS is a common phenomenon in the speech of bilingual and multilingual speakers in many places, and that it 'does not indicate lack of competence on the part of the speaker in any of the languages concerned, but results from complex bilingual skills' (Auer, 1984: 1; Kieswetter, 1995; Milroy & Muysken, 1995; Myers-Scotton, 1993a). They further argue that although some people may view CS as a product of language shift -- defined by Kembo-Sure and Webb (2000: 113) as a process whereby members of a speech community abandon the use of one language for certain functions and adopt the other), CS can also be part of the daily lives of many 'stable' bilingual populations (Kieswetter, 1995; Myers-Scotton, 1993a). The following examples (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 1) illustrate the use of CS by speakers fluent in both languages:

- Bilinguals of Hispanic origin in Texas who may switch between Spanish and English in informal in-group conversations;
- Senegalese bilinguals who may switch between Wolof and French;
- Swiss bilinguals who may switch between Swiss German and French;
- a physician of Punjabi-origin in England who may switch between Punjabi and English;
- a businessman of Lebanese-origin in Michigan who may switch between his home language and English; and

- a corporate executive of Chinese-origin in Singapore who may switch between his first language and English.

These examples indicate that CS is a national and international phenomenon that occurs in the speech of bilingual and multilingual speakers, and that it cuts across social, racial, age and professional spectra. Further, as long as the speakers share the same linguistic repertoire, they may engage in CS whether discussing social or professional matters. Since the speakers in each case have a good command of both languages that they are employing, they move freely between them in their speech.

Most of the researchers on CS in Africa treated CS as a social phenomenon and focused mainly on its pragmatic and syntactic aspects (Kamwangamalu 1999: 257; 2000: 59). As a result, many of their studies will a have limited effect on the present study because its main focus is on the didactic significance of CS in the classroom. However, three models (each discussed below) namely the Markedness Model (MM) of Myers-Scotton (Kamwangamalu, 2000; Mandubu, 1999; Myers-Scotton, 1993a), the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) of Myers-Scotton (Myers-Scotton, 1995: 235, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 268) and the Matrix Language Principle (MLP) of Kamwangamalu (1990, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 268) are a result of CS research in Africa and will form the theoretical framework of the current study owing to their interactional nature.

2.2.1 The Markedness Model (MM)

The MM claims that all linguistic choices, including CS, are indications of the social negotiation of rights and obligations that exist between participants in a conversational exchange (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Mandubu, 1999: 8; Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 75). This implies that a linguistic choice made for a conversational exchange is determined by what is prominent about the situational exchange. This could be the status of the participants in the conversational exchange, the topic they are discussing, or even the place in which the conversational exchange is taking place (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61). It is the combined effect of the situational features as well as the individual speaker's considerations that determine the type of linguistic choice that is regarded as appropriate for a given conversational situation or topic.

The MM allows CS to perform three main functions, namely CS as an unmarked choice, a marked choice and an exploratory choice (Kamwangamalu, 2000; Mandubu, 1999; Myers-Scotton, 1993a). First, when CS is an unmarked choice in a given conversational situation, it is the expected choice. It is employed as a communicative strategy in a given linguistic exchange so as to serve a particular communicative function, usually that of inclusion. There are two sub-types that fall under this category of CS – CS as a sequence of unmarked choices or CS as an unmarked choice. The former occurs as a result of a change in the situational factors during a conversational exchange. In the latter, situational factors hardly change during a conversational exchange (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 114).

Second, CS as a marked choice occurs when it is an unexpected choice to indicate the social distance among the participants in a given conversational situation. In such a case, CS is used to exclude deliberately some members present in a conversational situation. The speaker switches to a language that he / she knows will only be understood by a certain section of the audience. However, depending on the situation, CS as a marked choice may be used also to "include" other members of the audience present. For instance, Kamwanagamalu (2000: 62) cites instances during political gatherings or diplomatic meetings when CS is used to express oneness and solidarity with a minority section of the audience; for example Kofi Annan (the former UN Secretary General)'s use of French-English CS at the UN to " include" Franco-phone countries, Nelson Mandela (former and first democratically elected President of the Republic of South Africa) and Margaret Thatcher (former and first female Prime Minister of Britain)'s English-Afrikaans CS at meetings with the Afrikaners of South Africa. Third, CS as an exploratory choice implies that the speaker initiates a conversation in one language, and if the party being addressed does not fully understand, CS takes place. The speaker switches to the most likely language that is intelligible to both parties. CS as an exploratory choice is used where there is some degree of uncertainty about the choice of a mutual language.

The MM was criticized for some shortcomings (Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997 c: 132-133; Kamwangamalu 2000: 63-64; Slabbert & Finlayson, 1999). It does not, for instance, explain why the speakers engaged in CS exchange would not conform to the societal norms or why a speaker would want to increase or decrease the social distance

between him / her and the other speaker (Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997: 132). Kamwangamalu (2000: 62) described the MM as 'static' regarding its functions in multilingual communities and that the premise on which it was based (negotiation of identities, rights and obligations) was too narrow to account for the social functions of CS in the African context. He further argued that not all CS involved the negotiation of identities, rights and obligations; and that, at times, CS can be used to achieve political gains as observed by Heller (1992; 1995, in Kamwangamalu, 2000: 64).

In a classroom situation, the objective is not to exclude any learner from the learning process, but to include him / her. Therefore, CS as an unmarked choice (not CS as a sequence of unmarked choices) appears to be applicable, but CS as a marked choice in a learning process seems an unlikely occurrence. Again CS as an exploratory choice seems possible because the objective is to use the language that learners understand better. The applicability or non-applicability of the MM to the present study will be examined against the data that will be collected.

2.2.2 The Matrix Language Frame model (MLF)

The MLF model based on the interactional approach (Auer, 1984) was first conceived by Myers-Scotton and Azuma (1989, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 268) and Myers-Scotton (1993b; 1995, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 268). It distinguishes between the Matrix Language (ML) and the Embedded Language (EL). The ML is the main language that plays the dominant role in CS and is also known as the 'host language', while the EL (also known as the 'guest language') takes on the morphological and phonological structure of the ML in CS.

The following are examples of the aforementioned:

siSwati-English CS

(CS form): Tennis association *i-discuss-ile le problem ku meeting* yabo …
(English): The tennis association **discussed that problem at** their last **meeting**.

(Kamwangamalu, 1994: 75)

Setswana-English CS

Tennis association *e-discuss-itse problem ele ko* meeting *wa bone*.

Discussed   that problem at   theirs.

In the example above, siSwati and Setswana are the MLs and English is the EL in each case. First, the word order '*meeting yabo*' and '*meeting wa bone*' follows siSwati and Setswana word order, but not that of English. Translated literally, these phrases equate to '**meeting their**', which is not grammatically acceptable in English, as a pronoun for possession should precede a noun. Therefore, in English, the word order would be '**their meeting**'. Second, the verb '**discussed**' in the code-switched sentences assumes the morphological structure of siSwati and Setswana, not that of English. Thus siSwati and Setswana as MLs licence how CS should occur. Their internal constituent structures remain unchanged while those of English (EL) are adapted.

Instances of CS stated above, are examples of intra-sentential CS, and are often mistaken for borrowing. Both concepts are discussed in detail later (cf. 2.3.1a and 2.3.3 below) to make a distinction between them.

2.2.3 The Matrix Language Principle (MLP)

The MLP is very similar to the MLF. Both models state that in a CS situation, the language that determines how CS occurs is the ML and the follows the morphological and phonological structure of the EL will follow that of the ML. The MLP essentially states that '… in a code-switching structure only the matrix language will determine the acceptability/unacceptability of any participating constituent [from the embedded language] (Kamwangamalu, 1994: 74 in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 268).

Kamwangamalu (1989a, 1990, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 267) came up with the MLP, (later the Matrix Code Principle). The MLP states that in CS, there is one language that is the ML, and the other language that is the EL. It is the ML that licenses how the EL will be employed in CS. As a result, the morphosyntactic structure of the EL is affected, while that of the ML remains unchanged. Therefore, any use of linguistic items from the EL must be determined by the morphosyntactic structure of the ML (Kamwangamalu, 1999: 269-270).

Kamwangamalu (1994) demonstrated the applicability of the MLP by using examples of siSwati-English CS and Swahili-English CS. In all instances, it was evident that in CS the syntactic structure of the dominant language (siSwati or Swahili) is preserved while that of the guest language or the EL (English) is adapted. Therefore, the internal constituent structure of the guest language (English) has to conform to the constituent structure of the host language (siSwati). In addition, CS was possible between a bound morpheme and a lexical form without the lexical form being phonologically integrated into the language bound as a morpheme. This is possible in CS between many Bantu languages (including Setswana) and a guest language such as English or French. Using CS examples between many Bantu languages and English or French, Kamwangamalu (1999: 264) demonstrated that a complementizer of a complement clause and the matrix verb need not come from the same language.

The MLP remains unchallenged, and having been developed from the African context and empirically tested on CS involving several Bantu languages, it will inform the current study, which also examines CS between English and Setswana (also a Bantu language) in a classroom situation. The data gathered through classroom observations will be examined syntactically and morphologically to confirm their conformity to the MLP model.

The theoretical framework also includes Hymes' mnemonic of SPEAKING. This model will be used as a basis for the analysis of the qualitative data obtained through classroom observation. The model was developed to promote the analysis of discourse as a series of speech events and speech acts within a cultural context (Hymes, 1974: 54 – 60). The model assumed its name from the features of the speech event namely, Setting (Scene), Participant and audience, Ends, Act sequence, Key, Instrumentalities, Norms and Genre. Each of the features, as well as how the model is used, will be explained in detail in the next chapter which deals with the methodology of the study.

2.3 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

Having given an overview of CS research and the theoretical framework of the study, as well as the nature of the study, it is important to define the key concepts (with examples) that will be used throughout this study to demonstrate any relationship that

may exist between them. From the literature review, it is difficult to precisely differentiate between these concepts which are: CS and its three sub-types, namely intra-sentential CS; inter-sentential CS; tag-like / emblematic CS; and *borrowing,* with its three types namely nonce borrowing; borrowing proper; and re-borrowing. However, a discussion of each will follow that will result in definitions that will apply in this study.

2.3.1 CS

Before discussing the definition of CS as given by various scholars, it is important to examine the two words which make up this concept, namely 'code' and 'switch(-ing)'. It is on the basis of the meanings of the two words that the definition of CS, as defined by the different scholars, can be examined in conjunction with examples to illustrate the meaning and use of CS.

According to the *Collins Concise Dictionary of the English Language* (1988: 214), a 'code' is defined as "… a system of letters or symbols by which information can be communicated secretly, briefly"; while the *Oxford Companion to the English Language* (1992: 228) defines a code as "… a system of communication, spoken or written, such as a language, dialect or variety". In this study, the latter definition will be used. 'Switching' is defined as "shifting, changing, turning aside, or changing the direction of (something)"; or "to exchange (places); replace (something by something else)" (*The Collins Concise Dictionary of the English Language,* 1988: 1194). Again, it is the latter alternative, 'replace' that will be used here. Therefore, putting the two words together, 'code' and 'switching', CS refers to a situation in which linguistic forms of a language / language variety are replaced by forms from another language / language variety in a single communicative event, be it spoken or written. The definition above will be used as a basis to examine the definitions of CS as given by different scholars.

CS has been defined by scholars such as Auer, 1984: 1; Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Kieswetter, 1995; Milroy and Muysken, 1995; Kamwangamalu, 1997: 45; 2000; Heredia and Altarriba, 2001: 164; Li, 2002: 164; Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain, 2004: 502); as "… the alternate use of two or more languages in the same conversation,

usually within the same conversational turn, or within the same sentence or within the same sentence of that turn."

The definition above implies that in any CS situation, there must be at least two languages employed, either within the same sentence or within the same conversational turn. However, the definition does not include the alternate use of a variety of the same language. Therefore the definition above is by no means exhaustive of all that CS entails, and is therefore inadequate.

Examples

1. ***Ngitshele mngane*** how long did you practice? (Tell me my friend …) <u>Zulu</u> (Kieswetter, 1995: 81).

2. ***Mpolelela tsala … ?*** (Tell me my friend …) Setswana translation.
3. ***Inakuwa maana yake*** they go against their wishes … (This is … because …) Swahili (Mkilifi, 1978: 140, in Kamwangamalu, 1997: 47)

In the examples above, the speaker starts off a sentence in one language, in this case, his / her mother tongue, and then switches over to English. Thus, in every code-switched speech there must be at least two languages or language varieties employed by the speaker which show his / her ability to express himself / herself in both.

Myers-Scotton (1993a: 4) talks of what she refers to as a more "technical and more explicit definition of CS: "…*code-switching is the selection by bilinguals or multilinguals of forms from an embedded language (or languages) in utterances of a matrix language during the same conversation*".

The definition above implies that the examples cited above, in each case, Zulu, Setswana and Swahili are MLs, and English is the embedded language (Kamwangamalu, 1997; Kamwangamalu, 1999; Myers-Scotton, 1993a). Thus in CS utterance, there must be the ML and the EL within the same conversations in which the speakers are engaged. Both definitions above refer to the use of CS in a social setting.

Kamwangamalu (1999: 268) states that, "In code-switching there necessarily is one language, the matrix language, whose morphosyntactic structure determines what

linguistic elements of the other language, the embedded language, can be and how they should be code-switched". This implies that it is the morpho-syntactic structure of the ML that determines how CS can take place because the morpho-syntactic structure of the EL elements should conform to it. Often the speaker's first language is the ML (main language), such as Setswana, and the embedded language is the guest language, which usually has a lesser role in CS, such as English in Setswana / English CS. The use of linguistic items from the EL is determined by the morpho-syntactic structure of the matrix language as illustrated in the following examples of CS between siSwati and English, and between Swahili and English (Kamwangamalu (1994: 73) :

siSwati: ***Kule*** *conversation* ***yabo ba****-address-****a liciniso*** *concerning* ***le****-situation.*
Literal translation: In conversation theirs they …
English: In their conversation they address the truth concerning the situation.
Swahili: ***Kulikulwa na*** *TABLE LONG* ***namna hii, maze, imejaa tu chakula ya kila aina***.
Literal translation: There was a table long like this, my friend, …
English: There was a long table like this, my friend, just full of food of every sort.

In the two examples above, the constituent structure of EL is 'violated', while those of siSwati and Swahili are followed. The grammar rule for English is that, when forming a noun phrase, a determiner or adjective precedes a head noun, but in siSwati and Swahili, a determiner or adjective follows a head noun. For instance, in siSwati, it is correct to say '**conversation** *yabo*' that directly translates to '**conversation** *theirs*' in English, which is ungrammatical in English. The correct word order should rather be '*their* **conversation**'. Similarly, in Swahili, the word order '**table long**' from the example is acceptable, but in English it is a '**long table**'. Similarly, in Setswana, the same word order as that of siSwati and Swahili will apply, as illustrated in the example below:

Setswana: **Mo** conversation**eng ya bone ba** address-**a nnete** concerning the situation**.**
Literal translation: In conversation theirs they address truth …
English: In their conversation they address the truth concerning the situation.

In the example above, as in the previous examples, English is the guest language whose internal constituent structure is 'not followed', but that of Setswana is preserved. In Setswana '**–eng'** marks the adverb of place if affixed to a noun like 'conversation', but in English the adverb is marked by the phrase '**in their**' preceding the noun 'conversation'. Similarly, in English, verbs are not formed by affixing '**–a,** which denotes action if affixed to a verb stem. Such formation is rather found in Setswana, hence the noun 'address-**a**'. Therefore, what takes place in CS grammatically is determined by Setswana as the ML and English as an EL follows the constituent structure rules of Setswana. The result is that the morphosyntactic structure of the ML is preserved, while that of the EL is not followed, since its constituent structure must conform to the constituent structure of the ML.

The definitions of CS discussed above are very similar because they all state that in CS at least two languages are involved. However, the second and third definitions by Myers-Scotton (1993a) and Kamwangamalu (1999) are more comprehensive in that they further state that one of the two languages involved in CS is the ML, and the other is the EL. The first definition is much more general because it does not indicate the role of each of the two languages involved in CS, therefore assuming that both languages play an equal role in CS. However, all three the definitions do not mention that CS may also involve varieties of a language, yet the original study on CS by Gumperz and Hymes (1986) involved two dialects of the same language.

It therefore appears that from the evidence presented by different scholars, CS occurs:

a. within the same speech event;
b. there must be at least two languages employed within the same speech event;
c. the speaker(s) who engage(s) in CS may be competent bilinguals or multilinguals; in that they can speak both languages fluently;
d. one language is the ML (main language of the interaction) and the other is the EL (guest language); and
e. the morpho-syntactic structure of the ML determines how the linguistic elements of the EL should be used in the utterance; such that the morpho-syntactic structure of the former is preserved while that of the latter is violated; and

f. as a result, the internal constituent structure of the EL conforms to the constituent structure of the ML.

Having discussed the views of other scholars on what constitutes CS, the following definition will be applied in the present study: 'The alternate use of forms from at least two languages, or varieties of the same language, one matrix, the other embedded, in the same sentence or within the same conversational turn'.

As previously mentioned, CS is said to occur in three different forms in utterances. It may occur as: intra-sentential CS, inter-sentential CS, and tag-like switches or what is termed emblematic CS. A discussion of each type of CS is presented below:

a. Intra-sentential CS

According to Myers-Scotton (1993a: 4), intra-sentential CS involves using a single morpheme, phrase or clause along with words, phrases, and clauses from another language within the same sentence. This could be a verb phrase within the same constituent, a verb phrase complement or even a prepositional phrase, which are entire constituents. Myers-Scotton (1993a: 5) illustrates intra-sentential CS with the following examples from a conversation conducted mainly in Swahili (the lingua franca of Kenya) in Nairobi, the capital of Kenya; and another conversation conducted mainly in Shona (one of the two dominant languages in Zimbabwe). It should be noted that concerning the English-Swahil CS, Myers-Scotton (1993 a) obtained her data from Kenya where CS of this nature is rampant.

In both instances below, the intra-sentential switches are to English:
Example 1
<u>Swahili</u>: Hello, guys*, shule zitafunguliwa lini*?
<u>English</u>: Hello, guys, *when will the schools be opened*?
<u>Swahili</u>: *Na Kwedi, hata mimi **si-ko sure** lakini **n-a suspect** i-ta-kuwa **week** kesho*.
<u>English</u>: *Well, even **I am not sure***, but ***I suspect** it will be next* week.

In Example 1, (*si-k*o*) sure*, **week**, and (*na*)**-suspect** are intra-sentential switches as they appear in the same sentence as elements from the ML.

Example 2

<u>Shona</u>: *Manje hazvibvumirwe waona. Unofanirwa kupedza **one year** uinanyo **motor** yacho. Wozotegesa **after one year**.*

<u>English</u>: That is not allowed, you see. You should spend one year with that *car*. Then you can sell it *after one year*.

In Example 2, the English verb phrase complement **'one year'** and the prepositional phrase **'after one year'** are used within the sentence, which is mainly in Shona. In both examples, Swahili and Shona are the MLs, while English is the EL.

From the examples above, it is clear that intra-sentential CS is self-explanatory; it occurs within a sentence and that the code-switched form must be in a form of a phrase from an EL and the independent clause must be from the ML.

The following definition of intra-sentential CS will be used in the current study: 'Intra-sentential CS is the use of a verb or a verb phrase, or a verb phrase complement or even a prepositional phrase, or a noun phrase that takes place from the matrix language to the embedded language within a single sentence'.

In the present study, the data gathered will be examined to determine whether the phenomenon that occurs in the classrooms in Botswana conforms to the observations made above about CS and can consequently be referred to as CS in education. Its causes, its role in education, and the effects it has on teaching and learning will also be investigated.

b. Inter-sentential CS

According to Akindele and Letsoela (2001); Moyo (1996); and Myers-Scotton (1993a), inter-sentential CS occurs when the speaker, after he / she has completed a sentence in one language, switches to another language in the next sentence, as illustrated in the following examples demonstrating CS between English and Setswana:

Example

*The University has closed for Christmas. **Etla bulwa gape ngwaga e tlang.***
The University has closed for Christmas. **It will reopen next year.**

Many scholars (Kamwangamalu, 2000; Khati, 1992; Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Poplack, 1980, in Kamwangamalu, 2000) agree that inter-sentential CS is a clear form of code-switching and is the main form of CS. The researcher also shares the same view because as its name signifies, inter-sentential CS is characterized by switches between independent sentences, one in the ML, and the other in the EL in the same conversation. However, the ML remains identifiable as the conversation will mainly take place in it.

Based on the above, the following definition of inter-sentential CS will apply in the current study: 'Inter-sentential CS is switching that takes place from the ML to the EL at sentential level within the same conversational turn'.

c. Tag-like or emblematic CS

Poplack (1980, in Khati, 1992: 183) defines tag-like or emblematic CS as "… a switch that involves the use of single words, tags and idiomatic expressions from one language in another".

Poplack (1980)'s definition was quoted by successive scholars such as Appel and Muysken, 1987: 118, in Gila, 1995: 10; Nwoye, 1993: 369, in Moodley, 2001: 8; and Tshinki, 2002: 73. To better understand what constitutes tag-like / emblematic CS, definitions of the two words 'tag' and 'emblematic' are necessary. According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English* (1995: 1214), a tag is a label or device attached to something; or, in linguistics, a tag is a word or phrase that is added to a sentence for emphasis. Similarly, the *Collins Cobuild Dictionary* (1987: 1487) defines a tag as a very short clause at the end of a statement that changes the statement into a question. From the two definitions given, it is clear that a tag appears at the end of a sentence.

'Emblematic' refers to something that serves as a symbol (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English*, 1995: 376). Therefore, emblematic CS would refer to symbolic CS that is used to symbolize something or to show a particular meaning.

On the basis of the definitions of the two words 'tag' and 'emblematic', the following will be used in this study as a definition of tag-like or emblematic CS: '… *a switch in*

the form of a single word or phrase (from) the guest language attached at the end of a sentence that is primarily coined in the matrix language in order to convey a specific meaning or to (convey) symbolize a particular meaning'.

The following example shows the use of tag-switching in a sentence. The speaker starts the sentence in Setswana but attaches a tag-like switch (in English) at the end of the sentence to show emphasis or to symbolize that he / she is soliciting the opinion of the addressee.

Example 1

<u>Setswana</u>: Go botlhokwa go dira ka natla nako tsotlhe, ***isn't it***?

<u>English</u>: It is important to work hard at all times, ***isn't it***?

While Poplack (1980)'s definition operated as the standard definition of tag-like or emblematic CS for a long time, it is inadequate because it gives the impression that both languages involved in CS play an equal role. The current definition given above therefore explicitly states that the sentence in which tag-like / emblematic CS occurs, appears in the ML, and the tag that is used in the switch is in the guest language.

Gila (1995: 10) gives the following as an example of a tag-like switch in CS between Xhosa and English:

Example 2

<u>Xhosa</u>: … ***so*** *unokothukaxa enokuva kusithwailizwe liphelile*.

<u>English</u>: … **so** he should be shocked to hear that the world has ended.

The speaker is Xhosa, starts his / her conversation in Xhosa, the ML, then switches to English through the use of 'so', implying that English is EL and then switches back to Xhosa to complete the sentence. However, in the researcher's view, this is inconsistent with the meaning of a tag. 'So' in the example above appears medially, not finally, and therefore it cannot be regarded as tag-like switch. The researcher is inclined to regard this as an example of intra-sentential CS. This type of switching (intra-sentential CS) is also possible between Setswana and English, as illustrated in the following example:

Example 3

<u>Setswana</u>: Ke a otsela **because** ke robetse bosigo.

<u>English</u>: I am feeling sleepy **because** I slept late.

In the example above, the speaker is Setswana speaking, starts his/her sentence in Setswana (ML), switches to English (EL) by using **because**, and back to Setswana to complete the sentence. Some scholars, for example Kamwangamalu (2000) regard the use of **because** in this way as a form of nonce borrowing (cf. 2.3.5 below) and not CS. However, using the definition of social integration as a function of the degree of consisitency, regularity, and frequency with which linguistic items from one language are used in discourse in another language, in a given context (Hasselmo, 1972: 180, in Kamwangamalu, 2000: 91), the researcher is inclined to treat the use of **because** in the sentence above as a form of CS and not nonce borrowing. **Because** cannot be regarded as being socially integrated as is the case with nonce-borrowed words; it is an example of CS since it is not socially integrated.

According to Poplack (1980 in Khati, 1992: 183), tag-switches are true types of CS because their use is an application of foreign language elements in an utterance made in another language (in this case Setswana-English CS as in Example 1 above); and that their use does not necessarily imply that a speaker is conversant with the foreign language. Although the researcher (from experience), is inclined to agree with Poplack's observation, in Example 1 above, the use of a tag-like / emblematic switch does not reflect a lack of proficiency in English by the users because the tag-switches have been appropriately used. Other scholars before Poplack, such as Elias-Olivares (1976), in Khati (1992: 182-3) did not consider what Gila (1995: 10) refers to as a tag-switch (as in Example 2 above) as a type of CS, but as examples of 'nonce borrowing' (defined and discussed later in this section). However, the researcher shares the same view as Poplack, namely that tag-like / emblematic switches are a form of CS because their use does not imply that they have no equivalents in the ML. A speaker may use them unconsciously or consciously, and if they are not comprehensible to a monolingual speaker, they can be easily replaced with equivalents in the language that the monolingual speaker understands. Furthermore, tag-like switches normally appear finally in a sentence.

2.3.2 Code-mixing (CM)

Another concept important in this study is CM, which Wardhaugh (1992: 106 and Bokamba, 1988: 24, in Moodley, 2001: 9) define as: '… the deliberate mixing of various linguistic units such as affixes, words, phrases and clauses from two (or more) languages within the same sentence, in the course of a single utterance, without an associated change in topic'.

The definition above seems to refer to intra-sentential CS and not CM since the latter refers to a variety that consists of elements from different languages.

Kieswetter (1995: 22) defines CM as: "… the use of morphemes from more than one language variety within the same word or as … linguistic units which contain morphemes from both languages within single words which have not been lexically, phonologically and morphologically integrated into the host language". For example:

1. ***ama***-*lady* (Zulu form for ladies) (Kieswetter, 1995: 34)
2. ***uku***-*solve-a (Zulu form meaning **to solve**)* (Kieswetter, 1995: 36)
3. G*o-solve-a* (Setswana form meaning **to solve**)

Looking at the examples given above, it appears that even though Kieswetter's first definition mentions that CM involves more than one language variety (Kieswetter, 1995: 22), in the first sentence two languages not varieties of one language are involved. What takes place in the first sentence is more a case of borrowing, than CM. Sentences two and three are examples of intra-sentential CS as previously explained (cf. 2.3.1 b) and not CM. Kieswetter's definition is in harmony with what takes place in borrowing and in intra-sentential CS.   In the first example, elements from two languages (Zulu and English) have been employed to build a word made up of two morphemes in order to *come up with a new word* (ama-lady) in the ML (Zulu). This is an example of borrowing although the EL can still be recognized from the verb stem. The second definition is more in tune with what takes place in CM than the first one. However, Kieswetter's definition falls short of mentioning that CM is a new variety of a speech community such as Pretoria Sotho, which is a mix of languages such as Sesotho, Setswana, Sepedi, and Afrikaans. IsiSoweto is another example of CM that is

a mix of Setswana, isiZulu and other languages spoken by different speech communities living in Soweto. CM is usually an urban variety of a given language such as urban Setswana spoken in Gaborone, especially among the youth, and is a mix of Setswana and English as illustrated in the example below:

a. **Go**-sharp**o** fela
b. **It is** just **fine**, or: **it is** just **okay**.

The phrase '**go-sharpo**' above is made up of Setswana morpheme '**go**', its English equivalent is '**to**' or '**it is**' in this case, and 'sharp**o**', which originates from the English word '**sharp**' but with the '**-o**' affixed to it to adapt the word to a Setswana verb formation in a conversation. This phrase is used to mean 'it is just fine' or 'everything is okay' and has come to be accepted in spoken speech among the youth, however, it is restricted to spoken speech only.

The first definition above by Bokamba (1988: 24 and Wardhaugh, 1992: 106, in Moodley, 2001: 9) is all encompassing. It entails mixing affixes, words, phrases, and clauses within the same sentence. While CM takes place when affixes are mixed to form a word, the same cannot be said when words, phrases or even clauses are mixed within the same sentence. This is more consistent with what occurs in CS. Therefore, the definition by Bokamba (1988) and Wardhaugh (1992) is a mixture of what occurs in both CM and CS. In the present study, the definition of CM by Kieswetter (1995) will be applied, with modification, as follows: '… *Code-mixing refers to the use of morphemes from two languages (one the ML; the other the EL) to form a new word in a new variety of a speech community'*.

Myers-Scotton (1993a) used CS as a cover term for both CS and CM but distinguished the type of CS by labelling one intra-sentential CS and the other inter-sentential CS. The same practice was also followed by other scholars such as Akindele and Letsoela (2001), Kamwangamalu (2000) and Moyo (1996).

However, looking at the definitions of the two concepts and their respective examples in different languages as illustrated earlier, in the present study, as in Bokamba (1988) and Herbert (1994, in Kieswetter, 1995: 18-19); and Kieswetter (1995), CS and CM

will be treated as two separate phenomena. Both are a result of linguistic interaction and language contact, which also allow the speaker to coin a new word by prefixing or suffixing a morpheme from the ML onto the stem of the EL. While CM involves the 'consistent' use of a variety that consists of elements from different languages, in intra-sentential CS, a speaker may switch between languages or varieties of the same languages within the same sentence by using either a verb, or a verb phrase complement, or a noun phrase or even a prepositional phrase, as illustrated in examples 1 and 2 below. At times instances of intra-sentential CS, such as example 2 below can also be treated as an example of borrowing (which will be discussed later in this section). Example 3 illustrates an instance of inter-sentential CS from Setswana to English.

Example 1

Ke intend**-a go-**solve**-a di-**problems tsa bone (**intra-sentential CS**).
I intend **to** solve **their** problems (English).

Example 2:

Ke rata *go apaya **exotic dishes*** fa ke nale baeng. (**intra-sentential CS**)
 (**Setswana** and English).
I like to prepare exotic dishes whenever I have visitors (English).

Example 3

Ke ne ke ba solofetse. Yet they did not arrive. (**inter-sentential CS: Setswana** and English).
I had expected them. Yet they did not arrive. (English).

Example 4

Go *sharp***-o go** *s'gela* **ko** *versity* (CM).
It is okay to study at the university (English).

Example 4 above illustrates an instance of CM. Three languages are code-mixed in the sentence namely, Setswana, Zulu and English. The phrase '**go-sharpo**' has been explained already and is a result of code-mixing morphemes from Setswana and English. Similarly, '**go**- *s'gela*' is made up of Setswana morpheme **go-** whose English

equivalent is '**to**'; '*sgela*' has its origin from the Zulu word '*ngena*' which means 'come in' or 'go into' in English. In Setswana the equivalent expression of 'to attend school' or 'to go to school' is **go tsena sekolo.** Therefore, '*go s'gela*' is a result of code-mixing the following: Setswana prefix '**go**', **s'-** is a short form of **se-** which is a prefix of the Setswana word **sekolo** whose English equivalent is school; '-*gela*' is the adapted form of the Zulu verb '*ngena*' but it has been 'lexicalized' such that it sounds more like a Setswana word than Zulu, hence '*s'gela'* and not '*s'gena*'. Therefore, '**go s'gela**' is translated as 'to attend (school)'. In addition, '**ko**' is a Setswana preposition that equates to 'at' in English. The word 'versity' is a short form for 'university' and its use is restricted to spoken communication; in written communication, its use is rare except in note-taking / note-making. Example 4 above demonstrates language use that is typical of a specific social group, usually the urban youth, because of the cosmopolitan nature of urban centres where people of different language backgrounds live in search of jobs and other opportunities.

Bokamba (1988, in Kieswetter, 1995) observed that CM, like CS, commonly occurs in the speech of bilingual and multilingual speakers. However, from the definitions adopted in the current study, the main distinctive feature between the two concepts is that CM is a variety adopted by a speech community for communication purposes that have resulted from extensive language contact -- defined by Kembo-Sure & Webb (2000: 113) as a process whereby members of a speech community abandon the use of one language for certain functions and adopt another, but CS involves the use of at least two languages or varieties of the same language at the same time -- usually as a result of competence in both languages or language varieties. While CS is a common phenomenon in the speech of bilingual and multilingual speakers, CM is associated more with monolingual speakers than with bilingual or multilingual speakers, however, in some places such as in South African townships, for example Soweto, CM can also be a speech phenomenon even among bilinguals / multilinguals because of the historical background of such settlements.

2.3.3 Borrowing

Borrowing is another key concept in the discussion of contact phenomena in language use. Bokamba (1988) and Herbert (1994) (respectively quoted in Kieswetter, 1995:

13-14 and 18-19) referred to borrowing as follows: '… *where ... words or phrases (from another language) are assimilated phonologically, morphologically and syntactically into the host language.*

The definition above is silent on lexical assimilation, yet it is important because the borrowed word become integrated in the lexicons of the borrowing language.

Gumperz (1986: 66, in Kamwangamalu, 2000: 89) defines borrowing as: "… *the introduction of single words or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one language into another*".

The two definitions above acknowledge that, in borrowing, two languages are involved -- one as a borrowing language -- and another as a loaning language. The linguistic units from the loaning language may be assimilated into the grammatical structure of the borrowing language such that they become accepted as part of such grammar. The first definition by Bokamba (1988) and Herbert (1994) (respectively quoted in Kieswetter, 1995: 13–14 and 18–19) will be adopted in this study to refer to 'borrowing proper' because it mentions that borrowing involves the assimilation of borrowed words into the grammatical system of the borrowing language. This is usually the case where the borrowed word refers to a concept that is foreign to the borrowing language. In addition, the definition will include the fact that the borrowed words are also lexically assimilated.   However, the second definition by Gumperz (1986, in Kamwangamalu, 2000) is much more general and it is not clear whether it refers to borrowing proper or 'nonce borrowing' (discussed below).

Linguistic items, once borrowed, become integrated into the grammatical system of the host language as the examples below illustrate:

Examples of borrowing proper from Ciluba/Kiswahili to English

Ciluba	English	Kiswahili	English
mbulanketa	blanket	dereva	driver
kanife	knife	shati	shirt

Isizulu	English	Ciluba	French

isikholo	school	shimishi	chemise
ibhola	ball	tabulo	tableau

(Kamwangamalu, 2000: 90)

In addition to being integrated lexically, phonologically, morphologically and syntactically into the host language, these borrowed words become widely accepted by monolingual speakers as they look and sound like ordinary words of the host language (Kieswetter, 1995). The same observation was made by Nyati-Ramahobo (2004) in reference to *Setawana* (a dialect of Setswana in Botswana) and Shiyeyi (one of the local languages in Botswana), that some words from Shiyeyi have been borrowed and integrated lexically, phonologically, morphologically, and syntactically into *Setawana*, and are now used as ordinary words in Setawana. However, such words are restricted to spoken *Setawana*. In writing, the formal Setswana conventions are strictly followed. In fact, the language contact between Batawana and Bayei has rendered spoken *Setawana* more as a form of CM than a variety of Setswana, as the following examples illustrate:

Example of borrowing proper from Shiyeyi to Setawana

Shiyeyi	**Setawana**
Shaora (swim)	Go shaora (to swim)

(Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004: 68)

Examples of borrowing proper from English to Zulu

Zulu	**English**
emaklasini	in the classroom
sikoleni	at school

(Kamwangamalu, 2000: 90)

Kamwangamalu (2000: 89) refers to this concept as "borrowing proper" or, what Kachru (1983, in Kamwangamalu, 2000: 89) earlier referred to as "nativization". The two definitions above (of borrowing) by Gumperz (1986: 66, in Kamwangamalu, 2000: 89), and Bokamba (1988, in Kieswetter, 1995), later reiterated by Herbert (1994, in Kieswetter, 1995), are in agreement and both describe what takes place in

borrowing. Borrowing, like CS and CM, is a result of language contact (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 89; Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004: 68); and so are CS and Borrowing.

The process of borrowing from other languages, especially English and Afrikaans, is also common in Setswana (as illustrated below):

Examples of borrowing proper from English-Afrikaans to Setswana

Setswana	English	Setswana	Afrikaans
buka	book	gaisi	huis
poto	pot	heke	hek
kara	car	kopi	koppie

(researcher's own examples)

Although these borrowed words have their original Setswana equivalents, they are commonly used by many speakers and will be readily understood. However, their use is often restricted to spoken communication, whereas in written communication the original words **lekwalo** (book), **mogotswana** (cup), **sejanaga** (car), **ntlo** (huis), **kgoro** (hek), pitsa (pot) and **tsamaya** (trek) are preferred. Speakers use borrowing to fill lexical gaps in their languages (Kamwangamalu, 1999: 260; Moodley, 2001: 10). In other instances, borrowing is used purely to add variety to one's speech and other social reasons, such as to impress the listener, or to demonstrate familiarity with a language from which borrowing is taking place. One main distinctive characteristic of borrowing is that, like CM, it can occur in the speech of monolingual, bilingual, and / or multilingual speakers, and thus differs from CS, that is strictly speaking, a characteristic feature of the linguistic behaviour of bilingual speakers (Kamwangamalu, 1999: 260).

2.3.4 Re-borrowing

Re-borrowing (Herbert, 1994, in Kieswetter, 1995; Kieswetter, 1995) refers to a situation whereby '… bilingual speakers may re-borrow a word even though a particular word had already been integrated in the host language'. This is usually the case with speakers of the same language who may use different communication patterns (for instance rural vs. urban or youth vs. elderly).

For example: **e-school** (the Zulu word for 'school') is used instead of the borrowed word **isikholo** (Kieswetter, 1995: 25).

In some cases, a borrowed word may already be in the plural, but may again be inflected with a morpheme that denotes plural in the borrowing language. Kamwangamalu (1997: 48) refers to this phenomenon as "double plural marking". Although such words may reflect the 'double plural', synchronically they are not 'double-plurals' because, in the borrowing language, it is acceptable to inflect such morphemes to show plurality. This form of borrowing is common in many Bantu languages. Like in CS, it is the *borrowing language* that determines how plurality should be reflected in borrowing, as illustrated in the following examples:

Examples of borrowing proper

Zulu	**English**
Ama-red blood corpuscles	Red blood corpuscles
Lingala	**English**
Ba-jeunes (from French)	Young men

(Kamwangamalu, 1997: 48)

Examples of borrowing proper

Setswana	**English**
di-examinations	examinations
di-computers	computers

(researcher's own examples)

In 'double-plural marking', a word plural in form, may be borrowed from a guest language (English) and used in the host language (Setswana) with a prefix that also denotes plural. However, in the researcher's opinion, these are instances of borrowing proper rather than of "double-plural marking" as Kamwangamalu (2000: 97) states. These words are borrowed from English and have no direct equivalents in Setswana as they refer to concepts that are foreign to the Setswana culture of learning. Because they have been borrowed into Setswana and are used regularly, they have come to assume the Setswana prefix '**di–**' that denotes the plural form, which is appropriate in Setswana. Therefore, in this study, double-plural marking or re-borrowing will not

apply. Instead, examples of this nature will be treated as examples of borrowing proper.

2.3.5 Nonce borrowing

'Nonce borrowing' is a common phenomenon in spoken communication. Nonce implies 'once' or 'once off' or 'for the present time only'. Therefore, nonce borrowing refers to borrowing that is not regular or not lexically and structurally integrated. Kamwangamalu (2000: 91), quoting Poplack (1978), defines this phenomenon as: "… *the use of linguistic items from one language (such as English or French) in discourse in another language (such as siSwati or Ciluba) that show no signs of adaptation to the linguistic system of the latter language*".

This phenomenon is not restricted to the above-mentioned African languages, but also occurs in Setswana, as well. Some examples follow below:

Setswana: Ba tshwere **discussion** ka tsa madi

<u>English:</u> They are holding **a discussion** about financial matters.

In the example above, **discussion** is a nonce-borrowed word that resists integration into the borrowing language (Setswana) and is used as in the original language or the 'loaning language' (English). What is important to note is that, in nonce borrowing, the word or expression that is borrowed is used in its original form across different languages; while in borrowing proper, the borrowed word adapts to the grammatical system of the borrowing language such that it slightly differs from one African language to the other, yet is still recognizable. Nonce borrowing is often confused with CS because the linguistic units that qualify as nonce borrowing retain their original phonological and morphological features (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 91); that is, they are not integrated phonologically, morphologically, lexically and syntactically into the grammatical system of the borrowing language. However, in CS, the linguistic items are not socially integrated -- that is, even though a speaker may use a given linguistic item from one language in the other language, the same speaker may choose not to use the same linguistic item in its original form but may convey the same meaning by using its equivalent in the host language (borrowing language).

Example 1

<u>Setswana</u>: *Ke amogetse lekwalo, **thank you**.*

<u>English</u>: I received the letter, **thank you.**

<u>Setswana</u>: *Ke amogetse lekwalo, **ke a leboga**.*

The phrase 'thank you', '*ke a leboga*' in Setswana, is not socially integrated into Setswana and therefore it is an example of CS.

According to Kamwangamalu (2000: 90), expressions of time and the units of currency, as illustrated below, qualify as nonce borrowing, as they are socially integrated in the different African languages without changing their original phonological and morphological structures.

<u>English</u>: How much are the bananas? **Two rand.**

<u>Setswana</u>: *Ke bokae dipanana? **Two rand**.*

<u>English</u>: What time is it? **Two o'clock.**

<u>Setswana</u>: *Ke nako mang? **Two o'clock**.*

However, in the researcher's view, the examples above are more relevant to borrowing proper than nonce borrowing because of the regularity in which they are used in the borrowing language.

Bokamba (1988, in Kieswetter, 1995: 23-24) referred to nonce borrowing as lexical and phrasal expressions. Kieswetter (1995: 23) described lexical and phrasal expressions as small switches that fulfil a lexical need, implying that they are some form of CS. The researcher is inclined to agree with Kieswetter (1995: 23) that they are a form of CS, hence classify them as emblematic or tag-like switching because of their usage in the sentence.

Examples

- **Discourse markers**: anyway, because, that's why
- **Adverbial time** : yesterday, at the end of the month
- **Question forms**: Why? What? When? Whom?
- **Set expressions**: it's true, its lucky for you
- **Exclamations**: Oh! Hey!

- **Term of address**: my friend
- **Bare forms**: together, cheap, free

<div align="center">(Kieswetter, 1995: 23).</div>

Lexical and phrasal expressions are used frequently in conversations and often function as set expressions or phrases. A speaker may use any one of them at some point as they are, even though the speaker may not be fluent in English. At another point, the same speaker may *not* use the same linguistic item in its original form, but may convey the same information by using its equivalent in the language of the conversational exchange. Myers-Scotton (1993: 125) refers to these as "embedded language islands".

Although Kamwangamalu's definition of nonce borrowing (quoting Poplack, 1978) implies that there is no assimilation of the borrowed word into the linguistic system of the borrowing language, it is not clear that nonce borrowing is a temporary phenomenon. Hence, in this study, the following will be used as the operational definition of nonce borrowing: 'Nonce borrowing is the temporary use of linguistic items from one language (EL) into the other (ML) which show no sign of grammatical adaptation to the linguistic structure of the borrowing language'.

In this section, the key concepts in this study have been discussed, with examples, in relation to what other scholars stated about them. From the above, it is clear that the semantic boundaries between these language contact phenomena are blurred. Hence the presentation of working definitions for each of the concepts that will apply in this study is an attempt to differentiate one concept from the other. On the basis of the above, in the present study, the researcher will only refer to two forms of borrowing, namely, 'borrowing proper' and 'nonce borrowing'. In addition, the three types of CS: (i) intra-sentential CS, (ii) inter-sentential CS, and (iii) tag-like / emblematic CS; as well as code-mixing will also apply. The terms: 're-borrowing' and 'double-plural marking' will not apply.

2.4: SOCIAL FUNCTIONS OF CS

Studies carried out by different scholars in different parts of the world have produced empirical evidence that CS is not random, and that it can be used to serve a wide range of communicative needs in bilingual interactions (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 60).

Bilingual speakers use CS as a communicative strategy that can perform a number of social functions. Speakers engage in CS to exploit the socio-psychological values that have come to be associated with different linguistic varieties within a specific speech community. Speakers switch codes to negotiate a change in social distance between themselves and the other participants in the conversation. This negotiation is conveyed through the choice of different codes (Myers-Scotton, 1993a).

Although the social functions of CS are not the main focus of the present study, they are, nonetheless, important in that the study will examine the role that CS plays in the classroom. In that regard, the data gathered for the study will be examined to determine whether it shows CS as a communicative strategy that serves a social function in the classroom, or a didactic function that is educationally beneficial, or both. The following are some of the social functions of CS cited by scholars:

2.4.1 CS signals one's identity or group identity (Akindele & Letsoela, 2001; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Kieswetter, 1995; Moodley, 2001: 56). This could be any of the following:

a. **Ethnic or cultural identity:** The speaker may switch from the language of the occasion (such as English) to his / her mother tongue. When CS is used in this way, it is said to be a 'sequential unmarked choice' as can be seen in the Markedness Model of Myers-Scotton (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Molosiwa, 2006: 101; Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 114). For instance, learners attending a Model C school (mainly an English-medium school) situated in a suburb of Johannesburg in South Africa, who are fluent in English, occasionally switch to Zulu (their first language) to demonstrate their ethnic identity and group solidarity (Kieswetter, 1995: 81). This is a school that uses only English as a LoLT. It is situated in a previously whites-only neighbourhood, but now some of the learners live in the same neighbourhood. For the majority of these learners, English is spoken at home to encourage them to be proficient in it.

Example:
Learner A: *Hey did you see* <u>*ukuthi bekumnandi kanjani e-choir nge-***Valediction**</u>**?** (**Hey did you see how nice the choir was at Valediction?**)
Learner B: <u>*Ngitshele mngane*</u> **how long did you practise**? (Tell me, friend …)

The example above demonstrates that the speakers switch from English to their mother tongue within the same conversational exchange, not because they cannot speak English adequately, but to show ethnic identity, solidarity and in-groupness identity (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61).

b. **Level of education/ Socio-economic class / Prestige** (Kieswetter, 1995; Molosiwa, 2006; Moodley, 2001; Tshinki, 2002): Often a speaker may switch from his first language to the official language that is regarded as prestigious, a language of intellectuals and achievers, and therefore associated with a higher social class than that of the speaker. This is usually the case in English, French, and Portuguese in many of their former colonies in Africa because these languages are held in high esteem. Therefore, if one speaks any one of them, it is a sign of the speaker's social position, status, and level of education. For instance, CS from Zulu to English by African learners attending a Model C school has already been described in 2.4.1a above. Although these learners can speak their mother tongue (Zulu) very well, they constantly switch to English to signal their socio-economic class. CS is the 'unmarked choice' for these learners (Kieswetter, 1995: 79-80). This is also common in Botswana. A speaker, often a government official addressing a gathering in Setswana, would switch to English to signal his / her level of education / socio-economic class.

c. **Authority** (Adendorff, 1993; Gila, 1995; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Kembo-Sure & Webb, 2000; Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Tshinki, 2002): Often when CS is used to show authority or power, it may also signal annoyance or anger by the speaker in authority.   Within the Markedness Model, CS used in this way is said to be a 'marked' choice (Myers-Scotton, 1993a; 132-133; Finlayson and Slabbert, 2001). To signal power or authority, the speaker normally changes the tone or pitch of his voice, either lowering or raising it, but often the latter to express emotions of anger or annoyance. That way, the speaker is performing a 'phatic function' (Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 132). Kembo-Sure and Webb (2000: 127) state that "Languages are embedded in the power relations in a country or community".

In Botswana, Setswana is the national language, therefore, power relations are embedded in it. Hence, if speakers of other local languages want to progress and to be recognized, they have to ensure that they learn Setswana, in addition to English, very

well. The same applies to English, French, and Portuguese in most of the former colonies. They are powerful languages that must be learnt by all who wish to gain upward social mobility. A speaker, especially someone in authority, would normally switch from any of the African languages to English or French or Portuguese, whichever is prominent in the specific African country, to assert his authority and power. It is rather interesting that in South Africa, only 8.2% of approximately 45 million of the population (Population Census of 2001 by Statistics South Africa) indicated that English was their home language, yet the language has come to dominate virtually all spheres of public life, be it education, politics, business, or the judiciary, to mention but a few. This is mainly due to the international status of English and its association with liberation among non-white South Africans, as well (Strydom, 2002: 200).

2.4.2 CS can be used to accommodate the other speaker(s) or listener(s) (Adendorff, 1993; Gila, 1995; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Kamwangamalu, 2000; Tshinki, 2002): The speaker would start off with one language and then switch to another language to accommodate those present. This form of CS is described by Finlayson and Slabbert (1997: 128) as 'meeting the addressee half-way with language'. This implies that while one is aware of his / her own linguistic identity, he/she offers other languages to indicate a spirit of willingness to accommodate and to show respect. According to Finlayson and Slabbert (1997: 133), "… *a disregard of this process is considered … as arrogant and also a form of alienation"*.

In this instance, CS is a 'sequential unmarked choice' within Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Myers-Scotton, 1993a); Finlayson and Slabbert, 1997: 130-132).

Additional functions associated with the accommodation function of CS are:

a. **Having an awareness of what the addressee prefers / A willingness to learn and experiment**: A speaker is aware of the code that the other speaker(s) prefers, switches accordingly to adapt to the code or codes that he / she is being offered, as illustrated in the following utterance made by teenagers who are friends (Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997:128):

*'Ha ke bua le Mozulu ke bua Sezulu, ha ke bua leMotswana Setswana **AND …***

***SO** ha ke bua le motho wa **LANGUAGE** e Ngwe ke **TRY**a ho bua*

LANGUAGE** ya gagwe gore a seke a re **I AM TRYING TO BE DIFFICULT

*ke ba **LIKE TRIBALIST'**.*

Translated to English, the above discourse means:

'When I speak with a Zulu I speak Zulu, when I speak with a Tswana,
Setswana and so when I speak with a person who speaks another language
I try to speak that language of him / her so that he / she cannot say I am trying
to be difficult or that I am a tribalist'.

In the instance above, the speaker is using CS to **display linguistic versatility** (Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Kamwangamalu, 2000): The speaker who wants to accommodate other speakers who may not share the same language as he or she, may initially use his language; recognizing that it is not intelligible to the other speaker; he / she may then switch to the next language he / she speaks. If the other speaker responds, it confirms that the chosen code is common to both speakers. This form of CS is common in the urban centres where people from different linguistic backgrounds migrate in search of jobs, as illustrated in the following example (Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997:130):

Speaker: ***Nna ke bua kaofela – SeZulu, le Sesotho, le Sepedi.***
    (Translated): *I speak everything Zulu, and Sotho, and Pedi.*

At times a speaker trying to accommodate another speaker of a different language would switch and try to speak the language of that speaker even though he may not know it well. By so doing, the speaker is trying to experiment with the other language. Here CS functions as an exploratory choice within the Markedness Model (Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Kamwangamalu, 2000: 62). CS is used this way in situations whereby the speaker is uncertain about the expected code choice; or the unmarked choice is not clear (Myers-Scotton, 1993a). When speakers do not know much about each other, the speaker who initiates the conversation uses exploratory CS to establish the unmarked choice of the addressee; not the unmarked

choice for a particular situation because 'they may know which situational factors are salient for such an exchange' (Myers-Scotton, 1993b: 176). A speaker who initiates a conversation in a particular language switches to another language when realizing that the initial language is not intelligible to the other speaker. If the nominated language is mutually intelligible to both speakers, their conversation will continue in that language, because they are satisfied that they have reached the balance of rights and obligations required for their conversational exchange (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 142-143; Kamwangamalu, 2000: 62).

b. Making an adaptation on the variety continuum of 'deep' to urban

(Finlayson and Slabbert, 1997: 129): A speaker may switch from one variety to the other of the same language to accommodate the other speaker who may be having difficulty understanding the 'deep' or 'pure' variety. This usually happens in an urban context where the variety of a language spoken, for instance, Zulu, may not be as 'pure' as the variety spoken in rural settings. The speaker of rural or 'pure' Zulu may need to water down or simplify his / her variety to be accepted. This is also the case with Setswana that is spoken both in Botswana and in South Africa. A Motswana from Botswana may need to switch to South African Setswana to be well understood in the Gauteng Province. Similarly, a Motswana from South Africa visiting Botswana may at times need to switch to a Setswana variety spoken in Botswana to be well understood. About this phenomenon, Finlayson and Slabbert (1997: 131) state that, … *switching to the preferred code of your addressee, in most cases … his / her first language would normally be interpreted as decreasing the social distance between participants, or a marked choice*.

2.4.3 CS as a deferential strategy (Myers-Scotton, 1993a): this happens when CS is used to accommodate oneself to the code of the addressee, especially when special respect is called for by circumstances, or when societal norms indicate it as appropriate. In this situation, when the addressee responds to the first speaker, instead of using the language used by the first speaker, he / she chooses a language that he / she feels is appropriate and respectful for the occasion. This form of CS may also be indicated by using 'honorific titles or indirect requests' as illustrated below (Myers-Scotton, 1993: 148):

Father: Where have you been? [English.]

Son: Onyango nendle adlu aora, baba. [Luo]

Translated: 'I've been to the river, father.' [English]

In the exchange above, the son chooses to answer his father in Luo (their home language) as a sign of respect for his father; and even uses the honorific title 'father' in Luo, instead of answering in English in which the conversation was initiated.

Similarly, the first Premier of the Free State Province, Matsephe-Casaburri, when addressing a gathering at her swearing-in ceremony in 1994, started off in English and then switched to Sotho, and then to Afrikaans to accommodate the speakers of these languages who were present (Kamwangamalu, 1998, in Kamwangamalu, 2000: 66-67).

2.4.4 CS to express confidentiality (Kamwangamalu, 2000; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Tshinki, 2002): When a speaker wishes to express confidentiality, he / she often switches from a language commonly understood by those present to a language only spoken and understood by those in whom he / she wishes to confide. Here CS is used for exclusion. For instance, members of a community may share a common language, but may also have speakers of different languages within the social group. If they wish to exclude some members of the group, they often switch to their own language so that the rest of the group is excluded from the conversation. This is also true with different social groups who may develop a language only understood by those within their social circle. They would switch to that language or code if they wish to communicate a message confidential to their social circle. In this instance, CS is used as a 'marked choice' within the Markedness Model (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 135-136). CS is an unexpected choice within that particular group and setting; but it is used to signal social distance among the participants.

2.4.5 CS used to show emphasis (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Gila, 1995; Hoffman (1991, in Tshinki, 2002; Kieswetter, 1995; Moodley, 2001; Tshinki, 2002): When a speaker wants to emphasise what he / she is saying, CS may be employed, usually in the form of an interjection, or a repetition, to clarify or to ensure that he/she is understood.

2.4.6 CS can be used due to the topic or subject that is being discussed (Blom & Gumperz, in Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Hoffman (1991, in Tshinki, 2002); Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Tshinki, 2002): When it is more appropriate to discuss a certain topic or subject in a certain language than in the one initially used, CS occurs. About this Hoffman (1991: 115, in Tshinki, 2002: 35) says, "Talking about a particular topic or subject may cause a switch, either because of lack of facility in the relevant register or because certain items trigger off various connotations which are linked to experiences in a particular language".

This form of CS often takes place where a particular language is inadequate to give a thorough description or explanation of what is being discussed. For instance, during the discussion of technical subjects or topics brought about by the introduction of Western technology in developing countries. Where an equivalent expression cannot be found in a local language, CS to a Western language from where the technology originates will take place. However, in the researcher's view, this is more borrowing than CS. The same observation was made by Kembo-Sure and Webb (2000: 123) when they stated the following: "*… technological changes have brought about the addition of new terms and words, as happened when computers became a feature of modern societies … ".*

This function is also referred to as a 'referential function' (Appel & Muysken, 1987: 118, in Gila, 1995) because it often involves 'a lack of knowledge of one language or a lack of facility in that language on a certain subject'. In such cases, a particular concept is better expressed in a foreign language and not in the mother tongue of the speaker, hence the need to switch from one language to the other. This is often confused with 'nonce borrowing' discussed in 2.3.5 above.

2.4.7 CS for closure: (Blommaert, 1992, in Kamwangamalu, 2000; Nwoye (1992, in Moodley, 2001): A speaker addressing a group of people during a formal ceremony uses the official language. For instance, in Botswana, English is the official language during official ceremonies. At the end of the speech, the speaker may switch to his / her first language or to the national language (Setswana) to make an utterance that marks closure. He / she may utter the word 'pula' that literally means 'rain', but in this instance, the speaker is not using the word 'pula' in its literal sense. He / she is using it

to say, "Let there be prosperity, peace and happiness". To the people of Botswana, 'rain' brings good things. Because the country is very hot and dry, when it rains, their fields flourish and they get good harvests, the temperature cools down, and the people and their animals have enough food to eat and enough water to drink. The word 'pula' in Botswana is used with respect because it is also the name of the national currency.

2.4.8 CS to quote another speaker (Moodley, 2001; Liebscher & Dailey O'Cain, 2004): CS occurs when a speaker addressing a group of people would like to borrow the words of another speaker or writer and use them verbatim. If the speech is being presented in a language different from the one in which the words to be borrowed are in, the speaker switches to that language to quote the speaker; and then switches back to the language of the occasion to present his speech in order to explain what the quoted words actually mean.

2.4.9 CS as a strategy for neutrality (Myers-Scotton, 1993a): here a speaker avoids speaking only one code so as not to commit himself / herself to a single Rights and Obligation set (RO set). The speaker employs two codes at the same time because he / she realizes that 'the use of each of the two codes has its value in terms of the costs and rewards which accrue with its use' (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 147). Therefore, CS is used as a middle path regarding these costs and rewards.

Despite the various social functions of CS articulated above, CS was not an accepted phenomenon in certain societies. For instance, during the socialist era in Tanzania, CS between English and Swahili was considered undesirable and a remnant of colonialism. Grosjean (1982), quoting Mkilifi (1978: 144-145) says: *There is a school of thought which believes that in a situation like that obtained in Tanzania the multinguals concerned fail to master perfectly one of the languages they operate in ...*. However, the attitudes have since changed in favour of English. For instance, Kamwangamalu (2004), quoting Mafu (1999) states that in Tanzania, while expressing official support for Swahili-medium instruction, the elite generally send their own children to 'English academies' that is, to private English-medium schools that have mushroomed in Tanzanian urban centres.

In Ghana, Forson (1979: 200, in Guerini, 2006) reported negative attitudes towards English / Akan CS. CS was either tolerated or condemned, and where it occurred it was denied. Lawson & Sachdev (2000: 1344-1345) reported on the negative attitudes towards CS by a Norwegian visitor to the USA who disapproved of English / Norwegian CS by Norwegian immigrants and referred to it as no language, and a gruesome mixture of Norwegian and English which he was not sure whether to take it seriously or not. Lawson and Sachdev (2000: 1345) further reported on other cases of negative attitudes towards CS in Morocco where its users are seen as suffering from 'colonial hangover'. In Nigeria it is referred to as "verbal salad", and Gibbons (1987, in Lawson & Sachdev, 2000: 1345) reported that in Hong Kong, students found it irritating. Furthermore, Farahlexis (2009) reported that in the Philippines, there were positive, neutral and negative attitudes towards English-Philipino CS. Some of the negative attitudes expressed were that CS: poses a threat to the speakers' ethno-linguistic identity; contributes to communication breakdown because it makes the conversation 'hard to understand'; is used to boastfully assert an individual's education and socio-economic background and social class; was regarded as an insult to the local language and therefore irritating; and a sign of 'colonial hangover'.

Having discussed some of the social functions of CS, it remains to be seen if CS in the classroom performs didactic / educational functions or social functions or both, especially where a second language or even in some instances, a third language is used. However, it is important to review some of the existing literature on CS in education which will inform the present study. A detailed review of some of the literature is undertaken in the following section.

2.5 CS IN EDUCATION

Although research on CS in the classroom has been undertaken in many parts of the world, it is still a relatively under-researched area in Africa, particularly in this part of Africa. Going through the South African research database, only a handful of studies were on CS in the classroom. Some of the known studies on CS in an educational environment are: Adendorff (1993), Gila (1996), Moodley (2001) and Mqadi (1990). There is abundant literature available on CS in domains other than the classroom. Even where the domain was a school or institution of learning, focus was on CS

outside the classroom (for example, Kieswetter, 1995; Moyo, 1996). The situation is even worse in Botswana where CS generally and CS in education in particular as a researchable area has been neglected by scholars for a long time. In some studies where it appears, such as in Janson and Tsonope (1991) and Nyati-Ramahobo (2004) it is only mentioned in passing. However, Molosiwa (2006) discussed CS in education in relation to the analysis of the official language (English) perspective to literacy teaching and learning even though the focus of her work was not on CS per se. She raised a number of important issues which will be pursued later in this chapter.   In Botswana, it is only recently that researchers have begun to study CS. Some of the known studies are Arthur (2001), Letsebe (2002), Ramando (2002) and Tshinki (2002). It is the former two studies that specifically focused on CS in the classroom. The latter two focused on CS in a non-teaching / learning situation. Tshinki (2002) focused on CS in a social setting, while Ramando (2002) focused on CS in the media. All the studies cited above, will be reviewed as well as the following: Akindele and Letsoela (2001), Hussein (1999), Lawson and Sachdev (2000), Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2004) and Martin-Jones and Saxena (2001), as they also discuss CS in the classroom.

CS in the classroom has been neglected by researchers although it is generally acknowledged that it does take place. Some of the reasons for this apparent neglect are: the stigma often associated with CS in education which is often viewed as a sign of linguistic deficiency on the part of its users (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 60); its users deny that it exists (Arthur, 2001: 61-62); it is found to be 'irritating' (Lawson and Sachdev, 2000: 1345); and a combination of policy makers' neutral and negative attitudes towards its use in the classroom (Ferguson, 2003: 38). However, scholars in Africa have now begun to see CS in the classroom as a fertile ground for research as observed by Christa van der Walt (2004: 164) in her article on South African Englishes that:

> The challenge, it seems, is to acknowledge this state of affairs and create space in which to grow tolerance for non-standard varieties of English and for other languages (in other words, for linguistic diversity). This opens up new avenues for research, for example into code-switching practices in the classroom.

She further observed that the *South African Association for Language Teachers Journal* is actively looking for articles on CS.

Webb (2002: 58) in his discussion of LoLT in tertiary institutions in South Africa noted that:

> Sociolinguists call the use of two languages in the same context with the same functions **code-switching**, and it seems to be mentioned more and more in the South African debate on LoLT as a possible "answer" to the problem of selecting an LoLT in multilingual teaching institutions. However, to my knowledge the educational effect of code-switching has not been researched…..

The observations above, made by these two scholars, acknowledge that little is known about the educational effects of CS. What they said confirmed the same sentiments expressed by other scholars, among them Arthur (2001), Ferguson (2003: 38), and Kamwangamalu (2000: 60). On the basis of the above, the present study, although based on the Botswana situation, intends to address this knowledge gap. The study undertakes to answer the main questions regarding CS use in the classroom; that is, is the phenomenon that occurs in the classroom really CS? Does it signal a lack of linguistic proficiency on the part of its users? Does it have any educational and / or language development value? It is hoped that the answers to these questions will inform all stakeholders in the education system, more especially the policy makers, so that they can make an informed judgment regarding the use of what is termed CS in the classroom. Similarly, the teachers, who are the executors of this phenomenon, will also become aware of the consequences of its use in the education system. These include, among others, the acquisition of knowledge across school subjects generally; and the effect of its use on the acquisition of competency and fluency in English as an important language of education, career and job prospects in particular.

As already mentioned, research on CS in the classroom is relatively new compared to research on CS in non-formal domains. Nonetheless, a number of the studies cited above are reviewed below to determine their relevance to the present study, highlight their strengths as well as their limitations with the intention to address the latter in the present study.

Arthur (2001) investigated the role of CS in the classroom through an ethnographic study characterized by lesson observations, questionnaire interviews and direct interviews. Her study focused on two Standard Six (South African Grade 5) classes at two schools located in two different places in northern Botswana. In one place the language of the community was predominantly Setswana (the national language), while in the other the language of the community was Ikalanga (one of the minority languages). In both cases English was the LoLT. According to Arthur (2001: 61), the teachers:

> operated under conditions of tension between institutional pressure to adhere to language policy, that is, the exclusive use of English in the classroom, and their professional and personal instincts to code-switch in response to the communicative needs of their pupils.

From this study, Arthur made a number of observations which led to some important conclusions. Some of the observations were that teachers used CS to perform the following functions in the classroom: to fulfil pragmatic functions such as to give encouragement or praise or reproof to individual learners; (used discourse-related CS in the form of contextualization cues) to capture the learners' attention when moving between stages of the lesson or back to the main topic of the lesson; and (used tag-switches) to prompt learners to respond to the teacher's monologue in the form of 'a chorus of minimal responses'(Arthur, 2001: 62).

CS from English to Setswana was the monopoly of the teacher and the learners were not allowed to code-switch. Where it was made available to them, the learners rejected it because they viewed its use as breaking the ground rule of using English as the LoLT. Learners did not CS to Setswana to make a contribution to the lesson, but rather, to apologize to themselves for failing to respond correctly to the question. Some learners chose to remain silent in class, or mumbled an answer as they were ashamed to give a wrong answer loudly in English, lest they made a grammatical error. As a result, the insistence that the learners use English in the classroom denied them the freedom to use their first language, and consequently stifled their participation in the lesson.

Because the official policy was that English is the LoLT for all lessons except Setswana lessons, and that the learners had to be prepared for primary school-leaving examinations to be written in English, the teachers were compelled to use English predominantly and to use Setswana minimally even though they recognized the benefits of using Setswana to clarify the material learners did not understand. English was used as 'a center-stage language', while Setswana was 'a back-stage language' (Arthur, 2001: 69). For instance, learners were expected to answer questions fully in English in the classroom, while conversations between the learners or even between the learners and their teachers outside the classroom took place in Setswana or Ikalanga depending on the participants' repertoires and preferences. Arthur (2001: 72-73) further observed that at other times CS to Setswana signalled Setswana as:

> …'the language of complicity'…teacher and pupils are mutually interdependent in that all need to keep up the appearance of effective activity in the classroom and of fulfilment of their respective roles. Any problems that arise must, therefore, be glossed over or kept backstage.

This implied that CS to Setswana at times did not occur for any educationally worthy purpose, but rather to gloss over some obvious learning difficulties so that it appears as if learning was taking place.

Arthur (2001) concluded that although it was evident that CS occurred in the classroom, the teachers were, however, ashamed and reluctant to admit to its use. They did not want to be seen to be deviating from the official policy of using English as the LoLT. The requirement to teach in English inhibited learner participation due to their lack of fluency in this language. The teachers at times had to ignore the fact that learners had difficulty with the language of learning because they were preparing them to eventually write their examinations in English.

The observations and conclusions made by Arthur (2001) were very important. They implied that CS took place in the classroom because the teachers realized that the learners had a problem with English as the LoLT and, that when English was used throughout the lesson, there was less learner participation. This implied that either the learners did not understand some part of the lesson, or even if they understood, they

failed to participate in the discussion of the lesson because they could not express themselves well in English. However, where some parts of the lesson were presented in Setswana, teaching became more effective as learners participated more. It appears therefore, that the issue in this instance was the language problem. However, it is important to note that the use of CS in this instance was largely for social purposes rather than academic purposes. Hardly any material which was presented in Setswana was of any educational value. However, that does not imply that reinforcements and / or praises are not important to the teaching and learning processes.

While Arthur's study and the present study are essentially similar, the present one is based on the senior level of secondary education, Forms Four and Five classes which are the terminal stages of secondary education, but Arthur's study focused on the primary level of education. Arthur focused on three subjects namely; English, Mathematics and Science, while the present study, in addition to Science and English, also focused on History and Home Economics, which are content and practically-based subjects respectively, as well as Setswana as a language subject taught in the school. The latter was included as CS in the classroom was likely to occur between English and Setswana. It therefore remains to be seen if the current study will produce results similar to or different from those produced by Arthur (2001)'s study.

Kieswetter (1995) also investigated the use of CS in a school situation. Her study focused on the conversational patterns of African high school learners in three different schools. One was a rural school in KaNgwane, another was a school in Soweto (a township outside Johannesburg), and the third was a Model C school in a suburb in Johannesburg. In the first school, CS was between Zulu / Swati and English; in the second school, CS was between Zulu and English (and to some extent Afrikaans); and in the third school, CS was between Zulu and English. In all three schools the LoLT was English. The following observations were made at each school:

KaNgwane School

Boys tended to use more Swati than girls especially in the greeting and parting phases of a conversation in order to establish solidarity. Girls sometimes switched to Swati when talking to boys. The conversations of the learners had an overall pattern of code-

mixing as 'the unmarked choice' for them; and they used borrowings and re-borrowings. The dominant language (Matrix Language) was Zulu / Swati while English was the Embedded Language (EL). Sometimes learners switched completely to English to make a marked choice in order to emphasize or highlight a particular point. However, this occurred seldom and such switches were relatively short.

Although the school was supposed to be an English medium school, the teachers often resorted to using the mother tongue in order to explain the work more clearly. The teachers also tended to speak more in their mother tongue, but when they *code-switched*, they used actual CS while the learners used more *code-mixes*. This Kieswetter attributed to the fact that the teachers had achieved a much higher level of education.

Kieswetter attributes greater use of Zulu / Swati to the fact that the learners used these languages a lot both at school and at home. She asserts that it is the context which is responsible for the type of overall conversational pattern found among learners. The learners are not surrounded by people speaking English every day, so they tend to use Zulu / Swati more and included mixed forms and English insertions as an indication of some knowledge of English. Although these learners are able to speak English, they do not seem to attach much importance to it.

From the above, one can deduce that to these learners, English is only a language of learning as required by the school; as soon as the learning ceases, so is its use. Also their frequent use of Zulu / Swati may be a sign of lack of confidence in expressing themselves in English. This again brings up the language issue, that is, is English the appropriate medium of learning for these learners? This is also demonstrated by the use of Zulu / Swati by the teachers in the class where they feel that learners do not seem to understand what is being said in English. Again the question is, is the phenomenon here really CS or repetition of material in another language? And what is the cause of this phenomenon? The present study will attempt to uncover the reason behind this phenomenon.

Soweto high school

The study focused on learners who were mainly Zulu speaking and Kieswetter found that their conversational patterns were very similar to those of learners at the KaNgwane high school. Their conversations displayed an overall pattern of CM as the unmarked choice with Zulu being the Matrix Language and English, and at times, Afrikaans being the Embedded Languages. This Kieswetter attributed to the fact that these learners are constantly surrounded by their mother tongue at school and at home. However, she noted that the relative frequency of *code switches* is higher within the Soweto context than at KaNgwane School. This could be due to the urban nature of Soweto where there is free interaction between learners from this Soweto school and those attending Model C schools. In addition, these learners have access to television programmes and shopping centres in Johannesburg where English is predominantly used.

Again fluency in English language seems to be the central issue here. The nature of switching seemed to be determined by how fluent in English the learners were.

Model C school in a Johannesburg suburb

The study also focused on Zulu speakers. These learners comprised only 7% of the school population and as such the school was predominantly English speaking. English was the LoLT, a language of authority at school and a language of interaction outside the classroom for the majority of the learners. It was also a language spoken at home (some of these learners, although of African origin, lived in the neighbourhood suburbs while others lived in Soweto and other townships).

The following observations were made: There was a marked difference between the conversational patterns of these learners and those in the previous two schools. Larger switches were made to English during the period of discourse. There was an overall pattern of CS as the unmarked choice in their conversations which carried social meaning to indicate their identities - first their ethnic and group identity as Zulu, secondly their social identity – their status and level of education. Although a lot of English was used within a conversation, Zulu was still the Matrix Language and English the Embedded Language. Because the majority of the learners and the

teachers at the school were English speaking (English is their mother tongue), the learners of African origin were exposed to spoken English more than their counterparts at the other two schools. As a result, their conversational patterns were influenced by constant exposure to English. Because English was the language of learning and authority, and was also viewed as the language of achievers, a high value was attached to it by these learners and their parents. Consequently, it was also spoken at home. For these learners both Zulu and English represented different sets of social meanings and therefore they freely code-switched between the two languages depending on what social meaning they wanted to convey during a conversation. As a result, they used both languages almost equally within conversations. The overall speech pattern included CS, code-mixing, borrowings, and re-borrowings or what Kamwangamalu (1997) refers to as double plural marking. However, as earlier argued, in the researcher's view, what Kamwangamalu refers to as reborrowing or double plural marking is, in fact, borrowing proper.

In summary, the study showed that there was more CS at the Model C School but there was more code-mixing at the KaNgwane and Soweto schools. However, learners at the Soweto school displayed more instances of CS than those at KaNgwane. It is interesting to note that for the learners at the Model C School, CS was a sign of fluency in both languages and confidence to speak English, while at the other two schools CS was more due to a lack of fluency and lack of self-confidence by these learners to express themselves in English.

Although the study demonstrated that there was both CS and CM in all three the contexts, it did not shed light on their educational effects. This is the deficiency in Kieswetter's study. Also, the examples given in the study are of discourse which occurred in social and informal situations but not in a formal classroom situation; hence it was not clear if CS or CM was of any didactic value. Furthermore, in all instances, only the conversational patterns of the learners were given but not those of their teachers; hence it was not possible to judge when teachers used CS, how, and why. The present study will present the utterances of both the teachers and the learners whenever possible in order to examine their use of CS.

Moyo (1996) carried out a pilot study on CS at the University of Zululand among participants he considered to be competent bilinguals. The participants were Zulu-English, Afrikaans-English, Xhosa-English, and Sotho- English speakers. All four groups had English as their second language (L2). They were all degree holders working either as academic or administrative staff. Moyo (1996: 20) concluded that CS among competent bilinguals was not a result of a lack of proficiency in L2 but rather:

> a spontaneous expression of their ambivalent psychological state, where there is a strong dual inclination to use both their L1 and L2 in specific communicative situations.

Various reasons were advanced by the participants for CS from their first language (L1) to their second language (L2). Some of the reasons were: they *code-switched* in order to maintain a freer flow of communication among those who share a common L1; to identify with both languages the speaker spoke; to show group solidarity and to show association with the cultures of those languages; generally, CS from L2 to L1 at work was meant to ensure that the speaker's first language is not relegated to a lower status compared to English which was associated with professionalism, science and technology. However, some admitted that they *code-switched* due to the inadequacy of their L1 to express professional concepts. From this study, Moyo (1996: 26-27) concluded that:

> this subsequent discourse constitutes a mode of expression or register in its own right. We could therefore describe this register as a third variety which the speakers themselves clearly recognize as their appropriate mode, particularly in many social and informal conversations.

However, the question is, can CS be regarded as a third variety? Does it have its own vocabulary? Does it have its own speakers? In the researher's view, by definition, CS is not a third register; it is a language behaviour pattern. What can be considered a third register, is CM rather than CS. Moyo (1996: 27) went on to say:

> It is generally observed in African contexts, that the use of English and an African language may well point to the class or the elite. Code-switching therefore

becomes the marker of some ambivalent ethnic identity, which usually indicates
the speakers' dual affiliation to the two cultures.

Again the question here is: does CS really indicate some identity? If so, which identity is that? In the researher's view, CS between one's L1 and English is more of a sign of educational level than ethnic identity. Even then, CS performs different functions. So it is difficult to assume that its use in a particular instance is a sign of one's dual affiliation with the cultures associated with the languages in use. Furthermore, the use of CS does not necessarily imply complete fluency in both languages or even complete understanding of the cultures of the speakers of those languages, especially the language which is not one's mother tongue.

Moyo (1996) further observed that more competent bilinguals tended to use intra-sentential CS, while less competent bilinguals tended to use inter-sentential CS in the form of 'emblematic' switches. These may be fixed expressions which comprise discourse particles, interjections and tags which tended to be well interspersed in their speech in order to give the impression that they were balanced and competent bilinguals. However, from the study it is not clear how Moyo (1996) measured the English competenc of the bilingual speakers.

Furthermore, even though the setting for this study was an academic environment, it did not focus on CS in the classroom but rather on the use of CS in formal and informal situations outside the classroom. Hence it will not inform the present study to any marked extent.

Akindele and Letsoela (2001) examined the use of CS in secondary and high schools in Lesotho as an instructional strategy. The study involved teachers of Science / Mathematics, English Language and Literature, Geography, and Development Studies in urban and semi-urban secondary and high schools. This study is very similar to the current one except that it focused on the teachers only while the present study focuses on both the teachers and learners. In addition to Science, language and content subjects, the current study also includes a practical subject. Akindele and Letsoela (2001) did not include a practical subject. However, the results of their study are very

important to the current study as they raised a number of pertinent questions which the current study will also seek to address.

From the study, the following observations were made: almost all the teachers (except non-Sesotho speakers), irrespective of the locale and the subjects they taught, code-switched; strongly agreed that CS facilitated teaching and learning because it 'enhanced content delivery, and allowed both the academically-strong and the academically-weak learners to participate actively in the lesson'; that even non-Sesotho speaking teachers who could not code-switch used CS through other learners by allowing those who understood 'to explain concepts in Sesotho to the weaker ones' (Akindele and Letsoela 2001: 92). Teachers code-switched at any point in the lesson and tended to code switch at inter-sentential rather than at intra-sentential level.

CS was used for various purposes such as to mark transition from one stage of the lesson to another, to explain difficult concepts, and to praise good performance, response or behaviour. Similar observations were made by Arthur (2001). In the latter, CS was a positive reinforcement tool when a learner had responded correctly to the teacher's question. However, in the researcher's view, this was more of a socio-psychological function than a didactic one because CS was not used to present the lesson content but to acknowledge the learner's contribution to the lesson. However, Akindele and Letsoela (2001) determined that the downside of CS use in the classroom was that it did not enhance the learners' academic performance. It seemed here academic performance was based purely on how well the learners expressed themselves either in speaking and writing. However, this was inadequate as this view was not based on the learners' achievement in graded work such as tests and assignments or even examinations.

CS did not improve the learners' spoken and written communication in English. Even though concepts had been explained to the learners through the CS strategy, they still found it difficult to explain the same concepts in English. This was an indication that the learners lacked proficiency in English hence they were unable to demonstrate through speaking that they had understood concepts explained earlier in Sesotho. CS also did not improve the learners' written communication because it was limited to spoken communication.

From the observations made above, it is clear that the phenomenon of CS was prevalent across the subjects observed in the schools that were under study. However, these observations raise a number of pertinent questions: Can the phenomenon that occurred in these lessons really be termed CS as per the universal definition of CS by different scholars? If it does not fit this definition, what then is it, and what is the underlying cause of the occurrence of this phenomenon? It is interesting to note that while teachers generally agreed that CS enhanced content delivery and increased understanding and participation, it did not improve the learners' academic performance nor did it improve their spoken and written communication; the latter in English. This observation was strange and contradictory because if CS enhanced content delivery and learner participation, it means that learning was taking place, so academic performance should naturally be enhanced. Again if CS did not improve spoken and written communication in English, can we rightly say it is an effective instructional strategy? Or is it a hindrance to the learners' acquisition of English as a second language, which is important to master due to its status as the prescribed LoLT? Again if learners cannot explain concepts in English explained to them in Sesotho, does this not signal that the issue here is not the difficulty of a given subject or its concepts, but rather, the language-in-education policy problem given that learners seem to understand the presentation of a lesson in Sesotho better than when it is presented in English? Can we not then ask if, in this instance, English as a LoLT is effective? Is the language of instruction not the barrier? Are the learners not being instructed in a language they have not mastered, hence their difficulty in following the lessons?

Furthermore, if non-Sesotho speaking teachers allowed some learners who had understood the lesson to explain to the other learners in Sesotho, can we say this is CS or mere repetition of the same material in the learners' first language? Was that not really a waste of teaching time as it amounted to repetition in Sesotho of the same lesson material earlier presented in English? Can this strategy then not have a negative effect of boredom among those learners who had understood the material in the first instance when it was presented in English? Again where CS was used as a positive reinforcement tool, it appears that its function was more social than academic. The issues raised from the review of this study will be further explored in the current study.

Akindele and Letsoela (2001) also observed that teachers tended to code-switch inter-sententially rather than intra-sententially. This was in contrast with what Moyo (1996) observed in the setting he studied. Moyo observed that more fluent bilinguals tended to code-switch intra-sententially rather than inter-sententially. This contrast is important to note because teachers are supposed to be fluent bilinguals. Therefore, if intra-sentential CS is associated with fluency in both languages, then the teachers at the Lesotho setting should code-switch intra-sententially not inter-sententially. The present study will thus take this contradiction on board and establish whether it is intra-sentential, or inter-sentential CS, or both, and which are used more by fluent bilingual speakers.

In the researcher's view, Akindele and Letsoela (2001) made a number of important observations and arrived at some important conclusions. However, through the present study, the researcher will seek to answer the questions that arise from their study which are at the thrust of the current study.

Martin-Jones and Saxena (2001) investigated the effectiveness of a new form of educational provision known as "bilingual support" which had been developed for bilingual learners from minority ethnic groups primarily in multilingual urban areas of England. In this study, the researchers were, in fact, observing CS in the classroom. The main aim of this form of educational provision was to provide access to the curriculum until the learners had acquired sufficient English to make the transition to monolingual education through the LoLT. Their study involved a number of schools in the Northwest of England and the majority of the learners were from Panjabi, Urdu or Gujarati speaking communities. Essentially teaching was mainly done by a monolingual English-speaking teacher with the assistance of a bilingual assistant who explained what had been said in the language(s) of the learners. In some situations, the lesson would first be introduced in the learners' language(s) and then a monolingual teacher would take over in English. This strategy was meant to assist the learners to follow the lessons without being disadvantaged by the lack of understanding of English as the LoLT.

What was taking place in this situation was the presentation of the same material in two different languages in a class to maximize understanding and learning for the

benefit of the learners. The strategy was meant to address the language problem. The learners were being assisted to learn English and at the same time to follow the curriculum without suffering the setback of lagging behind in the curriculum. Although Martin-Jones and Saxena (2001) refer to this strategy as a form of CS, in the researcher's view, it was mere repetition of the same material initially presented in one language, and then repeated in the other language. It is therefore doubtful if this strategy can be rightly referred to as CS when the two scholars said:

> What was common to both teaching / learning events …was that the monolingual teachers assumed the principal speaking rights. They took the floor whenever they deemed it to be appropriate. They allocated turns to the bilingual assistants and shaped the patterns of **code-switching** across turns.

In the researcher's view, the repetition of the same information is not synonymous with CS. The strategy they used worked as an instructional strategy as in the Lesotho study (Akindele & Letsoela, 2001), however, it is still questionable to refer to that strategy as CS. The current study seeks to address this knowledge gap.

Furthermore, it is important to note that this strategy was appropriate for the setting above because England is mainly a monolingual country; therefore the gradual instructional transition from bilingual to monolingual instruction in English was appropriate. However, in situations where English is a second or even a third language, such as in Botswana, this strategy is bound to raise some problems. That is, the education system may be construed as trying to build a monolingual country directed to a foreign language. This does not mean that even in the situation on which Martin-Jones and Saxena (2001) focused, such problems as deculturalization of the learners could not be questioned. Furthermore, one is bound to ask why it is considered paramount for the learners, such as those in the study under discussion, to learn English so that they can learn only in it, while the same does not apply to the learners whose mother tongue is English when they are in a country like Botswana. The native speakers of English are not even required to learn Setswana, let alone being instructed in Setswana. This shows how protective the native English speakers are of their language and culture. They are aware that the two are inseparable. A fact most

governments in former colonies fail to realize and appreciate is that by prescribing that English be a LoLT, they are in the process killing their own languages and cultures. This issue will be discussed further in Chapter Eight on interpretation and discussion of the study results.

Because of the difference in the two situations, the results of the study above will not have much bearing on the Botswana situation because in Botswana, English is a second and a foreign language whereas in England it is the main local language. However, English also function in High Function Formal Context (HFFC) unlike Setswana which is a national language but with limited functions in formal contexts, such as in education in Botswana. Over and above, English is recognized as the international language for education, career and commerce.

Adendorff (1993) studied CS amongst Zulu-speaking teachers and learners. The study focused on the use of CS in a classroom environment as well as its use in administrative matters. The three classes that were involved were English Language, Biology, and Geography, and it was found that CS in all three instances was used to perform the following functions: In the English lesson, CS was used to ensure understanding, to encourage the learners to participate in the lesson, and to mark solidarity. CS was further used as the language of provocation, that is, to raise an issue so that the learners can participate in the discussion. In the Biology lesson, switches were used as contextualization cues to check if the learners were following the lesson, and also to encourage them to have a positive attitude towards the lesson, as well as to mark solidarity. In the Geography lesson, CS was used to establish authority and to exercise classroom control.

In all the lessons of the three subjects, CS was used in the classroom more to perform social functions than to perform a didactic function. Adendorff (1993: 13) acknowledged this fact when he said:

> …the Geography lesson illustrates the teacher's heavier reliance on Zulu to accomplish social objectives…, the Geography teacher uses Zulu as the means of exercising classroom management, rather than as a vehicle for transmitting academic knowledge.

Furthermore, Adendorff (1993: 9-10) confirms the minimal use of Zulu for academic purposes in class when he says:

> Why, one might wonder, does the teacher switch briefly to Zulu… What is the implicit meaning which Zulu conveys? Clearly the words in Zulu…add nothing new by way of content. This fact reinforces the likelihood that if the Zulu words are communicatively significant, it is not because of their semantic content, but because they constitute a meta-message of some kind.

Therefore, the study, although conducted in the classroom situation, largely demonstrated the social function of CS in the classroom in the form of classroom management, and minimally for content delivery.   However, classroom management is educationally positive as it reinforces learning.

Even outside the classroom, the use of CS by the school head signalled its use to ensure understanding of the message imparted which was also important in an educational environment. This implied that the learners at times had problems comprehending the message presented in English. As such, English was more of a barrier to communication than a facilitator.

Adendorff's study will, however, have a bearing on the present study because it was conducted in a similar environment as this one. One limitation of this study is that only switches made by the teachers were shown but not those made by the learners. This, therefore, hinders the evaluation of the learners' CS in the classroom.

Although CS was not the main focus of their study, Bissoonauth and Offord (2001) when investigating patterns of language use, language choice and language attitudes of Mauritian adolescents in full-time education, found out from teachers of the three subjects chosen for the study, namely Art, Economics, and Mathematics, that although English is the LoLT, they often switch to French and even Creole in the course of the lessons to match the linguistic ability of their learners 'with the aim of facilitating comprehension, since these two languages are best understood by the pupils'

(Bissoonauth & Offord, 2001: 396). To confirm this, one Science teacher was quoted as saying (Bissoonauth & Offord, 2001: 396):

> […] I am obliged to use it [Creole] when they [the pupils] do not understand certain topics like Maths, Science…

Arthur (2001), Kieswetter (1995), Akindele and Letsoela (2001) and Adendorff (1993) also made similar observations in their studies, viz. that CS in the classroom is mainly used to facilitate comprehension. If the role of CS is mainly to facilitate comprehension of instructional material, it implies that the learners do not grasp the lessons well when they are presented in English. This, therefore, implies that English as the LoLT is problematic in all the situations outlined above. It therefore, appears that in this study, like in other studies above, the underlying problem is the Language in Education Policy. Learners lacked proficiency in English yet they were receiving their education in this language, hence the use of CS in teaching and learning. Bissoonauth and Offord (2001), like other scholars, refer to the use of two languages in a classroom situation as CS. Their study does not provide analysis of the utterances made to determine if indeed it is CS that is being used, or if it is mere repetition of instructional material in two different languages. This is what is at the centre of the present study: to investigate the nature of this phenomenon, its causes, its strengths and limitations, and to suggest ways of how it can be rectified, if necessary.

Hussein (1999) and Lawson and Sachdev (2000) investigated CS in university environments in Jordan and Tunisia respectively. Although their studies focused on the attitudes of the participants towards CS, to some extent the two studies have some bearing on the present study as they were based on academic environments and the respondents based their responses on their use of CS within and outside the classroom environment. Both studies reported negative attitudes towards CS by their respondents because it was either seen as 'polluting' the Arabic language (Hussein, 1999: 6) or it was 'devalued', in a formal language learning environment (Lawson & Sachdev 2000: 1357).

Hussein (1999) reported that various studies showed that, ironically, anti-code-switching proponents themselves code-switched in the midst of their conversations

(see also Pandit, 1985: 17; Torres, 1989: 424, in Hussein, 1999). He further observed that some of them calling for the use of Classical Arabic, which is the high variety, to the exclusion of colloquial Arabic, a low variety, they themselves code-switch consciously or unconsciously to colloquial Arabic in their conversations. His study also confirmed this when his respondents (the learners) were of the view that the speakers of Arabic who code-switched or code-mixed with English were polluting the Arabic language. However, the same respondents indicated that they use CS for both academic and social purposes. In their academic conversations, they switch from Arabic to English when English terms have no Arabic equivalents, or where scientific concepts can easily be expressed in English. For social reasons, CS is used to greet, apologise, or to compliment a person. The limitation of this study is that the examples from the data were not provided; therefore the nature of CS could not be examined.

Lawson and Sachdev (2000) carried out two studies on attitudes towards CS at a university in Tunisia. In both studies, the participants reported very little CS in the classroom. This the two researchers attributed to the fact that participants in the study were mainly learners of English; and more so, that the general attitudes towards CS in a formal learning environment like the classroom, were negative. However, they observed that usually in an environment like the university, where status was important, it was possible for the participants to under-report their actual engagement in CS in favour of more prestigious varieties such as English, French, or Tunisian Arabic. Although Arabic was used to learn other subjects, its use during English lessons was discouraged. This confirmed the observation made by Kamwangamalu (2000: 60) that CS in educational settings carried a stigma of a lack of proficiency in L2 by the user. The present study wishes to investigate whether this stigma is justified or not.

Mqadi (1990) investigated CS among the learners at the University of Zululand. From his study it emerged that the learners code-switched more in informal situations than in formal situations because the latter normally did not accommodate CS. In informal situations, CS was used to show one's educational level, familiarity or affinity between speakers, group membership, to exclude other listeners and even out of habit. Mqadi (1990) observed that the learners at this university tended to switch between their languages and English because of the latter's status as the language of education,

science and prestige, but in formal situations like the classroom, when they code-switched from English to their mother tongue, it was when they were unable to come up with a correct word in English that appropriately put across the message they wanted to convey. It is, however, not clear whether the learners, in this instance, engaged in CS per se, or if it was nonce borrowing simply because they could not remember the appropriate word to use in the language being used; or whether it was due to a language deficiency. Therefore, in this study, CS mainly serves social functions. None of the functions outlined above indicate that CS served an instructional function -- to present the lesson content.

On the use of CS out of habit, Mqadi (1990) says most of the learners at this university code-switch because they come from the townships where people from different ethnic backgrounds live together, hence children grow up in an environment where CS is a common occurrence. Furthermore, when these children begin school, they are exposed to English and then Afrikaans. The dual learning of these two languages further encourages switching between their languages and the new languages they learn at school. In this context, CS is seen as playing a vital role in unifying different cultures while at the same time serving its basic function of facilitating communication. It enables its users to express their thoughts precisely. So if CS does facilitate communication, why can't the learners be allowed to employ their L1 so as to communicate effectively? Again, the question here is, "is what is taking place in the classroom really CS?"   The researcher is of the view that the study revealed the socio-psychological functions of CS. None of the functions outlined above indicated the educational effect of CS in the classroom. The main shortcoming of the study is that only a summary of the study was given and the actual data was not presented, hence it was not possible to evaluate it. Again the study only focused on CS among the learners and left out the lecturers.

Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2004) focused their study on learner CS in a foreign language classroom. Their study was based on a seminar for advanced learners of German at the University of Alberta, Edmonton in Canada. They conceptualized CS not only as a strategy for second language learning, but also as a resource for effective bilingual communication (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004: 503-504). As a strategy for second language learning, the learners were allowed to use English as the main

language of learning where they were deficient in German. That is, one's L1 plays a very important role in learning even if it is in the learning of another language.

Liebscher and Dailey O'Cain (2004) suggested that when the classroom is conceptualized as a bilingual space by both the students and the teacher, CS patterns emerge that are similar to those found in non-classroom situations. The members of this classroom view themselves as a community of practice which adjusts to rules and shared views about their actions and about themselves as members of a community. Through their practices, they show how such a community can facilitate their development from second language learners to bilinguals (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004: 502). The notion of this study is important to the current study because in Botswana, the learners are not only expected to learn English as a second language, but also to become competent bilinguals. Hence, like in this study, the classroom is conceptualized as a bilingual space. In analyzing the data, the researchers adopted Auer's conversation analysis approach (Auer, 1984). This approach is characterized by two main distinctions of CS functions -- discourse-related functions and participant-related functions. The former (discourse-related CS) organizes conversation by contributing to the interactional meaning of a particular utterance, and in the latter (participant-related CS), switches correspond to the preferences of the speaker who switches or those of other speakers partaking in the conversation (Auer, 1984, 1998, in Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004: 502). This distinction was originally based on the observations of bilingual interaction taking place outside institutional settings like schools; however, Martin-Jones (1995, 2000, in Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004: 502) argued later that this distinction could be applicable to the claasrrom environment because classrooms often comprise groups of people with differing language abilities and communicative repertoires.

From this study, it emerged that CS in the classroom follows two patterns; discourse-related and participant-related patterns. Unlike earlier studies which said only teachers can use discourse-related CS patterns while learners can only use participant-related CS, this study also demonstrated that both teachers and learners can use both discourse-related CS and participant-related CS. Teachers use discourse-related CS to make asides, to quote, and to move in and out of the teaching / learning context (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004: 503). Some of the discourse- related functions

that the learners can use CS patterns for are to show contrast, to sum up, to think aloud, to mark the content of a meta-linguistic comment (or to set-off an aside), to mark a quote, to mark a topic shift, to mark a change of footing and to mark a turn in a conversation (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004).

Participant-related CS patterns largely address the roles of the learners and the teacher in the classroom and the teaching context. Teachers use participant-related CS when they anticipate that the learners would not understand what is being said in the target language (usually L2), and therefore will use L1 to facilitate understanding. The same strategy was observed by Adendorff (1993), Akindele and Letsoela (2001), Arthur (2001) and Kieswetter (1995). The learners use participant-related CS when they use L1 in order to overcome a communication difficulty in a target language or language of instruction.

However, various uses of CS outlined in this study appear to be used more for social functions than didactic functions. Evidence of the didactic function of CS is minimal as in other studies (Adendorff, 1993; Arthur, 2001), except perhaps, when it is used to sum up or to mark a quote.

Again what comes to the fore in this study is that both the learners and their teachers appreciate the importance of communicating in one's first language in order to overcome communication difficulties. Therefore the question is, "can we say it is CS that is being employed in the classroom?" If it is not CS, then what do we call this phenomenon?

Applying the principle of participant-related CS, the present study will also investigate if Setswana is given any room in the learning of English as a second language and if so, whether the strategy is effective. The Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2004)'s study is similar to the current study in that both focus on the learners and the teachers in the classroom. However, the current study will, in addition to focusing on the target language, include a content-based subject and a practical subject. Thus, CS as a teaching and learning strategy will be observed across three categories of subjects, namely a language-based, a content-based, and a practical subject. Again like other previous studies, it seems that participant-related CS patterns are largely due to

inadequacy in the target language especially on the part of the learners. This is what the present study will address and also whether CS is of any didactic value; that is, whether CS use yields any positive educational outcomes or whether it acts as an impediment to effective learning.

Molosiwa (2006) in her work on 'secondary school teachers' perception of literacy instruction in an examination-oriented environment' touched on the role and effects of CS in the classroom. She asserted that CS exists in Botswana classrooms even though it is not officially sanctioned and therefore denied. She mentioned that CS is used to serve a number of communicative functions, some of which are to compensate for some language difficulties experienced, to express solidarity, to convey an attitude or to show respect (Molosiwa, 2006: 101). While the latter three functions were social, the first function 'to compensate for some (language) difficulty,' is of interest here. It implies that when a speaker encounters difficulty in self-expression in English, he or she would switch over to Setswana in order to provide continuity to the speech or vice versa. This scenario is in conflict with the definition of CS as espoused by different scholars and also subscribed to in the current work. Therefore, based on the data gathered for the current study, the researcher will revisit this issue in order to establish if indeed what takes place in Botswana classrooms is CS or not.

Letsebe (2002) is one of the few researchers in Botswana who investigated CS in the classroom. In fact, very little research has been undertaken on CS in Botswana as rightly observed by Tshinki (2002). Tshinki (2002) and Ramando (2002), independently researched CS in a social setting and in the media in Botswana respectively. In his interactional study, Letsebe (2002) focused on teachers' explanations and the learners' views on CS in selected primary schools in Gaborone (city), Tlokweng and Mogoditshane (peri-urban areas). From his study, Letsebe (2002) observed that many teachers code-switched in their daily teaching regardless of the subjects they taught. Some teachers reasoned that they CS in order to emphasize a point and to promote understanding among the pupils. Others said they CS because they had difficulty in expressing themselves in English. However, the learners did not object to the use of CS by their teachers. In fact, they felt more at ease when teachers code-switched to Setswana in class than when they taught in English.

From what the teachers and the pupils said, it appears that lack of proficiency in English as the LoLT was the central issue here and that what is termed CS seems to be repetition of the lessons in Setswana initially presented in English or delivery of the lessons in Setswana for most of the time. Furthermore, Letsebe (2002) raised a very important issue that if teachers use Setswana most of the time to teach in class so as to promote learning among the learners, are they really helping these learners who then are required to write their tests, assignments and even Primary School-Leaving Examinations (PSLE) in English? This important question the present study will seek to address; that is, to find out if CS is of any didactic value in a teaching and learning situation. Again the present study will attempt to determine if CS in the classroom is not a contravention of the Language in Education Policy (LiEP). The issue of LiEP is discussed further in the next section.

In conclusion, the studies reviewed above raise a number of pertinent questions which are central to the research problem under investigation in the present study. Some of the questions are: Is the phenomenon that occurs in the classroom really CS? If it is not CS, then what is it? It appears that in a number of these studies -- Adendorff (1993), Akindele and Letsoela (2001), Letsebe (2002), Martin-Jones and Saxena (2001) -- what is referred to as CS seems to be the presentation of lesson material in two languages. Some studies, Adendorff (1993), Akindele and Letsoela (2001), Arthur (2001), Bissoonauth and Offord (2001), Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2004), and Letsebe (2002) point out that the teachers use the learners' L1 instead of the official LoLT in order to accommodate the linguistic ability of the learners and to ensure that learning takes place. Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2004) refer to this strategy as participant-related CS. In that regard, the following questions arise: Are the scholars referring to the use of the learner's L1 as CS? If it is not the case, then what is the difference between the two? Is the use of any of the two strategies (if they are different) in harmony with the language in education policies that obtain at those institutions? Specifically, is CS an educationally effective strategy? What underlies the use of any of these strategies? What are its strengths and limitations in teaching and learning? What are the possible remedies to problems related to the use of this strategy? These questions will be answered in the present study in relation to the Botswana situation. The use of the learner's L1 or what several studies refer to as CS signals an underlying problem, which could be the language of instruction. This brings

into question the LiEP that applies at the respective institutions where these studies were conducted.   Therefore the following questions need to be asked: "Is the LIEP appropriate? Is it effective?"

Consequently, in its attempt to contribute towards bridging the knowledge gap in relation to CS in the classroom, the current study will, in addition to answering the issues raised above, also address what Kamwangamalu (2000: 60) calls the stigma that CS use in education carries: that it signals a lack of proficiency in the LoLT on the part of either the teacher or the learners or even both. This stigma is partly due to inadequate research of CS in educational settings such as the classroom. Van der Walt (2004: 164) attests to this inadequacy when she said there is renewed interest in CS research regarding its use in education. More importantly, Webb (2002: 58) stated that there is no research thus far that has addressed the educational effects of CS. This is the thrust of the present study. Many studies mention that CS is used in the classroom to perform academic functions; but looking at the studies discussed above, although most of them are directed at the classroom situation, the CS functions they identify are largely social or psychological. The researcher, however, does not imply that socio-psychological functions of CS are not important in teaching and learning. In fact, it is the psychological functions which are often referred to as academic. For instance, when CS is used as a positive reinforcement tool when the teacher uses it to praise, complement, or encourage a learner. In other instances, it is CM or some form of borrowing which are also referred to as instances of CS used to perform an academic function. However, the difference between these concepts has already been discussed earlier in this chapter. Therefore, CM or some form of borrowing cannot pass as examples of CS use for academic purposes. In the researher's view, evidence of the academic functions of CS has not yet been established. The current study will therefore attempt to address the issues raised above, and by so doing try to extend the frontiers of knowledge.

The occurrence of CS in the classroom contravenes Botswana's LiEP that states that English is the LoLT throughout the education system (Botswana Government White Paper No. 2, 1994). However, CS in the classroom also demonstrates that Setswana as a national language has an educational role to play.   In the next section, The LiEP of

Botswana will be discussed to establish whether or not it contributes to CS occurrence in the classroom.

2.6 BOTSWANA' S LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY (LIEP)

Botswana's LiEP gives prominence to English as the official LoLT. As alluded to in Chapter One, the status of English in education is historical. When Botswana gained independence in 1966, English was understood to be the LoLT, and Setswana was the LoLT at lower levels of primary school (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004; Molosiwa, 2006). However, the role that Setswana played in education was removed in 1993 when the second National Commission on Education (NCE 2) recommended that English be the LoLT from the second year of primary schooling and throughout the education system and that Setswana as a national language be a LoLT only in the first year of primary school. Thereafter, it is only learnt as a school subject in primary and secondary schools (Magogwe, 2005; Molosiwa, 2006). At the University of Botswana, Setswana is taught in English for reasons that are not clear to the researcher. The LiEP did not provide for the indigenous languages.

Botswana, like other ex-colonies of Britain opted to use the language of their former colonial masters in the education system that was a continuation of the colonial practice. According to Bokamba and Tlou (1977: 36, in Rammala, 2002: 74) in the African context, pedagogical considerations are not primary in influencing decisions relating to the use of particular languages as media or subjects of instruction, even though they are relevant. Rather, the LiEPs of most African countries are based on the following three practical considerations (Bokamba & Tlou, 1977, in Rammala, 2002: 75-76):

a. For efficiency and expediency: African languages were considered insufficiently developed to function as LoLT.
b. National unity or political considerations: African languages were perceived as politically divisive and seemed to encourage tribalism which was against the 'national unity' that many African states were striving to achieve after independence. Therefore the choice of ex-colonial languages or languages of wider communication (LWC) as LoLT was more political than pedagogical.

These languages were seen as a uniting force, and their choice as LoLT was designed to create the perception of a common destiny for the citizenry.

c. National progress: African languages were not associated with national progress that comes about as a result of industrialization and associated technological achievements. Ex-colonial languages were well established as LoLT and their use was perceived as symbolizing progress. Therefore many African governments opted for an easier solution of using ex-colonial languages as LoLT instead of developing their own local languages to the same status.

In Botswana, while English was chosen on similar grounds, the decision that it be taught in the first year of primary schooling and then used as LoLT from the second year onwards seems unrealistic. This approach is more theoretical than practical and it is doubtful if one can study a foreign language in one year and then be able to effectively function by using it in a learning situation. Botswana's LiEP is against Cummins' Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979). These concepts -- BICS and CALP-- are used to differentiate between social and academic language acquisition. The former (BICS) is required in social situations, and the latter (CALP) in formal academic learning environments.

According to Cummins (1979) one needs up to two years to acquire BICS in English in an environment where English is the main language such as in the USA or in the U.K., and approximately five to seven years to acquire CALP. Therefore, in the case of Botswana's LiEP, learners are exposed to English for one year (which is shorter than the period to acquire BICS) and then expected to function in it at CALP level. This approach manifests in problems such as a lack of understanding of the subject content owing to the lack of the required proficiency in English. The end result is low academic achievement among learners. Code-switching seems to be a possible solution to the language problem. Consequently, in the classroom, teachers continue to code-switch between English and Setswana in an effort to impart knowledge to their learners, and learners code-switch as well in an effort to participate in the learning process (Arthur, 2001; Letsebe, 2002).

The practice of CS appears to continue into secondary schools. The current study seeks to establish whether this is the case or not. The argument advanced by NCE 2 (1993) that the introduction of English at Standard 4 level was too late and contributed to the learners' lack of fluency in English was flawed. In fact, CS in the classroom appears to be a result of the very policy that was meant to address the problem of a lack of fluency in English among learners. This policy was a direct opposite of widely accepted results of research from many parts of the world that indicated that cognitive development was achieved faster in mother tongue instruction than when an LWC is used as LoLT in primary school education (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004; Rammala, 2002). In this regard Bamgbose (1991) questions why an asset that a child possesses should be ignored, and also states the following:

> Literacy through the mother tongue or any other language that the child already speaks means that he will not be grappling with two difficulties at the same time, that is, learning a new sound system and learning to represent such sounds in writing. Using the sound system of the child's language for teaching literacy means that he will only be concerned with how to reduce the sounds he already knows to writing; and once he has learnt to write such sounds, this should facilitate his writing of any other sounds ….(Bamgbose, 1991: 66)

The LiEP of Botswana is not only prescribing a foreign language as a LoLT but is also devaluing Setswana, hence giving a false impression that Setswana as a language is not capable of functioning at high function (Formal Context) level. Rammala (2002: 76) argues that:

> Every language can be put to any use … after careful consideration of the language situation is made and a number of necessary steps taken to develop, elaborate and revalorize the language. Any spoken language can be written and teaching and learning material can be developed in such languages.

Furthermore, Botswana's LiEP seems to ignore a number of disadvantages that result from the promotion of English at the expense of Setswana and other local languages: First, English generally lacks reinforcement outside the classroom because most learners (and even their teachers) view English only as a LoLT and it is hardly used outside the classroom between the teachers and learners. English is used by a few of

the privileged elite outside the classroom but the majority of the learners use their mother tongue. As a result there is no reinforcement of language acquisition between the school and the home. Second, the learners' inability to fully comprehend English is also detrimental to full comprehension of the lesson delivered in English. This has an adverse effect on learning and eventually the learners' academic success. Third, many of the school dropouts gradually lapse back into illiteracy after being detached from situations that require the use of English. This problem was acknowledged by the NCE 2 (1993) hence the recommendation that learners be allowed to learn their languages at school because

> "Literacy in these languages has the potential to provide pupils who drop out of the system with a fall-back position if they should lose literacy in English and Setswana" (NCE 2, 1993: 114).

Finally, the use of English as LoLT hinders the development of Setswana and its culture (including other local languages). This may create negative perceptions about Setswana that may result in learners considering Setswana as an academically unsuitable language. The end result may be alienation of the educated from the uneducated. A similar observation was made by Bokamba and Tlou (1977, in Rammala, 2002: 78) quoting Ansre (date not stated) that:

> … some Ghanaians look upon their own languages with a certain amount of shame, and regard them as not worthy for their children to learn.

Molosiwa (2006: 102) also made a similar observation that learners often ridicule their fellow learners who score high marks in Setswana and ask them if they plan to become Setswana traditional doctors.

On the basis of the aforementioned, Botswana's LiEP will be evaluated against the basic principles of language planning in order to determine whether its formulation adhered to these principles , and therefore meets the expectations of Botswana society. In that regard, an overview of what constitutes language planning is given below.

2.6.1 Language planning

In this section, the following will be discussed: language planning, language in education policy, what language is and its functions; and the role of language in education and its effect on human development.

Language planning forms the basis for any country's LiEP. Grin (1996: 31 in Strydom, 2002: 1) defines language planning as:

> … a systematic, rational, theory-based effort at the societal level to solve language problems with a view to increasing welfare. It is typically conducted by official bodies or their surrogates and aimed at part or all of the population living under its jurisdiction.

This implies that language planning does not address language problems only. Rather, it is a conscious effort on the part of decision-makers to explore a number of alternatives before formulating a policy that will meet the linguistic and developmental needs of the nation with the view to empower the citizenry by 'democratizing access to skills and knowledge, which in turn would ascertain equal participation in a national…economy' (Strydom, 2002: 39). It is evident from the definition above that language planning is a compulsory exercise that every multilingual country should undertake.

In deciding on a country's language policy, the decision- makers should ensure that the national language(s) and official language(s) meet the linguistic needs as well as the developmental needs of the nation-- in the case of Botswana, Setswana and English. Therefore, 'the question is not if language can be planned but rather how and by whom language can be planned.' Reagan (2002: 419). In response to this question Cooper (1989: 182, quoted in Reagan, 2002: 419) states that: to plan language is to plan society. This implies that language planning has a direct bearing on society, therefore it is important to actively involve the society for whom language is planned to ensure that all aspects related to linguistic and developmental needs are taken into account during the planning process. This will also ensure that the language policy which is the by-product of language planning is relevant, succeeds and enjoys popular support of its beneficiaries, which is the citizenry of the country at large.

Language planning involves public decisions about language, its use, status and development (Reagan, 2002: 419). These decisions have social, economic, educational and political significance for society and the individual. This is so because language planning can serve opposing functions; as a tool for empowerment and as a tool for oppression (Batibo, 2004: 33; Kamwangamalu, 2004: 243; Webb, 1995: 85). As a tool for empowerment, language planning can serve 'as a tool for empowering groups and individuals, for creating national bonds and ties, and for maximizing educational and economic development'. As a tool of oppression, 'language planning can be used to maintain and perpetuate oppression, social class discrimination, and social and educational inequality' (Reagan, 2002: 420). Therefore it is rather short-sighted to disregard any of these issues when embarking on language planning.

On language planning, Eastman (1983: ix, in Mesthrie, 2002: 420) states that it is 'a developing field that sees language as a social resource'. Eastman further says:

> "Language planning is done through the cooperative efforts of political,
> educational, economic and linguistic authorities"
>
> (Eastman, 1983: ix, in Mesthrie, 2002: 420).

It is therefore important that language planning is a democratic process that involves all stakeholders at all levels. To that end it should include four main components: fact-finding, establishment and articulation of goals and strategies, implementation and evaluation (Reagan, 2002: 420). Because of its direct effect on society and the individual, language planning should have four main features: it should be a conscious and deliberate activity; be future oriented; involve choices; and involve decision-making processes in making those choices (Reagan, 2002: 420). Therefore language planners should ensure that they are familiar with the language landscape in which language planning is done. They should clearly state the goals of language planning as well as the strategies that will be used in the language-planning process; and there should be an implementation stage characterized by implementation strategies. Thereafter, there should be an opportunity to evaluate the entire process to determine whether it is consistent with its goals and is in harmony with the social, economic, educational, and political landscape. This process can be illustrated diagrammatically by using Webb's framework for strategic planning (Webb: 2002: 38, in Strydom, 2002:

192). The framework uses basic principles inherent in strategic business planning and in applying it, Webb (2002) outlines the fundamental factors on which the design and implementation of a language planning policy should be based. The framework is later discussed in the final chapter of this study and also produced as Addendum A.

Language planning essentially involves two distinct phases: corpus planning and status planning. Corpus planning involves the expansion of a language to enable it to perform the functions allocated to it (Webb, 1995: 109). In Botswana only English and Setswana have gone through the corpus-planning stage and, to some extent, a few other indigenous languages such as Ikalanga and Shiyeyi. However, pressure is increasing that all other indigenous languages should also go through the corpus as well as status-planning phases. Status planning involves the selection of a language or languages to function in high function (formal) contexts. In Botswana, English enjoys that high status as earlier explained in the introduction to this study. To some extent Setswana is used in some public domains. Other languages are restricted to low function (informal) contexts mainly used by their speakers within a family unit, and within religious or cultural groups.

To ensure that language planning and policy is positive and in harmony with its society Donna Kerr (1976, in Mesthrie, 2002: 420) suggests that such a policy must pass the following four tests and the questions that they raise:

1. The desirability test – does the community as a whole believe that the goal of the policy is desirable?
2. The justness test – is the policy just and fair, that is, does it treat all people in an equal and appropriate manner?
3. The effectiveness test – is the policy effective? Does it achieve its objectives?
4. The tolerability test – is the policy resource sensitive? That is, is it viable in the context in which it is to be effected?

Linguists and policy makers unanimously agree that language can be planned, and a LiEP is a result of this planning. LiEP refers to a policy that specifies a language or languages that should be used in the education system as a medium or mediums of instruction (MoI) or (LoLT) and of study. Robinson (1996: 13, in Strydom 2002: 2) describes language policies as '… language planning decisions generally most evident

at national level, affecting language use through the society, either actually or potentially'. According to Cooper (1989, quoted in Reagan, 2002: 419), 'Both status planning and corpus planning affect the choice of language for development communication. Status planning leads to decisions about the allocation of codes to societal functions, and corpus planning may precede or result from such decisions. The formulation and implementation of language policy is planning by the state'.

LiEP falls within the larger and general framework of language planning and policy of a given country. Therefore, before language planning is undertaken and a language policy formulated, the goals and the results of the policies thereof should be taken into account. Similarly, which language to use and what its functions will be, including its role in education should also be taken into consideration. These considerations are important as language is central in human communication.

2.6.2 Language and its functions

Language has been defined by Finocchiaro (1964: 8, see Brown, 1994: 4) as '… a system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in a given culture, or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact'. Wardhaugh (1972: 3, in Brown, 1994: 8) echoes the same sentiments by defining language as '… a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication'.

These two definitions essentially imply that language is systematic; that it is used by humans to communicate and to interact with one another; and that it is through language that humans express their culture. Therefore, it is important for humans to learn a language that they can use to communicate with one another to show emotions, and to develop self-esteem. Guiora *et al*. (1972 b, in Brown, 1994: 62) talks of a 'language ego', referring to the identity that a person develops in relation to the language that he or she speaks. This implies that one's self-identity is intertwined with language and ego development because such identities are confirmed in the communication process. For a person to effectively communicate in a given language, he or she has to learn its vocabulary, grammar rules, discourse rules, and other organizational competences. These forms are learnt to transmit and receive thoughts, ideas, and feelings between a speaker and a listener (in oral communication), or between a writer and a reader (in written communication) (Brown, 1994: 231). Thus

language facilitates communication between humans that, according to Austin (1962, in Brown, 1994: 232), is '… a series of communicative acts or speech acts which are used systematically to accomplish particular purposes'.

To that effect, language performs a number of communicative functions that Halliday (1973, in Brown, 1994: 232-233) classified as follows:

i. An instrumental function: brings about a particular condition or causes certain things to happen;

ii. a regulatory function: controls events without exercising too much power;

iii. a representational function: allows the speaker to use a language to make a statement, convey facts and knowledge, to explain, or to report;

iv. an interactional function: ensures social maintenance by allowing communicative contact between and among human beings in order to establish social contact and to keep channels of communication open;

v. a personal function: allows the speaker to express feelings, emotions, and personality;

vi. an heuristic function: involves the use of language to acquire knowledge and to learn about one's environment; and

vii. an imaginative function: creates imaginary systems or ideas.

It is therefore important for a speaker to use linguistic forms effectively to perform any of the language functions outlined above.

Essentially, language can be used to perform a primary or a secondary function. Primarily, language is used to serve socio-psychological functions. These are mainly instrumental and symbolic functions. The instrumental function is concerned with language as an instrument of communication that enables its user to transfer information and to have access to information. Through language we create ideas in our minds, recall and memorize information, reason and put our ideas across to other people. We can also express our feelings, views, needs, wishes, and aspirations to our family members, friends, communities, religious groups or cultural groups. This is considered to be a low-function (informal-context) level.

Performing a symbolic function, language enables us to handle our social relations and to socialize with others. We construct, express, and maintain our personal and group identity and loyalty, for example, institutional identity and social identity, through language. In this context, code-switching is used: we can code-switch when we speak to establish our identity within our social or ethnic groups. Language can bind a community as a common denominator, yet it can also separate communities if they do not have the same language as a common denominator. In all the instances mentioned above, language is used to perform its primary function.

In its secondary function, language is used in various public domains locally, regionally and internationally. Such domains could be the education system; the mass media; official business; the legislature; the judiciary; trade; and commerce (Webb, 1995: 104). Examples of languages that enjoy this status are English, French, and Portuguese in most of their former colonies; and respectively Swahili and Somali in Tanzania and Somalia (Webb, 1995). As a secondary function, a language functions at a high-function, formal level, such as in education. Consequently the role of language in education and its implication for educational development are discussed below.

2.6.3 The role of language in education and educational development

Language plays a very important role in education as it is primarily through language that knowledge is transmitted and acquired. Bamgbose (1991: 63) states that language may serve three purposes in education, namely, literacy, subject, and LoLT. In literacy, language is used to introduce a child to the rudiments of reading and writing, or to teach adults how to read and write. As a subject, a language is taught in schools without any further implication of it being used as a LoLT. In Botswana, Setswana and French are examples of subjects that are taught in schools but have no implication for further use as LoLTs. The former (Setswana) is taught in all government schools and some private schools while the latter is taught in some government schools and other private schools. The LoLT is also taught as a subject. This applies to English in Botswana and in many other African countries that were former British colonies; French in former colonies of France and Belgium; and Portuguese in former colonies of Portugal. It is the latter purpose -- that of using a particular language as LoLT -- that is important or at stake in this context.

It is important to carefully consider which language should be used as LoLT because the language that is selected for use in the education system should facilitate transmission and acquisition of knowledge, and not act as an impediment to these. Bamgbose (1991: 62) states that ' Education is a means of upward social mobility, manpower training, and development in its widest sense of the full realization of human potential and the utilization of this potential and the nation's resources for the benefit of all'. Therefore, education is central to development in general and human development in particular.

According to Brown (1994), language plays a very important role in educational development because through language, cognitive and meta-cognitive skills are developed and knowledge is accessed. Language also plays a role in the development of affective skills, such as a respect for knowledge, professional integrity, and a sense of self-confidence. All the above-mentioned skills (cognitive, meta-cognitive and affective skills) develop systematically and through guidance as interaction takes place between the students and their learning material and teachers through the use of language. Therefore, the LiEP should ensure that the LoLT facilitates the acquisition of these skills.

When language plays a role in educational development, it means that the language of education should facilitate the acquisition of knowledge, understanding and skills, which will lead to development in general and human development in particular. Human development is defined as a situation whereby an environment is created in which people can develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives according to their needs and interests (UNDP Report, 2004). In a nutshell, human development is 'development of the people, development for the people, and development by the people' (UNDP Report, 1999: 16). Development of the people should involve building human capacities through the development of human resources; for instance, educating people to play meaningful roles in society. Development for the people implies that the benefits of growth must be translated into the lives of the people; that is, people should lead better lives if the development is meaningful to them. Development by the people emphasizes that people must participate actively in influencing the processes that shape their lives; that is, people must chart their own path to their destiny. This is possible through the acquisition of

education that can be facilitated by the use of a language that enhances learning instead of acting as a stumbling block.

The importance of language in human development was appropriately expressed by the Minister of Education in Lesotho – the Hon. Mosisili -- in his opening address during the International Conference on Language in Contact and Conflict in Africa (LiCCA) held in Lesotho in 1993, when he said:

> Language is traditionally defined as a richly structured system of human sounds used for communication … and it is said to be the most highly developed and most commonly used of all forms of symbolism. Language permeates virtually every aspect of our lives; it is used for interaction in all domains of life, as well as all levels of human development. (LiCCA (Lesotho) Report, 1993)

Consequently, in deciding on the LoLT, it should be ensured that maximum knowledge acquisition will be possible. In this regard, language planning should take place prior to the formulation of a LiEP that will stipulate which language to use as the LoLT.

Finally, in examining Botswana's current LiEP against the four tests for language planning and policy by Donna Kerr (1976, in Mesthrie, 2002: 420) as aforementioned, it appears that the LiEP of Botswana has completely failed all four tests. It is not a desirable situation as it excludes the national language from playing a meaningful role in education. English is given prominence and Setswana is given a subordinate role. It is not just and fair because the policy does not seem to treat all languages equally. It is not effective because it continues to promote a language that is foreign to the citizens of the country in the education system, yet it does not seem to be functioning effectively as a LoLT. In this context then, there are continued reports of CS in the classroom. The application of the fourth test (that language planning should be resource sensitive and viable) specifically applies to the promotion of other indigenous languages. The main argument advanced by Government against the promotion of many languages is hence based on the premise that it is not financially viable to teach all the indigenous languages so that they can eventually reach the status of an instrument for use in a high-function (formal) context. It seems that Government assesses this issue superficially; its focus is mainly on the financial costs that will be

incurred, such as translation and publishing costs, as well as on training of educators in these languages. There is no regard for the long-term benefits of empowering citizenry through language-related investments and the appeasement of the sections of society that feel excluded by the current language policy. The long-term benefits of empowerment are priceless as it is a major contributor to national harmony and peace.

The speakers of other indigenous languages are not convinced by the arguments of Government, and dissatisfaction continues to be expressed by those who feel that the promotion of their languages should be viewed as a right and as a resource, not as problematic. Government should demonstrate its willingness to gradually take all languages on board. The promotion and development of all indigenous languages are inevitable and cannot be done cheaply. Therefore, the sooner Government embarks on this task, the better, not only for the appeasement of the speakers concerned but also because it is the right and just thing to do. Failure to embark on this exercise will result in the continued feeling of marginalization of their languages by some members of the population, which threatens the nationhood that has thus far been achieved. Promoting only one local language at the expense of others is in direct opposition to the very principle of building and promoting nationhood.

2.7 Conclusion

The present chapter has given a detailed review of literature on CS in general, and CS in the classroom in particular. The review was in the form of the definition and explanation of CS and its types (inter-sentential CS, intra-sentential CS and tag-like / emblematic CS) and the concepts related to it, namely, CM and borrowing (including its two types -- nonce borrowing and borrowing proper). The attempt was to point out the differences between them, blurred as they are. Social functions of CS were also discussed. It is against this background that the theoretical framework of the study was conceptualized. Furthermore, as a basis for the discussion of the second part of the study's question, an overview of Botswana's LiEP was given within the framework of language planning. This was discussed in relation to language, its functions and its role in education and educational development as a central focus of language planning and LiEP.

In the following chapter, the study design and the methodology used in data collection will be discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the research design chosen for this study and the methods employed in the data-collection process. The following aspects will be addressed:

1. The nature of the research design and the rationale behind its choice;
2. the choice of research methods for data collection purposes;
3. field research, which will include the research site; the sample; and
4. the sampling techniques, pre-testing, ethical aspects and problems encountered during the field-research stage.

This study is both theoretical and empirical in design. An extensive literature review was first undertaken to inform the researcher about the various research methods frequently used in social sciences in general, and in educational settings in particular. Their strengths and limitations were brought to the fore. The review also informed the researcher on how similar language studies were conducted elsewhere. This exercise proved to be academically rewarding. As a result, an informed decision could be made about which research methods to use to deal with the practical aspects of this study and thereby help to answer the main problem under investigation, as well as its sub-problems.

CS in the classroom is a phenomenon that is poorly understood. It is still not clear whether it takes place because its users (both teachers and learners) are conversant in the languages they employ in the classroom, in this case, English as the LoLT, and Setswana as the national language, or whether it is because they lack proficiency in one of the languages or both. To that effect, it was necessary for the researcher to choose a research design that would enable in-depth investigation of this phenomenon and engage research methods that would facilitate the collection of data that could be used to answer the following questions raised in the study:

1. What is CS in the classroom?

2. Why does it occur; how; and when?

3. Is it didactically beneficial to the teaching and learning situation or not?

In this regard, the researcher decided to use both qualitative and quantitative research methods in the gathering of data. The nature of the problem under investigation necessitated the choice of the two research methods to obtain the data first-hand in the classroom as the phenomenon of CS occurs (the qualitative method); and then to obtain the views of the participants about the phenomenon (the quantitative method). Thereafter, the data were analysed and interpreted in relation to the problem being researched, and it was determined whether the results from each research method converged or diverged.

The researcher used the method that is now popularly known as 'qual-quan' (Morse, 1991, in Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007: 60) because a combination of research methods was used in the same study in the hope that they would all arrive at the same conclusion in relation to the main research question. This strategy is known as triangulation (Brannen (1992); Mouton and Marais (1992); Cohen and Manion (1994); Denzin (2003); Leedy and Ormrod (2005); Creswell and Plano Clark (2007). In a study such as this one, in which a researcher investigates an identifiable phenomenon, and human participants are involved, a multi-faceted approach is necessary to enable the researcher to investigate the phenomenon from various angles.

3.2 THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHOD

The investigation of CS in the classroom takes place in a teaching and learning situation. Hence it was important for the researcher to gather raw data from the classroom while teaching and learning were in progress. The observation technique, which is a form of qualitative research, was deemed suitable for this purpose. It enabled the researcher to focus on the phenomenon as it occurred in a natural classroom environment, and to collect the data that will be qualitatively analysed and interpreted to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon. Qualitative design is defined by Bodgan and Taylor (1975, in Guy, Edgely, Arafat and Allen, 1987: 257-258) as:

… research procedures that produce descriptive data: people's own written or spoken words and observations. This approach directs itself at settings and the individuals within those settings holistically.

The qualitative research method enabled the researcher to verbatim record the utterances of the participants, and to also observe what was happening in the classroom during lessons. The result was rich data to be categorized and interpreted according to common themes in order to deal with the main theme of the study.

Although the qualitative research method has various types of formats, for example case study, ethnography, phenomenological study, grounded theory, content analysis and historical studies, the case-study design was preferred. The case-study design allows for in-depth observation of a particular phenomenon that is little or poorly understood as it occurred during the utterances of the participants for a defined period to obtain the data first-hand (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005: 135). This was the case in the present study; both the teachers and learners were observed in the classroom to determine if they used CS and how and when they used it.

In a social setting, CS is clearly understood. Various scholars agree that it is a common phenomenon in speeches of bilingual and multilingual speakers in many places, and that it does not indicate a lack of competence on the part of the speaker in any of the languages concerned, but is a result of complex bilingual skills (Auer, 1984: 1; Kieswetter, 1995; Milroy & Muysken, 1995; Myers-Scotton, 1993a) to mention but a few. In contrast, CS in education is still a debatable issue. To that effect, Kamwangamalu (2000: 60) pointed out that CS in educational settings is neglected because of the stigma it carries, and that it is considered to be a sign of linguistic deficiency on the part of its users. The present study, therefore, will either affirm or refute this assertion.

According to Mouton (2005: 149), a case-study approach is usually used for a smaller number of cases (usually fewer than 50) to provide an in-depth description. In the present study, this is also the case, as only four of 27 senior secondary schools in Botswana (The Ministry of Education Establishment Register for Secondary Schools and Colleges of Education, 2003/4) were the focus of this study. This is what Leedy

and Ormrod (2005: 135) refer to as a multiple or collective case study. The choice of the case-study approach was also based on a number of advantages associated with it that the researcher also found useful. The case-study approach has high construct validity in that the data are collected first-hand by the researcher on site. Thus it allowed for in-depth insights, as the researcher witnessed what was taking place through observation of lessons in the classroom, and also collected the data through audio-tape recordings for analysis later. This method promoted the creation of rapport between the researcher and the participants due to the time that the researcher generally spent at the schools, and in the classes in particular (Mouton, 2005: 150). The latter became valuable later, after the researcher had left the research sites. Where the researcher needed extra information from any of the four schools, such requests were normally made telephonically, and schools were always willing to assist.

There are, however, a number of disadvantages associated with this type of approach. It is time-consuming; large amounts of data are often collected, and it takes long for the researcher to collect the data at the research site (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005: 135). The researcher also experienced these problems. Much time was spent in the classes observing and audio-tape recording lessons, and simultaneously taking down notes that resulted in the collection of a lot of data. At the end, the researcher observed 197 lessons and collected a total of 2 461 questionnaires (from both the teachers and learners). While the former may be viewed as a large sample for a qualitative study, this is not so in this research study. Bullock, Little and Millham (1992, in Brannen, 1992: 88) pointed out that often qualitative studies can also involve a large sample. The amount of data collected also affected the amount of time spent later when analysing it. However, to reduce the time, the researcher analyzed the data collected from lesson observations while the research was in progress. Therefore, new issues that emerged were identified and then included as part of the quantitative investigation in the form of a questionnaire interview. This consequently eliminated the need for another form of interview, namely, a face-to-face interview.

Despite the length of time spent at the schools and consequently on the rapport established with some of the participants, the researcher was mindful of the need to maintain objectivity at all times, and guarded against subjectivity creeping into the way in which the situation was viewed during the data-collection stage, and how results

were interpreted later. The enormous amount of data that was gathered from the research also did not divert the attention of the researcher from focusing on the main subject of the study.

Apart from the data collected through lesson observations, additional data were collected in the form of the syllabi and other relevant documents to better inform the researcher about what was taking place or supposed to take place in the classroom.

As mentioned, only a few schools were the focus of this study, and all were in the same region as per the Ministry of Education grouping of schools into regions, Therefore, the results of this study may not be generalized. However, generalization was not its prime objective. The main objective was to analyse the nature of the phenomenon that occurs in the classrooms of the schools in the study, its causes, and whether or not it was of any educational value. Nonetheless, the data collected through the literature review described in the previous chapter, and through the participants' self-reports described in the subsequent chapters of this report, provide sufficient information to suggest whether its results can be generalized and be used for similar situations. Otherwise, case studies conducted in similar situations would be necessary to establish whether the research results would be similar.

3.3 THE QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHOD

The quantitative research method was also used in the investigation of CS in the classroom in addition to lesson observations. A survey technique in the form of a questionnaire was used to solicit the opinions and views of the participants (both the teachers and learners) on the phenomenon of CS. According to Mouton (2005: 153) the results from the quantitative research method have the potential to be generalized to larger populations if appropriate sampling design had been done; if the questionnaire was properly constructed, it could have a high measurement reliability; and high construct validity if proper controls were implemented.

This form of research method necessitates that the researcher identifies, formulates and standardizes the variables relevant to the study. A questionnaire was therefore developed in accordance with the requirements of validity and reliability for use in the

data-collection process. The responses of the participants were then quantified, statistically analysed and the interpretations thereof were expressed in nominal and percentage values. The results were then used to answer the research questions that collectively address the main focus of the study. This form of research method was preferred as it allows for the generalization of the research results to the wider population within the schools in the study.

The quantitative research method employs a number of data-collection techniques that produce data that can be summarized through statistical analysis. In the present study, the researcher used the survey research, also known as a descriptive survey or normative survey (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005: 183).

A questionnaire is the most commonly used data-collection method of all quantitative designs in various areas of human activity. However, it requires careful attention in its construction otherwise its questions may not address the main research problem. Data collection is often in the form of an interview that is a series of questions administered to willing participants in any of the following forms: a face-to-face interview, a telephone interview, or a questionnaire interview. In this case, the questionnaire-interview method was used.

A questionnaire can be either structured or semi structured. The former involves a list of questions of which the responses are in the form of a checklist and a rating scale, known as the Likert Scale (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005: 185; Rea & Parker, 2005: 68; Frazer & Lawley, 2000: 20). The latter is very similar to the structured questionnaire except that it also contains open-ended questions designed to seek the respondents' own opinions in more detail, or to seek clarification on a preceding question. In the present study, a structured questionnaire was used because it mainly comprised close-ended questions. Although the normal trend is to rate the responses by using a rating of 1 to 5 or 1 to 7, the researcher decided to use a rating of 1 to 3 or 1 to 4. She found this suitable for this study, and the responses received were equally satisfactory. While reviewing the literature on methodology, the researcher did not come across any literature that stated that one should strictly adhere to the rating of 1 to 5 or 1 to 7. Therefore, the researcher treated the recommended ratings as a guide. Other

researchers (Desai, 1997; Strydom, 2002; Magogwe, 2005) who also conducted studies in sociolinguistics and/or language studies, used similar ratings.

A questionnaire has a number of advantages and disadvantages. Its *advantages* are as follows:

1. If it is structured, it is easy to complete and therefore saves time.
2. It can be handed out or mailed to participants in the study who can complete it in their own time in the comfort of their homes or offices, without pressure of time or of the presence of the researcher.
3. Anonymity is assured, as respondents are not expected to state personal details, such as their full names on the questionnaire. As a result, respondents are generally more honest in this type of interview than in a face-to-face interview (Frazer & Lawley, 2000; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007: 54 -55; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005: 185).

The *disadvantages* of such a questionnaire are as follows:

1. The questionnaire often has a low return rate.
2. Its interpretation depends on the language skills of the respondents.
3. As such, its questions may be subjected to misinterpretation if the respondents have poor language skills.
4. Similarly, its clarity depends on the language skills of its composer. Should the researcher have poor writing skills, the clarity and the validity of the questionnaire may be compromised.
5. Where open-ended questions are included, the writing skills of the respondents are crucial, otherwise a poorly presented response may affect the interpretation of questions in the questionnaire.
6. A structured questionnaire is not flexible in that respondents are expected to respond to the questions contained in the questionnaire in the manner that has been prescribed. Consequently, it does not give much room for deeper probing and in-depth response (Czaja & Blair; 2005; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

Notwithstanding the disadvantages outlined above, this data-collection technique was found to be suitable for specific parts of the study, because it was necessary to seek the views and opinions of the respondents in a systematic manner and then quantify them for analysis and interpretation. This technique was necessary to compare its results with those obtained through lesson observations and to ascertain whether they yielded either similar or contrasting results. To ensure a good return rate, the researcher personally distributed the questionnaire to the teachers in the study, and ensured that the majority was collected before departure from the research sites. For instance, in School One, 34 questionnaires were handed out to the teachers, and 29 were returned. At School Two, 28 questionnaires were returned out of 37 that were distributed. At School Three, 20 questionnaires were returned out of 28 that were distributed to the teachers in the study. At School Four, 31 teachers participated in the study, and all were given questionnaires to complete -- 24 questionnaires were returned. Overall, 94 questionnaires were returned out of a total of 130 that were handed out. The return rate was therefore 72%.

The questionnaire for the learners was administered personally by the researcher during class time and collected at the end of the class time allocated. During its construction, it was ensured that plain and simple language was used to avoid misinterpretation of the questions or a lack of understanding. The decision to administer the learner questionnaire within the class proved fruitful as the researcher was available for consultation when some of the items needed clarification. Therefore, incomplete questionnaires were kept to a minimum. The learners also treated the completion of the questionnaire with the seriousness it deserved, which resulted in a very high return rate. For instance, at School One, 687 questionnaires were administered and 662 were returned, which gives one a return rate of 96%. At School Two, 640 learners were involved in the study, and 574 questionnaires were returned -- a return rate of 89.6%, or 90 % rounded off. At School Three, 690 learners were involved in the study, and 620 questionnaires were returned, which gives one a return rate of 89.8% or 90% rounded off, as well. At School Four, 746 learners participated in the study, and 511 questionnaires were returned, which indicated a return rate of 68 %. In total, 2 367 questionnaires were returned out of a total of 2 763 that were handed out. Therefore, when calculated, an overall return rate of close to 86% was achieved.

The return rate of the teachers' questionnaires, while not as high as that of the learners, was also good.

Although the questionnaire was relatively long (it contained 232 items), it was easy to complete because nearly all the questions required a response in the form of a checklist based on the modified Likert Scale. This form of presentation also eliminated the problem of writing skills. Further probing took place through the inclusion of a few items that required a one-word response or a short sentence (11 in the teachers' questionnaire, and seven in the learners' questionnaire) to give the respondents an opportunity to provide extra information that may not have been covered by any of the items. Unfortunately, the majority of the respondents (both the teachers and learners) avoided such questions. This was a deficiency in the questionnaire interview. The objective of including some questions that required the respondents' own views or factual information about them that was not based on pre-determined responses, was lost. Notwithstanding this setback, the questionnaires were generally well answered, and the setback did not have adverse consequences on the findings derived from the data collected. Considering that items that required open-ended answers formed only a small part of the questionnaires, sufficient data were collected through close-ended responses that enabled the researcher to address the main research question.

3.4 RESEARCH SITE

The research site selected included four government senior secondary schools located in the North-East region of Botswana (cf. Map of Botswana showing secondary and technical schools attached as Addendum B). In this study, these are referred to as School One (S 1), School Two (S 2), School Three (S 3), and School Four (S 4). In total, there were two urban schools and two semi-urban schools. Schools One and Two are based in an urban centre and were hence regarded as urban schools in the study. Schools Three and Four are based in two different towns regarded as semi-urban centres owing to their relative proximity to the urban centre and their official status as administrative centres of the sub-regions. Therefore, the latter two schools are regarded as peri-urban schools in the study. School Three, like Schools One and Two, is in the north-eastern region, while School Four is in the Central region.

One of the main objectives for the selection of the research sites was to establish whether geographical location, among other factors, has an effect on CS in teaching and learning.

As aforementioned, the first three schools are located within the north-eastern region. This region was chosen for its rich cultural and language diversity. The urban centre serves as the capital city of this region. As an urban centre, it is highly cosmopolitan with different cultural and language groups represented, including non-citizens from different countries. Therefore, apart from Setswana and English, many other languages are spoken in the city and its vicinity, including Ikalanga that is spoken by the Ikalanga ethnic group -- the dominant ethnic group in this region. The Ikalanga ethnic group are well known in the country for their strong cultural and language affinity. They have successfully managed to keep their culture and language alive, despite the general lack of active government support for cultural and language diversity in the country (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004). In addition, this city, owing to its relative proximity to countries north of Botswana, such as Zimbabwe and Zambia, has a sizeable population of nationals from those countries and beyond. Therefore, this region generally (and the urban centre in particular) is a melting pot of cultural and language diversity.

School Three is based in a town approximately a hundred kilometres north east of the urban centre. According to the authorities at the school, it is linguistically diverse since it admits learners from junior secondary schools from within its vicinity, as well as learners from junior secondary schools in the north-western region (especially from the northern part of the region that shares a border with Zambia). The main ethnic group from this part of the country is known as the Basubiya, and their language is known as Sisubiya. Sisubiya is not intelligible to speakers of either Setswana (the national language) or Ikalanga, the main language of the dominant ethnic group found in the region on which this study focuses.

School Four is situated in another town approximately a hundred kilometres north-west of the main urban centre. Although this town is officially treated as part of the sub-district of the central district, geographically it is closer to the main urban centre in the north east than to the administrative capital of the central region. The Ministry of

Education has recognized this fact, hence the classification of School Four as part of a cluster of senior secondary schools in this region. This seems more appropriate, as the residents of the town in which the school is based are culturally and linguistically more similar to the residents of the north-eastern region than to the residents of the central region.

These four schools provided fertile ground for linguistic investigation -- including an investigation of CS between English and Setswana -- due to the language diversity that exists there. According to the self-reports of the respondents obtained through the questionnaire interviews, Setswana is a second language and English is a third language for a sizeable population of both the teachers and the learners.

Before the researcher visited the schools, the following documents were sent to the headmasters of the four schools mentioned: a letter of self-introduction, together with supporting documents (a letter from the researcher's supervisor, and a copy of the letter of permission and endorsement obtained from the Ministry of Education in Botswana). In compliance with the research principle of informed consent (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Mouton, 2001**;** Czaja & Blair, 2005; Clough & Nutbrown, 2006; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007), all these documents are available should any reader wish to see them. In the letter, the topic of the study was stated and a brief explanation of the study itself was given; that is, what it would involve and how it would be conducted. This was necessary so that the headmasters of the schools would be well informed about the study and could assist the teachers in preparing the information that would enable the researcher to get started with data collection upon arrival at the site. The topic was stated in more general terms so as not to influence the behaviour of the teachers and the learners. It was necessary to do so as the field research involved sitting in the selected classes; observing the lessons; and at the same time recording them. The topic of the research was given as "The role of language in teaching and learning". The researcher informed the schools about the expected dates of arrival and the expected duration of stay at each school.

Upon arrival at School One (at the beginning of June 2006), the administrative formalities were carried out and the Head of the Faculty of Humanities was requested to assist the researcher in preparing for the collection of the data. A meeting was

arranged to meet the senior teachers in the Department of Humanities, the subjects of which, namely English language and literature, Setswana, and History, were included in the study. The researcher was also introduced to senior teachers of Biology and Home Economics. During the briefing, the teachers were informed about what the field research would entail (that is, the grades involved; the number of classes required to participate in the study; the learners' ability levels; the subjects chosen; and how the data-collection process would be undertaken). The classes were randomly selected from both Form Four (F 4) and Form Five (F 5) for inclusion in the study. They were also informed that class observations would first be done, and that questionnaire interviews with both the teachers and the learners in the study would follow later. This arrangement would enable the researcher to go through the observation notes of each lesson; to listen to lesson recordings, and to synthesize the data first so that, should any issues were to emerge, they would be included in the next phase, which comprised the questionnaire interview.

The researcher was provided with information on the classes available, from which she randomly chose classes to participate in the study. Having chosen the classes, the teachers concerned had been automatically chosen for inclusion in the study. Their lessons in those classes would be observed, after which they and their learners would be asked to complete the questionnaires. However, before this commenced, the researcher was introduced to the teachers concerned. She briefly informed them about the objective of her visit to their school in general, and to their classes in particular. She took this opportunity to formally seek the teachers' consent and by proxy, the consent of their learners to participate in the study. She was then provided with individual teaching timetables for these teachers for whom the researcher used to prepare a lesson-observation schedule. She spent one month at this school. However, owing to a number of factors -- numerous Botswana public holidays, the mid-term school holiday during that period, and the mid-year examinations scheduled around the same period -- it was not possible to visit another school. Hence a visit to the next school was postponed until the beginning of the next school term. This provided the researcher with the opportunity to review the data already collected and to determine how best to proceed with the research at the other schools. She used the time to revise the two sets of questionnaires in readiness for the next visit.

The next visit was made at the beginning of September 2006 when the schools reopened. Although the schools had been initially informed about the researcher's visit, nevertheless, another reminder was sent before departing for the schools (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Rea & Parker, 2005). This proved useful as she found that, on arrival, one of the schools had already prepared the information required for the classes. The researcher immediately selected the number of classes required, informed the affected teachers about the study, sought their consent and that of their learners, and the observation of lessons began. Once the questionnaires had been pre-tested and modified according to feedback obtained from the pre-test, the researcher handed these out to both the teachers and learners. She also handed out questionnaires to both the teachers and learners in the study at School Three, which was the first school visited during class observations.

The researcher also began collecting data at the third school. Owing to a slight delay in providing her with the necessary information on the classes, progress was slightly slower at this school than at the previous schools. Nonetheless, when it was made available, the observation of lessons commenced, followed by the administration of the questionnaire of both the teachers and learners whose classes had been observed. It was not possible to complete the data-collection process at this school during this visit due to imminent final-year examinations for the F 5 classes, and end-of-year examinations for the F 4 classes.

The researcher used the rest of the time to review the data collected through lesson observations and to select some lessons for transcription. Then manual coding of the collected questionnaires began. During the coding process, it was realised that the coding of the questionnaires, while it was a tedious and time-consuming exercise, nevertheless needed exceptionally careful attention to eliminate errors which, if not attended to, would result in giving wrong data from the information provided by the respondents. From this experience, it was possible to estimate the time to be spent on the remaining questionnaires yet to be collected from the remaining two schools. This enabled advance planning with the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria for the next stage of the research, which was the capturing of the manually-coded data on the computer in readiness for data analysis. Input from the Department of Statistics is discussed under section 3.9 on statistical aspects of this chapter. Owing

to the large volume of questionnaires involved (a twelve-page questionnaire for over 2 000 learners), the researcher postponed visiting the third school (where data collection was yet to be completed) and to the remaining fourth school (where data collection had not yet started) until after the coding process was complete. This task was only completed in April 2007.

The third and final visit to the two remaining schools was made at the beginning of the second school term in early May 2007. Again the formality of reminding the schools concerned about the impending visit was repeated in the form of a letter. Some time was spent completing work at the third school, and then the researcher proceeded to the fourth and final school to observe the lessons and manage the questionnaire. The administrative formalities, similar to those fulfilled at the other three schools, were also repeated at the fourth school before the actual data-collection exercise began. At this school, some unexpected problems arose that affected the smooth flow of the latter stage of the field research. While the first two weeks passed fairly smoothly, the last two were affected by the sudden suspension from classes of learners whose parents had not complied with the payment of school fees reintroduced by the government in all public secondary schools. This school, like other schools, was adversely affected by the sudden enforcement of the directive of the Ministry of Education. Some teachers continued with the teaching despite the low number of learners in the classes, but others cancelled their lessons until the attendance rate improved. The lesson-observation stage was not seriously affected by this sudden disruption of classes as most of the lessons had already been observed. However, the questionnaire administration stage was affected. As a result, the return rate for the learners' questionnaires was low at this school compared to the other three schools. The researcher also spent a longer time at this school than at the other three schools as the latter stage of the data-collection exercise was slowed down by the problem explained above.

A total of four and a half months were spent at the research sites, visited at intervals over a one-year period from June 2006 to July 2007.

3.5 SAMPLE SELECTION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Sampling is very important in studies that involve human subjects (Murray Thomas, 2003; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Different sampling designs are appropriate for different situations. It is important to consider the nature of the population to be studied before selecting the appropriate sampling technique. There are two main types of sampling: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Murray Thomas, 2003; Punch, 2003; Rea & Parker, 2005). In the former, it is necessary to specify in advance that each segment of the population will be represented in the sample. The sample is chosen from the larger population through random selection or random sampling. This means that each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected, based on the assumption that the characteristics of the sample selected are almost similar to the characteristics of the total population (Smit, 1985: 178-183, in Strydom, 2002: 92; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In the latter, the sample cannot be predicted and there is no guarantee that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. To that effect some members of the population have little or no chance of being selected. In the present study, the researcher used the probability random sampling design. This form of sampling was preferred because it gave equal chances to each segment of the sample represented.

There are five kinds of probability sampling, namely simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, proportional stratified sampling, cluster sampling, and systematic sampling (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The stratified random sampling was used in the present study owing to the nature of the population that needed to be sampled -- it had almost equal sizes of strata. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 202) define 'strata' in a study that involves human subjects as "… layers of distinctly different types of individuals". This sampling technique (stratified random sampling) is normally used for a stratified population, such as school grades, which was the case in this study. Because each layer consisted of distinctly different types of individuals, the sample was chosen equally from each layer in the overall population. The main advantage of this form of sampling is that it guarantees representation of each of the identified strata.

3.5.1 Selection of teachers

The selection of the teachers was determined by whether or not the classes they teach were selected. For instance, the teachers teaching English Language, Setswana, and Biology as compulsory subjects to the selected classes, were selected for participation in the study. These teachers were approached, briefed and requested to participate. Almost all the teachers selected agreed to cooperate. However, where a teacher (whose class had been selected for participation) was unwilling to participate in the study, another teacher of the same subject and teaching at the same level was randomly selected, and if agreed, was included in the study, and his or her lessons were observed instead. Some teachers only raised objections if they found that they were to be observed more than once. In such cases, another teacher would be approached for observation. This is the problem with random sampling: it is not possible to know all the characteristics of the sample in advance, except the main ones that had to be pre-determined before the selection of the sample was made. Others did not object to being observed more than once, as long as they were observed in different levels (F 4 or F 5).

Similarly, for selection of teachers of non-compulsory subjects, such as Literature in English, History, and Home Economics, the same selection technique was used where there were more than two teachers. However, since in some of the schools there were fewer teachers per subject (usually two), both were normally requested to participate in the study as random sampling was unnecessary. Only teachers who were Setswana speakers were included for participation in the study, because CS was likely to occur between English and Setswana. The study, therefore, focused on CS in the classroom mainly between English (as the LoLT) and Setswana (as the national language, and the only local language taught in the schools from primary- to secondary-school level). CS between English and the main local language spoken in the area (Ikalanga) was not considered as this language is not taught in schools and therefore is not within the scope of this study.

At least 20 teachers per school were expected to participate in the study (This was almost 30% of the teachers per school), based on an average total of 70 teachers per school (the Ministry of Education Establishment Register for Secondary Schools and

Colleges of Education, 2003-4), bringing a total of at least 80 teachers in the study. Looking at the entire population of the teachers in the four schools, 80 teachers constituted 28.5% of the total. The researcher considered this to be a sufficient sample, based on the views of Guilfoyle and Hill (2002, in Magogwe, 2005: 46) that the selection of interview participants has little to do with numbers as the sampling is not done to get enough people to participate, but to collect sufficient data. However, the number of teachers included in the study also slightly increased due to two reasons. First, classes of optional subjects were separate from classes of compulsory subjects, hence the need to select such classes and their teachers separately. Second, because the teachers of the selected optional subjects were relatively few in all four schools, all were included in the study wherever possible, as sampling was not necessary. Therefore, a total of 130 teachers were involved in the study.

3.5.2 Selection of subjects

For the selection of subjects to be included in the study, the researcher decided to use the same subjects that had initially been selected during the pilot stage. As probability random selection had been used in the pilot stage, the exercise was not repeated.   The researcher focused on the same subjects in each school, as all four schools taught the same subjects. Five subjects were selected for study: two language-based ones -- English Language and Literature in English (English L and L) and Setswana; one content-based subject -- History; one science subject -- Biology; and one practical subject -- Home Economics. While Literature in English is regarded as a subject separate from English Language and is classified as an optional subject, the researcher decided to treat it in the same way as English Language. Both subjects fall under the English department in each school and, at times, a teacher of English Language may also teach Literature in English. Furthermore, teachers of English Language and Literature in English are expected to meet the same departmental objectives to ensure the optimal teaching of English in both language and literature lessons to ensure that learners are equipped with the four language domains of competence, namely speaking; listening; writing; and reading in English to prepare them for further education and / or for vocational purposes. Further, in Botswana, Literature in English refers to both African and English Literature hence the subject is known as such and not as English Literature as is usually the case in other countries. In this study,

Literature in English will be used. Therefore reference to both English Language and Literature in English will be abbreviated as English (L and L). Although the focus of this study was mainly on English, Setswana was also included for observation to see if the phenomenon of CS also featured during Setswana lessons and, if so, how and why it occurred. The other subjects in the study were included for the same reasons. Furthermore, the objective was to compare and contrast the language use in the lessons of language-based and non language-based subjects to establish in which subjects CS occurred. Ordinarily, one would not expect CS to take place during a lesson for a language subject like English or Setswana as their focus is on improvement of language proficiency among learners. However, an investigation was necessary to confirm this assumption.

3.5.3 Selection of classes

At each school, at least 12 classes were selected as follows: Initially, six classes in Form Four and six classes in Form Five (equivalent to the South African Grades Ten and Eleven respectively) were selected to bring the total number of classes to be involved in the study to 48 classes. However, the number of classes slightly increased in some schools owing to a number of reasons: First, only three compulsory subjects -- English Language, Setswana, and Biology -- could be observed within the context of classes for core subjects. For optional subjects – History, Literature in English, and Home Economics -- it became necessary to randomly select the classes separately as the learners in the main classes were too few in each class to give a true picture of what was actually transpiring in the classes in which these subjects were taught. As optional classes are organized separately from classes of core subjects, learners in these classes are drawn from different classes (of core subjects), but usually on the same level of ability. Second, it was necessary to observe the lessons in these subjects to obtain an holistic picture and not only to rely on data obtained from the questionnaire interviews.

An identification system in the form of letters of the alphabet was devised at each level of classes (that is, F 4 and F 5). Each class was identified by the form of a letter, for example, F 4 A, 4 B, and 4 C, and Form 5 A, 5 B, 5 C, and so forth. Then the alphabets were written on pieces of paper that were put in a bowl. Because the same number of classes had to be chosen at each level, an equal number of pieces were

randomly picked, so the chosen classes were the ones which were included in the study. The selection procedure also had to take into account the levels of ability of the students in the classes. The reason was that at each school, classes had been pre-categorised into low ability, medium ability and upper ability as per the policy of the Ministry of Education. This form of categorization was based on the results of the learners' Junior Certificate Examination. Low ability means that the learners were judged to be academically weak; medium ability means that learners were moderate achievers academically; and upper ability means that learners were high achievers academically. From observation, how the learners performed in the examination of Science subjects also seemed to be the major determinant of their categorization as learners in the classes of upper ability did all the pure Science subjects. Those in the category of medium ability did two Science subjects; and those in the category of low ability did combined Science, which comprised some aspects chosen from each of the three Science subjects. The objective of this categorization was to ensure that learners of similar ability were taught together during Science lessons. Whether this approach is effective or not was not part of the scope of this study.

3.5.4 Selection of learners

Initially, the researcher had planned to have 1 680 learners in the study, based on an average class size of 35 students from a population of 7 092 (the Ministry of Education Report on Allocation of Form Four candidates, 2004). This figure is based on the school reports made available to the researcher (S 1: 1 616 learners in 2006; S 2: 2 400 learners in 2007; S 3: 1 442 learners in 2006; and S 4: 1 634 learners in 2007). This was 23% of the total student population of the four schools over two years. This selection was based on the guideline that if the population size were approximately 1 500, 20% should be sampled (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005: 207). However, it was found that the average class size totalled approximately 40 students in each school and, in some cases, the number per class exceeded 40. Hence a total of 2 763 learners were involved in the study. This constitutes nearly 40% of the total population surveyed. In the classes of optional subjects, numbers varied greatly, depending on the popularity of a given optional subject in a school. In the words of one of the teachers, "… schools are experiencing a paradigm shift due to a shift in emphasis from traditional subjects to practical and Science subjects". Some subjects that are regarded as traditional and as

offering low career and job prospects are experiencing low enrolment in favour of more practical and Science-based subjects that now seem to offer better career and vocational prospects. All the learners in the selected classes, regardless of whether or not they are speakers of Setswana, were included for participation in the study.

3.6 DATA-COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Appropriate devices were obtained to enable the researcher to collect the data via the chosen research methods, namely qualitative *and* quantitative research methods. For the qualitative research paradigm of the study, the main form of data collection was observing and audio-tape recording of lessons, supplemented by note-taking on what was physically taking place in the classroom but could not be captured on the audio-tape recorder. As a back-up to the electricity-powered audio-tape recorder, a battery-powered audio-tape was also obtained. This proved useful in schools where electric sockets were out of order. Initially, the researcher's physical presence in the classroom and the visible audio-tape recorder used to record the lessons created unease among some learners. However, as the lesson progressed, the learners relaxed and, according to the judgement of the researcher, the dynamics of the lessons proceeded to being normal. Some teachers also expressed discomfort at having their lessons being recorded, and initially, in the classes of those teachers, the researcher observed some uneasiness, but the teachers quickly relaxed and the lessons were conducted in a normal manner. The researcher is confident that her presence in the classrooms and the recording of the lessons had a minimal effect on the participants (both the teachers and learners). Therefore the recorded data were authentic. Consequently, its analysis and interpretation will provide a genuine picture of what transpired in the classes observed as far as CS during the lessons is concerned.

For the quantitative aspect of the study, the main instrument for data collection was the questionnaire interview. Data collection was done in two phases. The first stage involved mainly the observation and audio tape-recording of lessons in the classroom. The second stage involved the administration of the questionnaires to both the teachers and the learners. It was important to administer the questionnaires after lesson-observation had taken place so that the atmosphere in the classroom was not unduly influenced by the types of questions posed in the questionnaire. This was achieved as

both the teachers and learners did not have prior knowledge of the research topic (obtained from the questionnaire) so the quality and dynamics of the lessons were not influenced by the contents of the questionnaire.

In addition to the use of the primary sources of data as stated above, published and unpublished studies dealing with CS in general, and CS in educational settings in particular, as well as similar studies dealing with English language teaching, served as sources of secondary data, as did other documentation, such as government pamphlets, print media, the Internet, as well as any other data encountered during the research process that was relevant to the subject of the study.

3.6.1 The observation of lessons in the classroom

The observation of lessons in the classroom was appropriate for the qualitative part of this study as it allowed the researcher to study the phenomenon of CS in the classroom as it occurred. Owing to the absence of video recording, notes were taken down about the physical environment of the classroom to give a clear picture of what was actually taking place during the lessons. Although initially it was planned to video-record lessons, it was not possible to do so due to the limited research budget. Even though the visual scenario of the classrooms was not available and the researcher had to rely on her note-taking skills to record what was happening in the classroom during the observation of the lessons, the notes proved adequate. Unintentional as it was, the negative effect for which the use of a video recorder in a class situation is known, such as interruption and the artificial atmosphere that it may create, was eliminated. Instead, a portable, transcribing tape-recorder was mainly used to capture data from the lessons as accurately as possible.

Consequently, where necessary, the researcher made modifications as the data collection progressed. Such unexpected modifications resulted in more than six classes per stream, and therefore more than 12 classes in some schools. As a result, the researcher observed 171 lessons for compulsory subjects, and 26 lessons for optional subjects. In the end, a total of 197 lessons were observed and recorded. However, this was not a disadvantage as a larger sample gives a more realistic picture. Other researchers previously used large samples in a qualitative study (Bullock *et al*., in

Brannen, 1992: 88). The audio-tapes of the recorded lessons are also available should any reader wish to listen to them.

The researcher sat at the back of the class to minimize visibility from the learners, which could perhaps detract from or even affect their behaviour in class. The teachers appeared to have no problem with her presence. She neither asked any questions nor made any comments during the lesson, as the researcher was a non-participant observer. Participation in the lesson was not necessary as the data required were naturally generated during the lesson by the participants (the teacher and learners). This aspect is what differs about data collection in a formal situation such as the classroom, as opposed to data collected from a social setting where participation of the researcher may be necessary in some cases, or even inevitable (Mandubu, 1999: 21). If there were any questions the researcher needed to ask the teacher or to comment on the lesson, she normally asked them after the lesson had ended, when she and the teacher could exchange views informally.

Twenty samples of the lessons have been transcribed. Owing to a lack of of space, only five have been included as Addendum C of this study. The qualitative analysis of the transcribed lessons was done by using Hymes' SPEAKING model (Hymes, 1974) described below. This model was useful in identifying instances of CS; at which stage of the discourse it occurred; and why it occurred. The analysed data are presented in Chapter Seven of this study.

(a) Hymes' SPEAKING model

Hymes' mnemonic of SPEAKING, used here as a framework in the analysis of the language behaviour in the lessons observed, was developed to promote the analysis of discourse as a series of speech events and speech acts within a cultural context (Hymes, 1974: 54 - 60). Because of its flexible application in the analysis of different kinds of discourse, it was adopted for the analysis of the utterances made during the lessons. The analysis enabled the identification of CS as a speech act that occurs in a discourse that takes place in a teaching and learning environment. Depending on the nature of the discourse, the components of the SPEAKING model can be wholly or

partly applied. Therefore, only those speech components that are applicable in a particular discourse situation can be used.

In the present study, the SPEAKING model in its entirety will serve as a point of departure for Chapter Seven.

The SPEAKING model refers to the following features of the speech event:

S refers to *Setting* and *Scene*: *Setting* is the time and place of a speech act or the physical environment of the speech act. In the present study, the setting is the secondary school. *Scene* refers to the psychological setting of a scene in the form of the nature of the events, namely, is the event serious, formal or informal? In the present discourse, the scene is defined as formal and serious even though the level of its seriousness is at the discretion of the teacher who is the director of the events.

P refers to *Participants* and *audience*; that is, those taking part in the speech event as either speakers or listeners. In the present scenario, the teacher and the learners are the participants and audience, interchangeably assuming the role of speaker and listener.

E refers to *Ends*: These are purposes, goals and outcomes of the speech event (occasion). Here reference is to the reason(s) why the speech act is taking place. For instance, is it to entertain, teach or to honour someone? The purpose of the speech act in this case is to get the learners to participate in the development of the lesson and to ensure that they understand its content.

A refers to the *Act sequence,* the form and the order of the event, that is, how the speech act begins, develops and ends. This also includes what takes place and at which stage it takes place during the course of the speech act. In this case, the act sequence refers to the stage(s) at which CS is used during the lesson; that is, does it occur at the initial stage of the lesson, during the development stage, or at the final stage of the lesson; or does it occur throughout the lesson?

K refers to *Key,* the *clues* that establish the tone, manner, or spirit of the speech act. The tone of the speaker's voice gives an indication on whether the speech event

(occasion) is formal or informal. *Key* refers to the overall manner of the speech event. The way CS is used will give a cue as to whether it is used in a formal or an informal way.

I refers to *Instrumentalities* (for example, CS*)*, which are forms and styles of the speech taking place. The nature of the occasion usually dictates the form and style to be used, and these can be formal or informal. *Formal registers* may be chosen if the occasion is formal; and they may involve the use of well-chosen grammatical 'standard' forms. *Informal registers* may be used if the occasion is semi-formal or informal; they may involve the casual use of dialectical features. The registers may also include the use of technical terms depending on the nature of the subject. In the present study, the analysis will prove whether CS is used in the classroom in a formal or an informal way, and which purpose it serves.

N refers to *Norms*. These are social rules that govern the event and the participants' actions and reactions. They refer to school or classroom discourse that is also culturally appropriate. The *norms* refer to behaviour that is socially acceptable in a given context. The *nature* of the occasion dictates the type of *norms* that are expected. If the occasion is formal, formal norms are expected; and if the occasion is informal, then casual norms may be acceptable. For instance, in the former, the speaker(s) and the listener(s) may be expected to conduct themselves in a formal way. These may involve a formal presentation of the speech act by the speaker(s), and the formal and orderly response from the listener(s). In the latter, it may be permissible for both the speaker(s) and the listener(s) to act informally, such as by making jokes, and even interrupting one another or the teacher. Since the study involves the investigation of the role of CS in education, the analysis will seek to establish the type of norms that govern how CS is used by both the teachers and learners. During the lessons, both formal and informal norms appeared to govern the use of CS.

G refers to *Genre*; the *form of speech* that is being used. The *genre* is determined by the *nature* of the speech act, that is, whether it is in *oral* or *textual* form. A genre could be in the form of one of the following: a lecture, a sermon, a business letter or a written speech. In the present study, as the speech act is a lesson taking place in a learning situation, it is regarded as largely formal. The speech acts could be greetings at the

beginning of the lesson, followed by explanations and questions at the development stage of the lesson, and a summary at the closing of the lesson.

3.6.2 Questionnaire interview

Two sets of questionnaires were designed - one for the teachers and another for the learners (cf. Addenda D and E) for the purpose of collecting the data in the form of responses to the questions in the questionnaires. The responses were the respondents' views on the problem under investigation. As mentioned earlier in section 3.2, para. 5, the two questionnaires were largely structured since they comprised mainly the close-ended questions. In addition, there were a few questions in each that were open-ended (13 in the teachers' questionnaire and 11 in the learners' questionnaire). These respectively constitute 6%, and 5% of the questions in the teachers' and the learners' questionnaire.

The questionnaires were detailed. They contained 205 entries and 232 entries for the teachers' and the learners' questionnaires respectively. They were tailored to be group-specific in some areas to solicit information specific to the category of the participants. Both questionnaires carried the following sub-headings:

1. The demographic details of the respondent;
2. the respondent's language profile;
3. self-evaluation in language use;
4. the views on the role of language in teaching and learning;
5. CS in the classroom (between English and Setswana); and
6. the use of other local languages in the classroom.

In addition, the teachers' questionnaire contained:

1. the teaching profile that included the teacher's highest qualification, teaching experience, form (grade) taught, number of learners per class taught, subject(s) taught; and

2. the evaluation of learners' language use in class.

The learners' questionnaire contained an evaluation of the teachers' language use in class as another sub-heading.

The objective of the long questionnaire was to obtain as much information as possible that would be relevant to the research questions in lieu of a direct interview with the respondents. This was especially important for the learners as the questionnaire interviews gave them an opportunity to respond to it without answering direct questions posed by someone with whom they were not familiar (the researcher). Because they were assured of anonymity, most of the learners appeared comfortable as they completed the questionnaire in class. The researcher had also noted during lesson observations that most of the learners were not confident enough to speak in English in class. Therefore, when the questionnaires were being finalized, it was decided to include all the issues that arose from lesson observations to better inform the study. Therefore, additional questions were included in the questionnaires to eliminate the need for a direct interview with both the teachers and the learners. However, the confidence to speak English during a direct interview was not problematic for the teachers.

A lack of additional funds to cover expenses that were to be incurred during another field-research visit also necessitated the decision not to conduct an oral interview with any group of participants. While being mindful of some of the short-comings of a questionnaire interview that involved completion by the respondents instead of a face-to-face interview, the researcher, is nonetheless confident that the data gathered by observing the lessons, complemented by the data collected via the questionnaires, will provide a reliable picture of the language situation at the schools covered in the study, and will sufficiently answer the main research question as well as its sub-problems.

(a) Administration of the teachers' questionnaire

The questionnaire was distributed to all the teachers in the study, with the request that it be completed and returned to the researcher before the end of the field research at each school. The teachers were to respond to the questionnaire in their spare time and

at a place of their own choice without undue pressure from the presence of the researcher. Unlike the case of the learners, the researcher was confident that the teachers would not encounter any problems associated with the language used in the questionnaire.

The administration of the teachers' questionnaire in all four schools took place without any problem, and the majority of the teachers returned it to the researcher before her departure from their schools. The overall return rate was good (72%). This includes School Four, where there were some problems of class disruption while the research was in progress.

(b) Administration of the learners' questionnaire

The researcher personally administered the learners' questionnaire. This minimized the problems associated with questionnaire interviews.

Initially, the researcher had planned to use the learners' preparation time (study time) for the purpose of the questionnaire instead of normal class time, to minimize class disruption, but it was not possible as all four schools had already scheduled their standard class tests for various subjects to be written during preparation times. At one of the schools, the situation was further complicated by the newly introduced, double-shift system. The researcher was informed that some learners never turned up for preparation time, which was now scheduled for mid-day, after the end of the morning shift at school. Furthermore, preparation time had been arranged for the F 5 classes only because they were completing their studies at senior secondary school and were about to write their school-leaving examinations. No preparation time had been arranged for the F 4 classes. Instead, the researcher arranged a special time with the teachers involved in the study to allow her to meet the learners during one of their lessons, so that each learner in the study could respond to the questionnaire at the same time. This also allowed the researcher to explain the purpose of the research to the learners and to ask them if they were willing to participate in the study. She was able to clarify some questions that some learners had difficulty in understanding. Therefore, ambiguity -- which often results in the misinterpretation of the items in the questionnaire (when learners complete the questionnaire in their own time, and which

could either lead to the provision of wrong information or the return of an incomplete questionnaire owing to a lack of understanding) – was minimized. As a result, not many entries were recorded as missing.

This approach positively influenced the return rate of the questionnaires. A total of 2 367 questionnaires were returned out of the 2 763 questionnaires that were handed out. The return rate was therefore 86%. Because the learners' questionnaire was completed by the majority of the learners during normal class time and under the supervision of the researcher, most of the learners provided their individual opinion without the influence of their friends. Furthermore, the learners gave the completion of the questionnaire the seriousness it deserved.

However, the problems associated with the questionnaire interview were not totally eliminated. For instance, in some cases where the researcher could not secure the normal class time to administer the questionnaire, it was distributed to the learners to complete in their own time and to be collected the next day. In such cases, not all the questionnaires were returned; there were more missing entries than in the questionnaires completed during class time; and some misinterpretations of questions were noted. This was more apparent at the school that was affected by the sudden disruption of classes owing to the suspension from classes of learners whose school fees had not been paid. The lesson observation stage was not seriously affected by this unexpected occurrence, but the questionnaire administration exercise was. It was not easy for the researcher to secure class time from some of the teachers concerned to administer the questionnaire because some teaching time had been lost when teachers had to cancel classes with a reduced number of learners present. As already mentioned, the teachers instead offered to distribute the questionnaire to their classes and then to collect them on the behalf of the researcher. As a result, the return rate for the learners' questionnaire at this school was affected (68%), while at the other three schools it was well over 80%. Nonetheless, the number of questionnaires returned, while being slightly lower than at the other three schools, was sufficient to give a reliable picture of the language scenario at this school.

Notwithstanding the few problems outlined above, the overall return rate was exceptionally high, and the quality of the responses was good. The researcher is

therefore confident that the data provided by the learners will present a reliable picture of the language situation generally and the problem under investigation (CS), in particular, at the schools in the study.

3.7 DIMENSIONS OF VARIATION OR VARIABLES

The data in the questionnaires were mainly categorized into independent and dependent variables. Independent variables are those variables that the researcher studies as a possible cause of something (Leedy & Ormrod; 2005) or those key factors that may influence how the respondents may perceive a particular issue. The dependent variables are those that depend on the independent variables for their interpretation in relation to the question at hand. Characterizing variables as either independent or dependent varies from one study to another and what it seeks to address. In the present study, the following independent variables were identified for analysing the data obtained through the teachers' questionnaire:

- gender;
- age;
- nature of dwelling (that is, is it a city, or town, or village?);
- district of origin;
- educational qualifications; teaching experience;
- home language;
- subject taught;
- the school setting (that is, urban or peri-urban); and
- self-evaluation in fluency in English as a language of teaching;
- Setswana as a national language and, to some extent,
- Ikalanga as the main local language of the area.

For the learners, the independent variables were:

- gender;
- grade;
- home language;
- nature of dwelling (that is, is it a city, town or village?);

- district of origin;

- citizenship;

- school setting (urban or peri-urban);

- fluency in English as a language of learning;

- Setswana as a national language and, to some extent,

- Ikalanga as the main local language of the area.

While it was desirable to have age as an independent variable in the analysis of the learners' responses, this was not necessary as the age of the learners was largely homogeneous. Approximately 91% of the learners were aged between 17 and 19; close to 7% were aged between 14 and 16, while only 2% were aged between 20 and 24.

Only the independent variables directly related to the research questions were used in further analyzing the dependent variables (also directly related to the main research question) from the teachers' and the learners' questionnaires respectively. The details of such variables are provided in the next chapter.

The choice of the independent variables identified above was found to be in order, as similar studies that had also focused on the participants' attitudes towards a language(s), identified similar independent variables. Such studies were Baker's study on attitudes to the Welsh language (Baker, 1989, in Strydom, 2002, and Strydom's study on a sociolinguistic profile of Mamelodi and Attridgeville (Strydom, 2002). The present study also seeks to identify and explain a language phenomenon, namely CS in the classroom. According to Baker (1989: 41, in Strydom, 2002: 94) independent variables can be regarded as determinants of language. However, he asserts that, "*No model, or even lists of factors that may make up attitudes to a language has appeared to have been drawn up*".

Consequently, Baker compiled a list from previous studies on the attitudes towards Welsh of what he referred to as possible ingredients that could serve as an overall model that seeks to predict positive or negative attitudes towards a language. Because CS is a language phenomenon, the researcher sought the use of Baker (1989)'s approach in determining the independent variables for the present study. How each

independent variable influences the dependent variables, will be discussed later in Chapters Five and Six when the quantitative analysis of the teachers and the learners' responses is done.

The corresponding dependent variables for both the teachers and learners were as follows:

- the respondents' views and attitudes towards CS and the extent of its use in the classroom;
- the didactic consequences of CS in the classroom;
- the educational effects of CS in the classroom, including its effects on the non-Setswana speaking learners;
- the effects of CS on the pace of teaching and learning;
- its effects on the LiEP of Botswana;
- the respondents' views on the revision of the LiEP; and
- the effects of the current LiEP on the respondents' perceptions about the use of Setswana, and other local languages for teaching and learning.

Broadly speaking, the dependent variables were summaries of the research questions. The choice of the dependent variables listed above was based on the main problem that the study sought to address as already stated in the preceding paragraph. The investigation of CS in education cannot be divorced from the use of English and Setswana. Therefore the participants' views and attitudes on the use of these languages, in addition to CS, were solicited. Each of these languages performs certain specific functions for their speakers. Ammon (1989: 15-16, in Strydom, 2002: 97) states that, "[…] each language fills a number of social functions […] the function of a language is what it is used for – not its potential, but its use".

According to Strydom (2002: 97-88), language domains vary from activity to activity, and therefore some language functions are more important than others. For instance, in Botswana, the degree to which a language of instruction such as English, is used at school varies from the use of the same language in an activity like worshipping or shopping or visiting government offices. Conversely, the degree to which Setswana is used at school is not the same as its use at the shops or when visiting government

offices. To some extent, the same can be said about Ikalanga as the local language of the area. Consequently, the domains of language are dictated by the frequency of its use in a particular activity. For example, English fulfils a higher functional domain in education than Setswana and Ikalanga because of its status in the LiEP of Botswana. While Setswana has a role to play in education, its role is limited in that officially it is only taught as a subject at school, but not used for the teaching and learning of other subjects. However, the occurrence of CS in the classroom is evidence that informally, the functional domain of Setswana in education is growing, even though it is still limited to spoken communication and never used in written communication except in the written work for Setswana as a subject.

3.8 PRE-TESTING OF INSTRUMENTS

Pre-testing of any instrument that one chooses to use for data collection is very important (Czaja & Blair, 2005; Davies, 2007; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). By pre-testing, the suitability as well as the reliability and validity (especially the questionnaire interview) of the instrument can be established. To that effect, an arrangement was made to pre-test the instruments to be used for the collection of the qualitative and quantitative data before their actual use in the field. Using results from the pre-test, the research instruments were finalized in readiness for the main field research. Also, the experience gained from pre-testing assisted the researcher to better prepare for the main field research. The strengths and limitations of each instrument were noted and this information was used to improve the data-collection techniques.

The lesson-observation technique was pre-tested at a senior secondary school in Gaborone where lessons in three subjects, namely History, English Language and Literature in English were observed. Both single and double lessons were observed. This was necessary to determine which length of duration of a lesson was more suitable for data collection. This gave the researcher an opportunity to familiarize herself with the instrument (transcribing / audio tape-recording system) that she intended using to record the lessons, and to see whether it was suitable for that purpose. The lessons recorded were then transcribed. From the results of the pre-test, it was decided to observe only single lessons (40 minutes long) as it was found that

there was sufficient information from a single lesson, and that a double lesson (80 minutes long) was too long to transcribe.

From the pre-test, the researcher found the audio-tape recording device user-friendly: it was portable, easy to operate, and sensitive enough to pick the classroom discourse even though the researcher sat at the back of the class.

Before the two questionnaires were administered to the participants in the study, they were also pre-tested at two separate schools to ensure their reliability and validity. The teachers' questionnaire was given to a few teachers who were asked to complete it, and then to make comments on its length, language level (whether it was too difficult or too easy, as well as its clarity) and the appropriateness of its contents in relation to the topic of the study. The respondents found the questionnaire contents easy to understand and relevant to the topic under investigation. They also found its length to be not intimidating, given that it was a structured questionnaire. The learners' questionnaire was also pre-tested by administering it to a group of learners in one class at another school. After completing the questionnaire, the learners were asked if there was any item or items in the questionnaire that they found too personal and therefore uncomfortable to answer. They were also asked about the clarity of its language. The researcher further wanted to know how much time was needed to complete the questionnaire. The time-factor was especially critical for the learners' questionnaire, because it was necessary to know beforehand how much time would be required to complete the questionnaire. Hence the researcher needed to arrange with the teachers concerned some class time that would be used to administer the questionnaire to the learners, so that they could complete and return it to her within the time given. The comments received were also used to amend the questionnaires before formally administering them to the participants.

3.9 INPUT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF STATISTICS

During the questionnaire design stage, the researcher closely worked with the Department of Statistics of the University of Pretoria. This was important because the data received through the questionnaire would have to be captured and analyzed statistically for easier interpretation. The Department of Statistics assigned a

statistician who advised on sample size and other matters of a statistical nature. The services of the statistician were sought throughout the duration of the study as and when the need arose. In addition, the computer programmer within the Department of Statistics was the main contact person who acted as the research consultant. The computer programmer advised on questionnaire design from its draft to its final stage. This was to ensure that possible inherent problems such as ambiguity of the questions, double meanings, and over-loaded questions, personal or oversensitive information were eliminated; and that the items conformed to the statistical requirements. It was also ensured that the two questionnaires (one for the teachers; another for the learners) contained almost identical questions as the same phenomenon was being investigated from the teachers' and the learners' points of view. Advice was also rendered on how best to structure the questionnaire, including coding the responses by using the Likert Scale (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). This was appropriate for this type of study that was investigating the participants' opinions and attitudes towards a phenomenon namely CS in the classroom. In some cases, a checklist (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005) was also used. Both techniques were suitable as they made it easier and quicker for the respondents to provide the responses. They also made it easier to evaluate and quantify the respondents' opinions and then interpret them statistically.

After the two questionnaires were piloted, the researcher manually coded the responses and the computer programmer examined the responses to ensure that all codes necessary for the interpretation were available. Where additional codes were required, such advice was rendered.

The Department of Statistics also assisted with the entry of the manually coded data from the completed questionnaire into the computer. This exercise was necessary in readiness for statistical analysis of the data by using the appropriate statistics package. Once data entry into the computer was complete, the data were proof-read and cleaned for errors to ensure that coding would be consistent with the responses provided before the analysis thereof could be done. This was also to ensure that the results generated from the data were not different from the information provided by the respondents. Once the researcher had cleaned the data, the analysis of the data commenced and the results were presented in tabular form. The details of the data analysis are provided in the next three chapters on the presentation of the quantitative data.

3.10 ETHICAL ASPECTS

Ethical issues are very important to observe because human subjects are involved (Davies, 2007; Hofstee, 2006; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Punch, 2003). Ethical issues fall into one of four main categories, namely:

1. protection from harm;
2. informed consent;
3. the right to privacy; and
4. honesty with professional colleagues.

(Leedy & Ormrod, 2005: 101).

In the present study, informed consent was central because the study involved human subjects, namely the teachers and learners in each school. Informed consent implies that participants in the research be informed about the nature of the research to be conducted and be given the choice to decide whether or not they are willing to participate in the study. Although it was desirable that participants remained part of the research until its completion, they were informed that, should anyone wish to withdraw from the study at any stage, they were at liberty to do so.

In any research, giving too little or too much information about the study to the participants can be problematic. The former borders on a violation of the principle of informed consent, whilst the latter may influence the behaviour of the participants during the study, hence may affect the results of the study. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 101) suggest that:

"… a reasonable compromise is to give potential participants a general idea of what the study is about … and to describe what specific activities their participation will involve…to give them sufficient information to make a reasonable, informed judgment about whether they wish to participate".

Consequently, the researcher adhered to the principle of informed consent. While the focus of the study was generally stated, the participants were given sufficient information that enabled them to make a decision as to whether or not they wished to participate in the study. For instance, participants were told that the objective of the

study was to investigate 'the role of language in the teaching and learning of different subject categories, namely language-based subjects, content-based subjects, and practical subjects'. A consent form was provided that contained a summary of the research; the nature of participation required from volunteers, such as the activities in which they would have to engage, the duration of the study, as well as a guarantee of confidentiality and anonymity. The consent form included the researcher's full contact details and a pledge to make available the findings of the research to the participants once the study was complete. In the same form, the teachers were required to sign if they were willing to be participants in the study and, by extension, also gave consent on behalf of their classes to be included in the study. The four schools were assured that a summary of the results of the study would be made available to them after its completion. However, once the study is over, participants would be informed about the specific topic of the study.

To further adhere to the principle of informed consent, the researcher sought official approval from the Ministry of Education in Botswana to undertake the research in the schools stated. All documents associated with this process were made available to the schools. All participants in the study remained anonymous, and confidentiality was assured.

3.11 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED DURING THE FIELD-RESEARCH STAGE

A number of problems were encountered during the field-research stage that contributed towards the delay in completing the data collection process within the time frame initially planned. First, there was a delay in processing the application for a research budget by the Training Office of the University of Botswana. While the researcher had planned to start the field research in May 2006, it was not possible to do so until at the beginning of June 2006. Second, at the schools it was not always possible to follow the lesson observation schedule drawn up in advance, due to a number of factors. While almost all the teachers whose classes had been selected for observation raised no objection, there were a few instances when some were unwilling to be observed. In such instances, another class was randomly selected, the consent of the teacher was sought and, if agreeable, included in the study. Sometimes some classes in the study were unavailable for observation at the time agreed with the

teacher as he / she was absent from class due to illness, or was away on some official commitments, or because a test had been scheduled at that time. In such cases, the observation schedule had to be modified to accommodate such unexpected changes. In some cases, a teacher appeared in the observation schedule more than once, but as a result of teaching different classes. Most teachers had no objection, but whenever a teacher raised an objection, another class was again randomly selected to include a different teacher. The formalities of seeking his or her consent were followed before the lesson could be observed. Consequently, a longer period was often spent at a school than had been originally planned.

In some classes, electrical sockets were not working; therefore it was not possible to use the recording system. Instead, a battery-operated mini-cassette recorder was used. Because of its small size, permission from the teacher was sought to place the mini-cassette recorder on his or her table at the beginning of the lesson to capture the lesson as it was being delivered. This was supplemented with active note-taking, not only of what was physically taking place in the class, but also of the lesson presentation and discussions. The position of the mini cassette-recorder had no adverse effect on either the delivery of the lesson by the teacher or the participation of the learners in the lesson. Some school events, and numerous public holidays, also affected the smooth flow of the data-collection process.

Finally, the research funds were exhausted before the field research was completed. Therefore, another break from the field research was unavoidable. An application for supplementary research funds was made to the sponsors. These were, fortunately, made available, and although limited, enabled the researcher to complete the data-collection stage.

3.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the study design and the methods that were used to collect the data, both quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative method involved the use of the questionnaires to collect the data from the teachers and learners. How each questionnaire was administered or managed, was also explained.

The qualitative method involved lesson observations to determine if CS were used in the classroom, and by whom. The research site was described, as well as the sample size and the sampling procedures. Hymes' SPEAKING model was also described because of its relevance to the analysis of the qualitative data. Concerning the data in the questionnaires, both the independent and the dependent variables were described. Pre-testing of the data collection instruments was also explained.

The role of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria in the design of the research instrument, namely the questionnaire, as well as analysing the data quantitatively, was briefly explained. Ethical aspects observed during the field research were also described. Finally, unforeseen problems experienced during the data-collection stage were also articulated in this chapter.

The next chapter discusses the quantitative analysis method that was used in the analysis of the quantitative data presented in Chapters 4, 5 and 6. The demographic and language profiles of both the teachers and learners are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA: RESPONDENTS' DEMOGRAPHIC AND LANGUAGE PROFILES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The present chapter and the next two chapters are devoted to the presentation and analysis of the quantitative data collected by analysing the questionnaires. As pointed out earlier in Chapter 3, section 3.4.2, paragraph one, there were two sets of questionnaires -- one for the teachers, and the other for the learners. The questionnaires are included at the end of this study report as Addenda D and E respectively. The two questionnaires were aimed at obtaining an holistic picture of the research sites and the participants in the study. Thereafter, only the data directly related to the research questions were included in this study for further analysis of the data from the teachers' and the learners' questionnaires respectively. This data form the basis for this chapter and the next two chapters; and are also presented in tabular format within the study in the respective chapters. Owing to a lack of space, the data obtained through further analysis of the dependent variables by independent variables are not presented in tabular format but only reported on in the next two chapters. While the rest of the data will not be used in the present study, it is nonetheless valuable and will be utilized later in addressing other research issues of a sociolinguistic nature and, among others, the politics of language.

The responses provided by the respondents represented their views on English as the official language and the main LoLT in the schools. Further, their views were given on Setswana as the national language and the only local language taught in the schools; on its role in education; as well as their views on CS between these two languages and its role in education. The respondents' views on the role of other local languages in education and / or CS to them were also solicited. The researcher referred to Ikalanga only as the main local language in the area in which the study was performed.

4.2 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRES

The data were analysed quantitatively using exploratory statistics. The general purpose of exploratory statistics is to help the researcher to closely investigate the patterns in the data and to identify the information that emerges from it. Subsequently, it allows the researcher to 'ransack' the data (Milroy, 1987: 138-139, in Strydom, 2002: 102). Some of the advantages associated with exploratory statistics are as set out below:

- It is quick to use and presents the data in a way that errors that may have occurred during the data-coding or data-inputting stage are easily found.
- It allows for the presentation of the data in the form of tables expressed in nominal values and percentages, which allows for easy interpretation (Strydom, 2002: 102).
- Other visually appealing presentations such as graphs and pie charts can also be used.
- Because these forms of data presentation are user friendly, they allow for easy scrutiny of the data and quick identification of the patterns that emerge.
- Consequently, exploratory statistics allows for easy interpretation of the results. Strydom (2002: 102) rightly refers to exploratory statistics as "highly systematized common sense".

4.3 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The professional assistance of the Department of Statistics at the University of Pretoria was sought in the statistical analysis of the data from the questionnaires, as well as for testing the results for statistical significance. A statistical programme known as SAS version 8.2 was used to establish the distribution of the scores. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages were calculated on single variables for each question in the questionnaire. The statistics included the mean, median, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values. Two-way contingency tables were set up, summary statistics were calculated, and the results interpreted.

A Chi-square test was done on certain two-way tables. This test is used to measure the relationship between two variables, both of which are measured at a nominal level. The Chi-square test is very sensitive to large samples and is 'almost always' significant when the sample size is large; such as the learners' sample in this study. Therefore, the effect size should be reported together with the Chi-square statistics. The 'effect size' is a measure of the strength of the relationship between two variables. If a significant relationship were to be found between two variables, the effect size was calculated to confirm whether the relationship was real or by chance. The magnitude of the effect size is measured by Cramer's V, and can be classified into three categories, namely small, medium, and large, according to the degree of freedom in the contingency table. The ranges for the effect size used in this study were as follows:

- Small effect size: 0.07 -- 0.21 (also 0.21 -- 0.30: small to medium effect size)
- Medium effect size: 0.31 -- 0.5
- Large effect size: 0.51 upwards

Small effect size implies that the results were largely influenced by the size of the sample; and therefore there is only a small association between the respondents' opinion and reality. Medium effect size implies that the results were not strongly influenced by sample size: there is a medium association between opinion and the view expressed; and large effect size implies that there is reasonable relationship between the respondents' opinion and the view expressed in reality.

According to Robinson (1996: 66), a statistical test is "vital" to determine a statistical relationship between attributes, and to determine the strength of that relationship. According to Fasold (1984: 85-91, in Strydom, 2002), through numbers, statistics provides the researcher with a way of finding out what the observations made about the data mean. Consequently, the results of the statistical tests are described as either highly significant, significant, or not significant; and are expressed as follows:

- Less than 0.01: Highly significant as it suggests that there is a statistical relationship of high significance between respondents' opinions about a particular variable and the independent variable being tested.

- Less than 0.05: Significant as it suggests that there is a statistical relationship of significance between the respondents' opinion on a particular variable and the independent variable being tested.

- Greater than or equal to 0.05 up to < 0.10: Not significant but it suggests that there is a tendency for a relationship of statistical significance between the respondents' opinion about the dependent variable and the independent variable being tested.

When the results of a statistical test are described as 'highly significant', it means that the results obtained from the study are highly likely to be true in reality, within a margin of error of 5%.

Fisher's Exact Test was used to test for the significance of the association between two variables where sample sizes were small, such as in the case of the teachers' sample in this study.

The statistical tests were done to determine whether or not the generalisations made about CS in the classroom were true. Therefore, in addition to the statistical significance of the results, the effect size is also stated in relation to the learners' views. The descriptions above apply where there is a statistical significance (in both the teachers' and the learners' views), and where there is effect size (in the learners' views only). In this regard, the results of the statistical tests are presented in Chapter Five (the teachers' results) and Chapter Six (the learners' results). The latter include results on the effect size.

Concerning the teachers' results, a statistical test was applied to the data where the values were significant. However, where the numbers were too small, either the results of similar options were combined before the test was effected, or such results were excluded from statistical testing and the data were merely described. For example, on home language for teachers, only the results of Setswana and Ikalanga were tested for statistical significance. The results of the other languages (English and those collectively reported on as 'others') were merely described because only a few teachers were involved in this exercise. In addition, in some of the responses where 'Not sure' was one of the options, it was included as a possible optional response where it was

deemed to be a legitimate answer. However, where the respondents could have given a definite opinion, 'Not sure' was excluded from the statistical tests.

4.4 PRESENTATION OF THE ANALYSED DATA IN THE PRESENT CHAPTER

The present chapter is much more general than the others, and is divided into three main sections:

1. The first section deals with the respondents' demographic details, which include the description of their personal and professional / academic details.
2. The second section deals with the respondents' language profile, which includes their home language, their proficiency in English and Setswana, and where they learnt to speak these two languages. It is believed that the respondents' proficiency in the two languages influences the rate of CS between them.
3. The third section presents the respondents' views about how they use English and Setswana in different spheres of life. Their responses were solicited to reveal the importance that they attach to these two languages as either high-function languages (formal context) (HFFC) such as their use in official matters, or low-function (formal context) (LFFC) languages, such as during discussions on non-educational matters in the classroom.

The results were not subjected to further analysis using independent variables, as the intention was to present a general picture of the participants with respect to their demographic details, language profile and the importance they attach to the use of Setswana and English in different domains. Consequently, statistical tests were not applied to the results. Instead, the statistical tests were applied to the teachers' and learners' analysed data as has already been reported. These are the data (including the qualitative data in Chapter Seven), which also directly addressed the research questions presented in Chapter Eight.

4.5 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT THE PARTICIPANTS

As described in Chapter Three, the participants were teachers and learners drawn from four senior-secondary schools in the north-eastern region of Botswana, identified here as Schools One and Two (urban schools), and Schools Three and Four (peri-urban schools).

4.5.1 Teachers

As explained earlier in Chapter Three, all the teachers in the study were citizens of Botswana who could speak both English and Setswana. This was necessary as the study set out to investigate CS mainly between English and Setswana in the classroom. The majority of the teachers (91%) hold a first degree in their disciplines, and a Postgraduate Diploma in Education; nine percent hold a Masters degree, and higher. This is consistent with the Government's policy that all teachers teaching at senior-secondary school level should be in possession of at least a first degree and a teaching qualification. Therefore, all the teachers are considered to be professionally well qualified as they meet the minimum educational requirements stipulated by the government. Ninety-two percent of the teachers teach at both Form Four and Form Five levels; and only eight teachers (8%) teach at either of the two levels. The teaching load per teacher ranged from 30 to 267 learners. The average teaching load per teacher was 144 learners (cf. a histogram below produced as Graph 4.1). The maximum teaching load was common among the teachers of the core subjects because of the large number of the learners involved.

Graph 4.1: A histogram showing the average teaching load (number of students per teacher) across the four schools

Histogram of LOAD
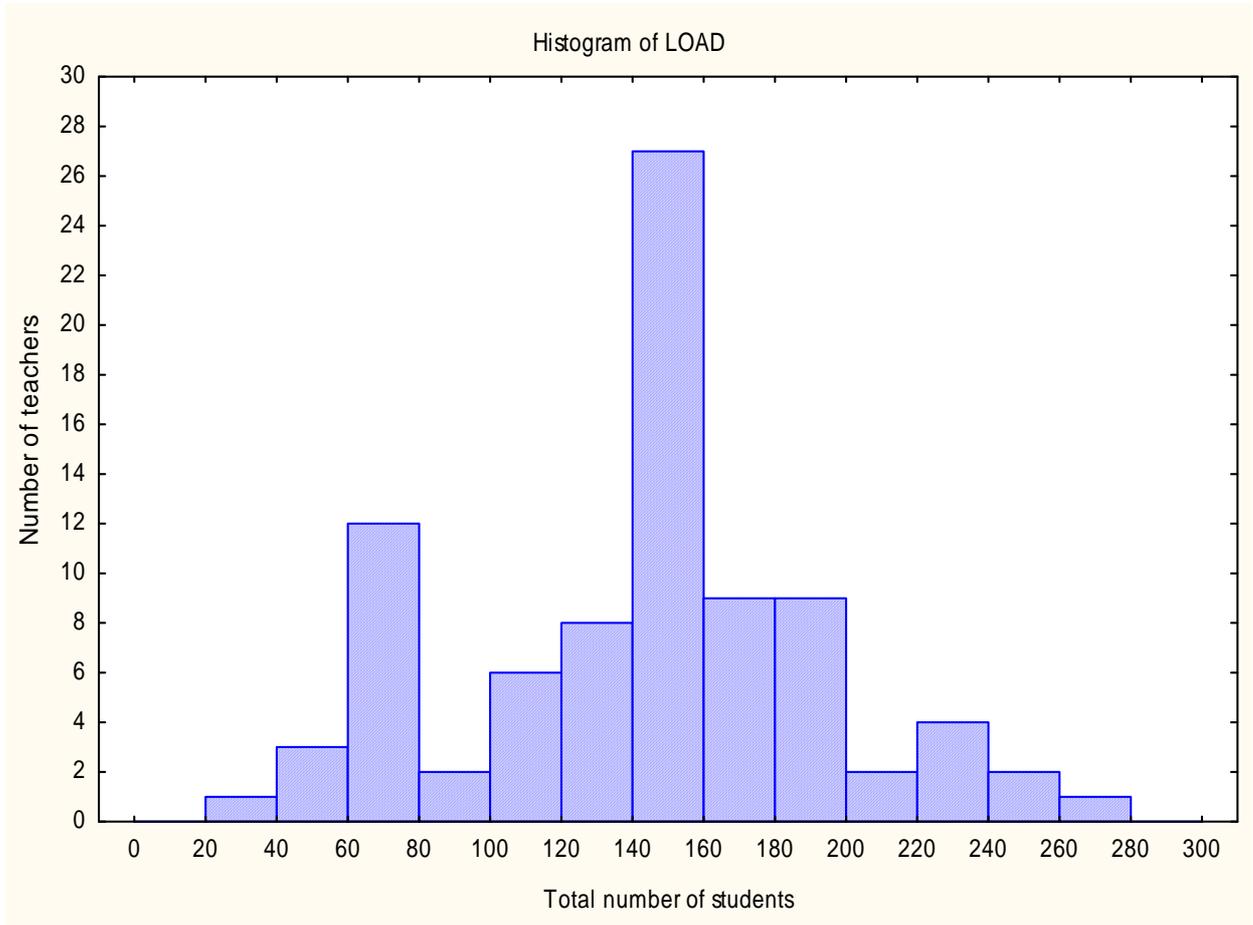
The majority of the teachers (65%) learnt Setswana mainly at home and 83% learnt English mainly at primary school. This shows the functions of the two languages -- Setswana as primarily the language of the home, and English primarily as the language of education. In addition, 23% of the teachers learnt Setswana at school, in line with the policy of the Government of Botswana that Setswana be a compulsory subject at primary school for all Batswana learners, irrespective of whether or not they are enrolled in private or government schools. This policy also enabled those who did not know Setswana to learn it. Another 12% learnt Setswana from other sources apart from home or school, such as on the playground. The latter two instances confirm that some teachers had a home language other than Setswana.

4.5.2 Learners

The learners were both speakers and non-speakers of Setswana. The former spoke Setswana as either their MT or as a second language. They constituted 99.33% of the learners. The latter were residents of Botswana owing to the employment status of their parents. These learners constituted 0.67% of the learners. They usually used their MT and / or English at home. It was necessary for the study to be inclusive to better understand the effect of CS use in the classroom among the two categories of learners. The age of the learners ranged from 14 to 24, with the majority of the learners (78%) being between the ages of 17 and 18. Nearly 7% were aged between 14 and 16. Fourteen percent were aged between 19 and 20; and only 0.51% (ten learners) were older than 20 years. The age distribution of the learners was largely homogeneous.

Like the teachers, the majority of the learners (75%) learnt to speak Setswana at home, and learnt to speak English at primary school (72%). This suggests that Setswana is mainly learned from family members, while English is mainly learned from the teacher(s) at school.

A further 17% learnt Setswana at primary school, and another 9% learnt it from another source apart from the home or school, thereby confirming a similar observation made earlier about the teachers that some learners had a home language other than Setswana. Furthermore, 17% of the learners learnt English at home compared to 6% of the teachers. These percentages suggest that English may be a home language for some of the learners.

The *independent variables* used above to give background information on both the teachers and learners were not used to further analyse the dependent variables as the data were largely homogeneous. However, the *independent variables* described below were used to further analyse the respondents' views on the dependent variables.

Please note that the following legends are used in this study:

M = Male; F= Female; N = Total in number (nominal value)
Eng. = English; Sets. = Setswana; M Frq = Missing Frequency; Frq = frequency;
Lang. = Language

4.6 DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS ABOUT THE TEACHERS

The demographic details about the teachers are presented below:

(a) School and gender

Table 4.1: Teachers' distribution by school and gender

School	Male		Female		Total	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
1. School 1	6	27	16	73	22	100
2. School 2	14	50	14	50	28	100
3. School 3	9	45	11	55	20	100
4. School 4	12	50	12	50	24	100
Total	**41**	**44**	**53**	**56**	**94**	**100**

Table 4.1 presents the results by school and gender of the distribution of the teachers who participated in the study. Initially, there were 130 teachers involved in the study but only 94 teachers returned the completed questionnaires. These comprised of 41 male teachers (44%) and 53 female teachers (56%). Thus there were more female teachers than male teachers in the study. School One had the smallest proportion of male participants (27%) and the largest proportion of female participants (73%), while the distribution by gender at Schools Two and Four was equal (50%). The situation at School Three was similar to that of the other two schools even though there were a few more female teachers (55%) than male teachers (45%).

(b) Age

Table 4.2: Teachers' distribution by age

Age range	Total	
	N	**%**
1. Under 25 years	1	1
2. 25 yrs to 30 yrs	26	28
3. 31 yrs to 40 yrs	56	61
4. Over 40 yrs	9	10
Total	**92**	**100**

Please note: the missing frequency (frq) is two (2)

Table 4.2 above shows that the majority of the teachers (61%) fell within the range of 31to 40 years old, suggesting that the majority of the teachers were well experienced.

It remains to be seen whether age was a significant factor pertaining to the use of CS in the classroom later when the dependent variables using age are analysed.

(c) Teaching experience

Table 4.3: Teaching Experience

Experience	Total	
	N	**%**
1. Under 1 yr	1	1.12
2. 1-5 yrs	32	35.9
3. 6-10 yrs	30	34.33
4. 11-15 yrs	21	23.59
5. Over 15 yrs	5	5.6
Total	**89**	**100**

Please note: the missing frequency is five (5).

Table 4.3 above presents a summary of the teachers' professional experience grouped into five-year intervals for ease of reference. From the raw data, their teaching experience ranged from less than one year to 28 years. The majority of the teachers (70%) fall within the teaching experience range of one to ten years; and the average teaching experience for the majority of the teachers is eight years. The 29% who have more than ten years teaching experience could, therefore, be considered to be well experienced. The least experienced teacher (less than one year experience) was also the youngest at 25 years of age, suggesting that she was newly employed. The teachers' experience is important as its influence on their views on CS will be investigated.

(d) Subjects taught

Table 4.4: Teachers' distribution by subject taught

Subject	Teachers	
	N	**%**
1. English Language	24	25
2. English Literature	9	10
2. Setswana	25	27
3. Biology	21	22
4. History	8	9
4. Home Economics	7	7
Total	**94**	**100**

Table 4.4 above shows that 62% of the teachers were language teachers (English and Setswana). English and Setswana are referred to as language subjects because their focus is mainly on the improvement of the learners' proficiency in language. The other 38% comprised of teachers who taught content subjects (Biology, History, and Home Economics).

The subjects are further classified into core and optional subjects. The former are Biology, English Language and Setswana; and make up 74% of the total. These subjects have the highest number of teachers because they are offered to all the learners. Setswana is offered as an optional subject to non-Batswana learners. The latter are History, Home Economics and Literature in English and make up 26% of the teachers in the study. These subjects have a low number of teachers because of the low numbers of learners who read for them. Therefore, the low numbers of the teachers of optional subjects in the study are consistent with the low numbers of these teachers at the schools that the researcher visited.

While CS is normally not expected in a language class, these subjects were nonetheless included in the study to establish whether CS occurs during the lessons of these subjects, and the extent of its occurrence. Therefore, the effect of the nature of the subject taught on CS use was investigated, and its occurrence in the two categories of subjects compared (cf. Chapter 5).

4.7 LANGUAGE PROFILE OF THE TEACHERS

The language profile of the teachers deals with their home language as well as their degree of fluency in speaking, reading, writing and understanding of English and Setswana and, to some extent, Ikalanga, the local language of the area. The latter will be applicable only to the speakers of this language. The study focuses on English (the official language) and Setswana (the national language) because of their status in the country in general, and their pivotal role in the education system in particular.

(a) Home language (HL)

Table 4.5: Teachers' home language (HL)

Home Language	Total	
	N	**%**
1. Setswana	52	56
2. Ikalanga	17	18
3. English	3	3.2
4 Setswana and Ikalanga	3	3.2
5. Setswana and English	3	3.2
6. Setswana, Ikalanga and English	4	4.3
7. Ikalanga and English	0	0
8. Other languages	11	12
Total	**93**	**100**

Please note: Missing Frq (M Frq): HL: 1

The results in Table 4.5 above show that Setswana is the home language for the majority of the teachers (56%), followed by Ikalanga at 18%, and English is the home language of a very small number of the teachers (3%); 10.7% spoke more than two home languages, suggesting that some of the respondents were bilinguals at home. The remaining 12% was made up of 'other' languages, spoken by very few speakers or none at all.

The influence of HL as an independent variable on the respondents' views on CS was investigated. The linguistic typology was earlier discussed in the introductory part of Chapter One (cf. paragraph 1.1).

Table 4.6: Teachers' subjective proficiency rating in English and Setswana

Domains of Language competency	Lang.	Fluent		Moderately		*Not that well / Not at all				Total		M Frq
		N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**		**%**		**N**	**%**	**N**
1. Speaking	**Eng**	76	83	16	17	0		0		92	100	2
	Sets	80	86	12	13	0		0		92	100	2
2. Reading	**Eng**	85	93	6	7	0		0		91	100	3
	Sets	73	79	19	20	1		1		92	100	2
3. Writing	**Eng**	81	90	9	10	0		0		90	100	4
	Sets	74	80	16	17	3		3		93	100	1
4. Understanding*	**Eng**	76	84	14	15	*1	0	*1	0	91	100	3
	Sets	78	84	14	15	*1	0	*1	0	93	100	1

* Understanding only

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Table 4.6 above illustrates the teachers' subjective views on their competence in the four language domains, and are based on self-rating by the teachers. The results show that the majority of the teachers considered themselves to have acquired competence in both English and Setswana. However, when comparing the teachers' fluency in the two languages, the following were significant:

- There were more teachers who said that they were fluent speakers of Setswana than in English (87% as opposed to 83%);
- the same proportion of teachers (84%) said they understood English and Setswana very well;
- there were more teachers who said that they were proficient writers in English than those who said so about Setswana ((90% as opposed to 80%); and
- there were more teachers who said they read fluently in English than those who said the same about Setswana (93% as opposed to 79%).

In the teachers' views, their writing and reading skills were better in English than in Setswana, while their speaking skill was better in Setswana than in English. However, the same proportion of the teachers gave their understanding of Setswana and English the same rating.

It is not clear why the teachers considered themselves to be more proficient in writing and reading in English than in Setswana. One would have expected the majority of the teachers to be more fluent readers and proficient writers of Setswana than English since more than half of them (56%) have Setswana as a home language. One can only surmise that attitudes towards the two languages are contributory factors. Setswana is considered not as important as English. English as the official language and a language associated with education, as well, career and job opportunities was considered to be very prestigious, while Setswana was not as prestigious because of its limited educational, career and job opportunities. This could have been investigated through an oral interview. Unfortunately, though desirable, this was not possible due to limited research funds and time. As this aspect was beyond the scope of this study, future research could address the issue. The present study focused on the *oral* aspect of communication, namely, speaking as the key factor in CS. This issue is examined further in Chapter 8 in the discussion of the responses to the research questions.

Furthermore, one teacher indicated that he could not read Setswana that well and three teachers also indicated that they could not write in Setswana. The reason for this anomaly is not clear but one can only surmise that these teachers are likely to be teachers who are citizens by naturalization and that Setswana is not their home language. However, their number is insignificant and therefore has no bearing on the results.

It is also not surprising that more teachers considered themselves to be more fluent speakers of Setswana than of English because Setswana as the national language is spoken inside and outside the school. Furthermore, Setswana is the home language of more than 56% of the teachers. This has implications for CS and will be examined further when the data that address the research questions are analysed. It is also not clear why the same proportion of teachers (84%) gave their understanding of Setswana and English the same rating. One would have expected more teachers to understand Setswana better than English just as more said that they were more fluent speakers of Setswana than of English. One teacher indicated that he did not understand Setswana well. This teacher may be a citizen by naturalization as previously explained. Another teacher indicated that he did not understand English well. This view is interpreted to mean that this particular teacher considered himself to be not fluent enough in English since all teachers should have studied in English, and also used English as the LoLT apart from Setswana teachers.

In further examining the data above, Cummins' (1979) concepts of BICS and CALP can be applied. The former refers to Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills learnt in a period of about two to three years, and the latter refers to Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency that is acquired within five to seven years and enables a learner to be on the same level with his / her native-speaking counterpart in the classroom. The learner should be in a language-support programme in an environment that is largely English speaking, such as the USA or Britain. BICS are language skills needed in social situations to interact with people on a day-to-day basis in a particular language, for instance, when one is on the playground, during lunchtime, on a school trip or at parties or when talking to a friend or relative on the telephone. BICS is employed for social interactions and is neither specialized nor cognitively demanding. On the other hand, CALP refers to formal academic learning of a particular language,

and learning other academic subjects through that language and is cognitively demanding. It refers to 'decontextualised communication that takes place in the classroom' (Wikipedia, the free encyclopaedia on the Internet).

CALP

(http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Basic_Interpersonal_Communicative_Skills):

> … involves the 'language of learning' which enables children to problem-solve, hypothesize, imagine, reason and project into situations with which they have no personal experience. It is a prerequisite for learning to read and write and for overall academic success.

CALP enables learners to process information that can be obtained by reading academic texts that may contain abstract terms that refer to concepts or by reading literature texts such as poems, novels and drama with the aim of synthesizing information. This would include being able to describe an event or an experiment, define or explain a concept, summarize an idea, ascribe logical reasoning to a situation, and provide answers to the teachers' questions in the LoLT.

In the present study, teachers have BICS in both Setswana and English. They can communicate in social situations in either Setswana or English because Setswana is a home language for many of them and also a national language used for social interaction. English as a subject and an LoLT introduced at elementary level of primary schooling is also acquired for interpersonal communication in social situations. Teachers consider themselves to be proficient enough in Setswana and English to such and extent that they are able to learn through these languages.

With respect to learners, BICS and CALP imply that learners' proficiency in the second language or the language of the classroom needs to be sufficiently well developed for the learner to learn by using it and meet the cognitive academic demands required in a formal learning environment.

The data provided by the teachers regarding their proficiency in both Setswana and English imply that although they have acquired CALP in both languages, their reading

and writing domains of language competence are better developed in English than in Setswana. These are skills learnt in a formal educational environment such as a school. However, the majority of the teachers also considered themselves to be more fluent in speaking Setswana than English. This is to be expected, given that Setswana as the national language is learnt before schooling and at school, and is also spoken inside and outside the classroom. English as the official language is learnt and mainly used at school. Outside the school system, it is used in Government, Parliament, the media, and the judiciary. Regarding understanding as a domain of language competence, teachers rated their understanding of both languages equally. However, the researcher assumes that teachers were specifically referring to the understanding of both languages at BICS level. At the level of CALP, the implication is that teachers would rate the understanding of Setswana higher than that of understanding English, hence CS in the classroom. As CS mostly involves speaking, only *proficiency in English* as an independent variable was used to further analyse the dependent variables. Furthermore, English proficiency is the focus of this study as the official LoLT.

The following bar chart illustrates a summary of the teachers' subjective rating of their self-evaluated rate of fluency in the four language domains of speaking, understanding, reading and writing in English and Setswana. The chart shows that the difference in proficiency between English and Setswana is not that significant.

Graph 4.2: Teachers' proficiency rate in English and Setswana
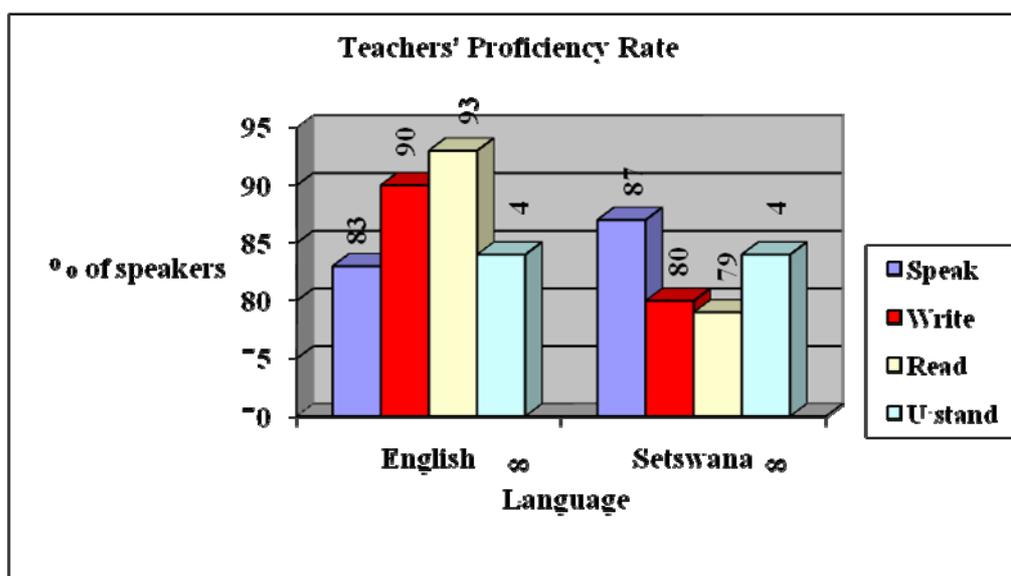
4.7.1 Teachers' language use

In this section the results on the teachers' views about the functional domains of English and Setswana are presented. These include the language teachers preferred to use for social and educational purposes, as well as during worship and during official occasions. The results also show the importance teachers attach to these two languages in different domains. From the results, the teachers' views on the functional domains of English and Setswana and to a limited extent, mother tongue, will be revealed.

Table 4.7: Teachers' views on preferred language for social use

	Family		Friends		Colleagues		Strangers	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Setswana	50	53	50	54	36	41	25	32
2. English	2	2	6	7	16	18	31	40
4. Setswana and English	10	11	17	19	26	29	20	26
4. Other (MT)	22	24	2	2	1	1	0	0
5. Setswana and Other (MT)	5	5	2	2	0	0	0	0
6. English and Other (MT)	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	1
7. Setswana, English & other (MT)	3	3	15	16	10	11	1	1
Total	94	100	92	100	89	100	78	100
M Frq.	0		2		5		16	

MT = Mother Tongue

The data in Table 4.7 above indicate the following:

- Setswana was the most preferred language to use socially, and English was the least preferred (family: 53% vs. 2%; friends: 54% vs. 7%; colleagues: 41% vs. 18%).
- English was the most preferred when speaking to strangers and colleagues but Setswana was the least preferred (40% vs. 32%).
- MT (excluding Setswana) was mostly preferred when speaking to family members but the least preferred when speaking to friends and colleagues, and never used when speaking to strangers.
- MT was strictly used within the family and it was preferred after Setswana (53% vs. 24%). Beyond the family, its use diminished.

- Dual use of English and Setswana was common when communicating with colleagues, strangers, and friends; and the least common when communicating with family members.

- When speaking to friends and colleagues, teachers could use any or all three the languages (Setswana, English, and MT). However, this form of communication was least likely at family level or even when speaking to strangers (16% and 11%, vs. 3% and 1%).

- The use of Setswana and MT or English and MT minimally occurred when speaking to family members (5% and 2%), and was hardly or never used when speaking to friends, colleagues or to strangers. This confirms that there were very few teachers who had both Setswana and another language as their MT.

The information suggests the following:

- Setswana was the main language of social interaction as per its national status, but English was the language of professional and business interaction. Hence Setswana was considered a LFIC language, but English was a HFFC language.

- CS between English and Setswana was likely to occur when speaking to different categories of speakers. This confirms the status of the two languages in the country.

- Some teachers were bilingual or even multilingual speakers, therefore CS between the three languages was likely to occur.

- CS between Setswana and a MT or English and a MT was least likely to occur, and where the speakers involved had a common MT, it was used exclusively without using Setswana or English.

Table 4:8: Teachers' perceptions about the value of English and Setswana

		Very Important		Important		Not Important		Total		M Frq
	Lang	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Development of self-confidence and abilities	Eng.	63	69	25	27	4	4	92	100	2
	Sets.	28	31	42	46	21	23	91	100	3
2. To be respected by family	Eng.	14	15	33	36	46	49	93	100	1
	Sets.	19	21	28	31	44	48	91	100	3
3. To be respected by friends	Eng.	19	20	50	54	24	26	93	100	1
	Sets.	10	11	36	40	45	49	91	100	3
4. To be respected by one's community	Eng.	25	27	40	43	28	30	93	100	1
	Sets.	20	22	40	44	31	34	91	100	3
5. To follow radio programmes	Eng.	62	67	28	30	3	3	93	100	1
	Sets.	34	37	48	53	9	10	91	100	3
6. To follow TV programmes	Eng.	64	68	28	30	2	2	94	100	0
	Sets.	29	32	47	52	15	16	91	100	3
7. For job opportunities in Botswana	Eng.	70	75	21	23	2	2	93	100	1
	Sets.	9	10	48	53	34	37	91	100	3
8. To participate in public discussions	Eng.	67	73	22	24	3	3	92	100	2
	Sets.	41	46	40	44	9	10	90	100	4

The information in Table 4.8 above indicates that the majority of the teachers value competence in English more than competence in Setswana. They regard English competence as *very important* and Setswana competence as only important for psychological functioning; entertainment through the mass media; and in HFFC such as job opportunities and participation in public discussions. The results suggest that, without doubt, English is regarded as a HFFC language consistent with its status as the main language of communication in all official domains.

For social functions such as personal interaction with family, in friendships and at community level, competence in both languages is considered important. However, more teachers attached value to English than to Setswana in their interaction with friends (74% vs. 51%). The results suggest that English is viewed as a marker of social status. One would prefer to choose friends who have a similar educational background as the speaker. Yet both languages are used as LFIC. At family and community levels, there was no significant difference in the importance attached to both languages (51% vs. 52%; and 70% vs. 66% respectively). At the level of the family, both languages are used as LFIC, but at the level of the community, they are used as HFFC languages. At family level, not much importance is attached to competence in English or Setswana because in the area in which the study was

conducted, Ikalanga is predominantly spoken (53% of the teachers indicated that they speak Ikalanga fluently or moderately fluent, including over 26% who indicated Ikalanga was a home language or one of the home languages). At community level, the distinct roles of the two languages -- Setswana as a national language and English as the official language -- become evident. Further, the two languages are used side by side to communicate government plans.

Table 4.9: The importance that teachers attach to Setswana in education

Institution	Very Imp		Imp		Not Imp		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Primary school	62	70	20	22	7	8	89	100	5
2. Secondary school	39	44	39	44	11	12	89	100	5
3. College*	11	13	30	34	47	53	88	100	6
4. University	7	8	23	26	59	66	89	100	5

*Please note the following: College is a tertiary-education institution offering certificates and diplomas but not at the level of a university.

Please note: Very Imp = Very important; Imp = Important; Not Imp = Not Important

The results in Table 4.9 above show that the majority of the teachers attached greatest importance to Setswana for acquisition of knowledge at primary-school level. At secondary-school level, Setswana plays an important role but not as much as at the previous level (70% as opposed to 44%). The results suggest that using a language that a learner already knows (such as Setswana) makes learning easier during the preliminary years of education than when a foreign language (such as English) is used (Bamgbose, 1991). Although not the subject of this study, this practice would, however, discriminate against those learners whose HL is not Setswana as one year of learning Setswana and at the same time having to acquire literacy through it, is insufficient and less than the duration of BICS (Cummins, 1979). The results also indicate that Setswana competence was considered to be unimportant at college and university levels (53% and 66% respectively).

The results further suggest that the importance of Setswana progressively decreases as one climbs the educational ladder. Therefore, Setswana is a HFFC language at primary and secondary school levels, but a LFIC language at college and university levels.

The observation made about the role of Setswana at different levels is consistent with what obtains at each level of education, particularly at secondary-school level. Setswana continues to play a role in teaching and learning not only as a subject in the curriculum but also as a LoLT. The former (teaching Setswana as a subject) is within the education policy, but the latter (using Setswana to teach other subjects) is not official policy. The use of Setswana to teach other school subjects results in CS in the classroom, which the current study is investigating.

Table 4.10: The importance that teachers attach to Setswana in public life

	Very Imp		Imp		Not Imp		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. At the shops	32	36	46	51	12	13	90	100	4
2. At church	34	38	40	44	16	18	90	100	4
3. Government offices	18	20	57	63	15	17	90	100	4

The information in Table 4.10 above shows that the majority of the teachers attached importance to competence in Setswana in their daily lives. The results suggest that Setswana functions as a HFLF language in the three domains listed above.

4.8 PRESENTATION OF THE LEARNERS' RESULTS

Having presented and described the demographic character of the teachers, their language situation (including home language; fluency rate in the different languages; and their views on the functional domains of English and Setswana), the data pertaining to the learners are presented below in the same manner as the teachers'. As in the case of the teachers, the learners' responses are subjective in that they represent their self-evaluation.

4.8.1 Demographic details about the learners

(a) School and gender

Table 4.11: Learner distribution by school and gender

School	Male		Female		Total		M Frq	Grand Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	*N	N	
1. School 1	263	42	357	58	620	93.6	42	662	100
2. School 2	253	46	292	54	545	95	29	574	100
3. School 3	286	48	308	52	594	96	26	620	100
4. School 4	206	42	285	58	491	96	20	511	100
Total	**1 008**	**45**	**1 242**	**55**	**2 250**	**95**	**117**	**2 367**	**100**

Please note: * = learners who did not indicate gender.

The information in Table 4.11 indicates that a total of 2 367 learners participated in the study; comprising 1 008 boys (45%); 1 242 (55%) girls; and 117 learners who did not indicate their gender. The distribution of the learners by school is also shown in the table above.

There were more girls (55%) in the study than boys (45%). A similar pattern of learner distribution by gender was reflected in all four the schools. While the original intention was not to use as large a sample as this one, the size was dictated by the nature of the study. The study investigated the role of CS in the classroom as it occurred in different subjects. Because of the number of subjects involved, and that the selection had to take into account the ability of the learners, as well as the decision to focus on both Forms 4 and 5 classes, the result was inevitably a very large sample. The advantage of the large sample is that it allows for comparison between variables so as to determine their effect on the main question of the study. Because English Language, Setswana, and Biology are compulsory subjects for all the learners, these subjects have high enrolment figures. However, the optional subjects have smaller numbers of learners. These are 220 learners for History; 153 learners for English Literature; and 128 learners for Home Economics. These figures are included in the total of 2 367 as indicated in the table.

(b) Form (Grade)

Table 4.12: Form (Grade)

Form	N	%
1. Form 4	1 174	52
2. Form 5	1 091	48
Total	**2 265**	**100**

Please note: Missing frequency: 102

Table 4.12 above shows that there were more learners in F 4 (52%) than they were in F 5 (48%). This was a trend in all four the schools. One of the explanations given by the schools was that more female learners dropped out of school largely due to teenage pregnancy, which negatively affected learner enrolment at Form 5 level.

4.8.2 Learners' language profile

(a) Home Language

Table 4.13: Learners' Home Language (HL)

Home Language	N	%
1. Setswana	847	37.71
2. Ikalanga	1 037	46.17
3. English	16	0.71
4. Setswana and Ikalanga	87	3.87
5. Setswana and English	38	1.69
6. Setswana, Ikalanga and English	33	1.47
7. Ikalanga and English	2	0.09
8. Other languages (local and non-local)	192	8.39
Total	**2 246**	**100**

Please note: Missing frequency: 121

The results in Table 4.13 above show that Ikalanga and Setswana were home languages for the majority of the learners at 46% and 38% respectively; excluding the 8% who indicated Setswana or Ikalanga to be additional home languages. This is significant to the study that focuses on CS in the classroom between English as LoLT, and Setswana as the only local language taught in schools, as well as the main language involved in CS, yet the majority of the learners speak Ikalanga as a home language. The results also indicate that the proportion of the learners whose HL is Ikalanga is more than double the proportion of the *teachers* whose HL was also Ikalanga (18%). English, although a very important language in this study as the

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LoLT, is a home language for fewer than 1% of the learners (16 learners). Among the learners who had more than one home language, Setswana and Ikalanga was the most common combination indicated by nearly 4% (87 learners) out of a total of 211 learners who were bilingual at home. Other languages treated individually were home languages for very few learners. As was the case with the teachers' HLs, the speakers of these languages were combined and accounted for 4% of the total (94 learners). HL was used as an independent variable to further determine its influence on the learners' views about the dependent variables. However, only the results of Setswana and Ikalanga were subjected to statistical tests. Other languages were excluded due to the low numbers of their speakers.

The results in Tables 4.14 below are subjective as they are based on the learners' self-rating on their proficiency in the four domains of language competence, namely speaking, reading, writing, and understanding.

Table 4.14: Learners' subjective proficiency rating in English and Setswana

Domains of language competence	Lang	Fluent		Moderately		*Not that well / Not at all		Total		M Frq
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Speaking	Eng.	742	35.27	1351	64.21	11	0.52	2104	100	263
	Sets.	1670	75.63	528	23.91	10	0.45	2208	100	159
2. Reading	Eng.	1606	73.23	584	26.63	3	0.14	2193	100	174
	Sets.	1673	75.36	535	24.10	12	0.54	2220	100	147
3. Writing	Eng.	1464	66.58	734	33.38	1	0.05	2199	100	168
	Sets.	1743	78.34	466	20.94	16	0.72	2225	100	142
4. Understanding	Eng.	818	37.22	1163	52.91	*214	*09.74	2198	100	169
						3	0.14			
	Sets.	1521	67.90	599	26.74	*119	* 5.31	2240	100	127
						1	0.04			

* Understanding only

The results in Table 4.14 above show that the majority of the learners considered themselves to be more proficient in Setswana than in English. While there was no significant difference in self-rating of their reading and writing competence in the two languages, their self-rating in speaking and understanding was significant. For instance, almost 76% of the learners believed they spoke Setswana fluently but 64% thought that they were moderately fluent in spoken English. While almost 68% of the

learners believed they understood Setswana fluently, almost 53% thought that they moderately understood English. The results suggest that for the majority of the learners, before they enter the school system, Setswana is acquired before English is, either as a HL or as a second language. English is acquired mainly after learners have entered the school system.

Therefore, revisiting the two concepts of BICS and CALP (Cummins, 1979) already discussed, the results suggest that BICS in Setswana was acquired before BICS in English. However, at the level of CALP, it appears that there is no significant difference with respect to language-competency skills acquired in a formal learning environment, such as writing and reading. Of particular interest is the learners' self-rating in understanding Setswana. The proportion of learners who considered themselves to understand Setswana fluently was not as high as for the other language-competence skills. This is rather strange as usually one can understand a language before one can speak it and, for the majority of the learners, understanding Setswana is acquired primarily before they enter formal schooling. It can be deduced that these learners refer to formal Setswana taught in the classroom that may comprise some aspects of language such as proverbs and idiomatic expressions. The way English as a subject is taught to enable learners to function in it may also have implications for CS in the classroom. The results suggest that because the majority of the learners are of the view that they do not speak and understand English as well as they do Setswana, they are likely to CS in class to participate in the lesson and their teachers are also likely to CS in class to facilitate the understanding of the lessons.

The quantitative results in the next two chapters and the qualitative results in Chapter Seven will confirm or refute this assumption.

Graph 4.3: Learners' proficiency rate in English and Setswana
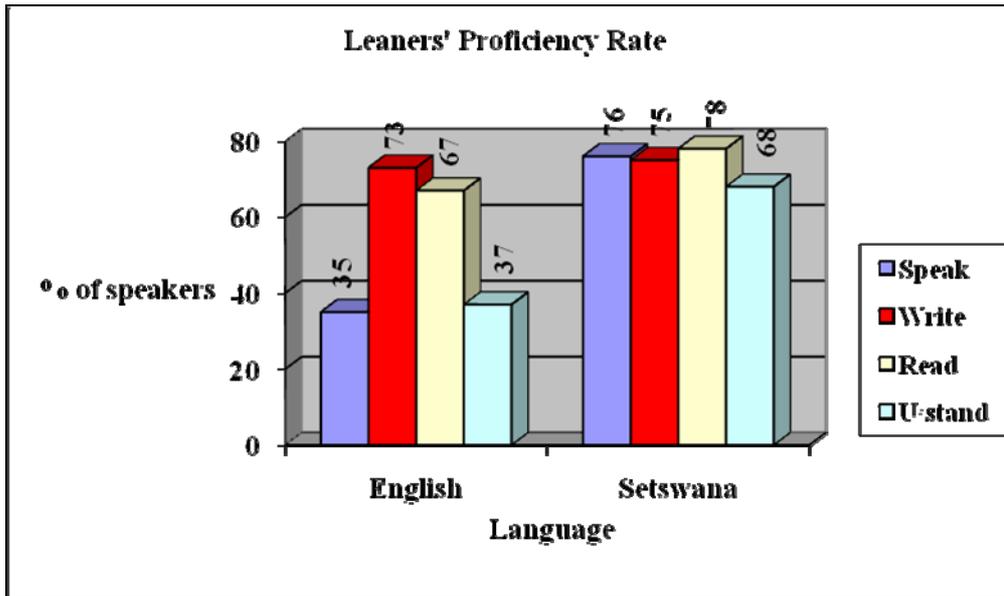
Please note: u/stand = understand

4.8.3 Learners' language use

In this section, the views of the learners on the functional domains of language use are presented.

Table 4.15: Learners' self-reports on preferred language for use by social domain

Lang	Family		Friends		C/mates		S/mates		Teachers		Strangers	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Sets.	1225	55	1203	54	1290	58	1441	66	269	12	1132	55
2. Eng.	56	3	459	21	485	22	349	16	1546	69	590	29
3. Other (MT)	644	29	127	6	31	1	37	2	2	0.09	151	8
4. Sets. & Eng.	155	7	331	15	355	16	313	14	400	18	169	8
5. Sets. & Other	82	4	35	2	14	0.63	22	1	1	0.04	8	0.39
6. Eng & Other	19	0.86	6	0.27	1	0.05	1	0.05	0	0	2	0.10
7. Sets., Eng. & other	37	2	47	2	34	2	33	1.5	8	0.36	16	0.77
Total	**2218**	**100**	**2208**	**100**	**2210**	**100**	**2196**	**100**	**2226**	**100**	**2068**	**100**
M Frq	149		159		157		171		141		299	

Please note: C/mates = Classmates; S/mates = Schoolmates

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The results in Table 4.15 above show that Setswana is the main language of social communication with different categories of people inside and outside the school, except when speaking to teachers. English is the most preferred language when communicating with teachers. This is expected given that, in the classroom, English is the LoLT used to explain, describe, define, ask and answer questions, and to summarise the main points of a lesson. It is also used, to a lesser extent, within other social domains but hardly used at family level. At family level, speakers would normally use their MT. Dual use of languages such as Setswana and MT, or English and MT, or Setswana, English and MT was rare in all categories of people.

The results suggest that the use of English is confined to the classroom during teaching and learning. Outside the school, learners prefer to use their home language (beside Setswana). MT is hardly used in the classroom. The results also suggest that the speakers of other languages also use Setswana as HL as indicated by 55% who said they use it within the family, as opposed to 38% who indicated it to be their HL. The use of more than one language, although limited, signals that a few learners are bilingual or even multilingual at home.

Table 4.16: Learners' perceptions about the value of English and Setswana

		Very Imp		Imp		Not Imp		Total		M Frq
	Lang.	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. To develop self-confidence and abilities	Eng.	1709	76	467	21	60	3	2236	100	31
	Sets.	1026	46	866	39	330	15	2222	100	145
2. To be respected at home	Eng.	406	19	934	43	838	38	2178	100	189
	Sets.	673	31	824	37	707	32	2204	100	163
3. To be respected by friends	Eng.	438	20	1119	52	611	28	2168	100	199
	Sets.	364	17	1047	48	785	36	2196	100	171
4. To be respected in the community	Eng.	710	32	910	42	575	26	2195	100	172
	Sets.	779	35	927	42	508	23	2214	100	153
5. To follow radio programmes	Eng.	1628	73	523	24	69	3	2220	100	147
	Sets.	1149	52	884	40	190	9	2223	100	144
6. To follow TV programmes	Eng.	1662	75	489	22	54	3	2205	100	162
	Sets.	956	43	955	43	304	14	2215	100	152
7. To get a job in Botswana	Eng.	1962	88	262	12	13	0.58	2237	100	130
	Sets.	966	43	932	42	326	15	2224	100	143

The results in Table 4.16 above show that the majority of the learners valued competence in both English and Setswana. However, they attached more importance to English than to Setswana in the three domains of psychology (self-confidence and abilities) -- (97% vs. 85%); entertainment and information (radio -- 73% vs. 52%; and television -- 75% vs. 43%), and in the HFFC such as employment prospects (88% vs. 43%). The results suggest that English is undoubtedly a fully-fledged HFFC language. Setswana is also a HFFC language but it is considered a semi-HFFC language in some respects. This observation is significant and will have an effect on how learners perceived the role of both languages in education when the researcher reports on the research questions in Chapter Eight.

The results also indicate that the majority of the learners rated competence in English and Setswana as important at a social level (to be respected by family, friends, and the community). However, at friendship level, competence in English was valued more than competence in Setswana as 52% of learners preferred English when compared to 37% who preferred Setswana. This suggests that English is regarded as a prestigious language to speak. At family level, the difference was insignificant, even though slightly more learners preferred speaking Setswana instead of English (48% vs. 43%). This suggests that within the family, one's MT is more important than English. The status of Setswana as a national language also has an effect on the use of Setswana at family level. At community level, the same proportion of learners (42%) equally valued competence in both languages. This signifies the role both languages play at this level. As previously explained, both languages are used by Government to inform communities about government plans and projects. The results suggest that at family and friendship levels, both languages are LFIC languages, but at community level, both are LFFC languages. Further, how they are perceived in each domain has implications on how they are used in the education system, which may have implications for CS in the classroom.

Table 4.17: Importance learners attach to Setswana in education and public life

	V Imp		Imp		Not Imp		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. At primary school	1401	63	659	30	153	7	2216	100	151
2. At secondary school	954	43	1109	50	149	7	2212	100	155
3. *At college	919	42	777	35	514	23	2210	100	157
4. At university	872	40	582	26	752	34	2206	100	161
5. At Govt. offices	962	44	787	36	460	21	2209	100	158
6. At shops	410	19	1009	46	787	36	2206	100	161

Please note: Govt = Government

*College is a tertiary-education institution offering certificates and diplomas but not at the level of a university.

The results in Table 4.17 above show that, although the majority of the learners attached importance to competence in Setswana at all levels of education, they attached more importance to it at primary-and secondary-school levels than at college and university levels (93% vs. 77%, 66%); with the most importance attached to Setswana at primary-school level than at secondary-school level. This suggests that learners' lack of proficiency in English influenced their opinion. As with the teachers, the learners viewed the role of Setswana as decreasing as they go up the educational ladder. The results on the learners' views about the use of Setswana at secondary-school level may have an effect on the use of CS at this level of education.

Because English already plays an important role at all levels of education, the learners were not asked about their views on it. However, their views on English usage in the classroom are specifically presented in Chapter Eight, as these views form part of the responses to the research questions.

The results also show that, although the majority of the learners attached importance to competence in Setswana for visiting both government offices and the shops (80%, 65%), Setswana was considered more important for visiting government offices than for visiting the shops (44% vs.19%). The results suggest that in government offices, Setswana can either be a HFIC context when workers interact with one another, or a LFFC language when a member of the public visits to seek assistance. This is partly

due to its status as the national language. Similarly, at the shops, it is a LFFC language when a customer interacts with sales assistants, but a LFIC language when workers interact with one another. It is assumed that the research location was a contributory factor to these views because the local language (Ikalanga) is used more than Setswana as implied by the results that more learners (36%) considered knowledge of Setswana as more *unimportant* at the shops than at government offices (21%).

Having described both the teachers' and the learners' views according to their demographic details, their home languages, fluency in English and Setswana, and the domains in which they use these two languages, a comparison between the two groups of participants based on the above is presented in the following section. This is meant to highlight their perceptions about the two languages, and also has an effect on how they responded to the research questions as reported in the subsequent chapters. Their responses ultimately were used to address the central question of the study, namely CS in teaching and learning.

4.9 A COMPARISON OF TEACHERS' AND LEARNERS' DATA ON DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS, LANGUAGE PROFILE AND THEIR VIEWS ON THE FUNCTIONAL DOMAINS OF ENGLISH AND SETSWANA

4.9.1 Home language

There were more teachers than learners who spoke Setswana as a home language (56%) vs. (38%). Conversely, there were more learners (46%) than the teachers (18%) who spoke Ikalanga as a home language.   These results are consistent with the explanations given earlier in this chapter (cf. 4.4.4 e) viz. that the teachers may be from different linguistic communities. Despite the large number of Ikalanga speakers among learners, language interaction between the teachers and the learners is not problematic as Setswana is widely spoken owing to its status as a national language; and also as it is taught at school as a subject. In addition, very few teachers (3%) and learners (0.71%) spoke English as a home language. Therefore, English is hardly spoken in the majority of the homes of both the teachers and learners. In addition, 23% of the teachers spoke other local languages or had more than one HL; 15.29% of the learners also spoke other languages (local and non-local), including those who had

more than one HL. The graph below illustrates the language landscape of the participants in the study.

Graph 4.4: Teachers' and learners' home language
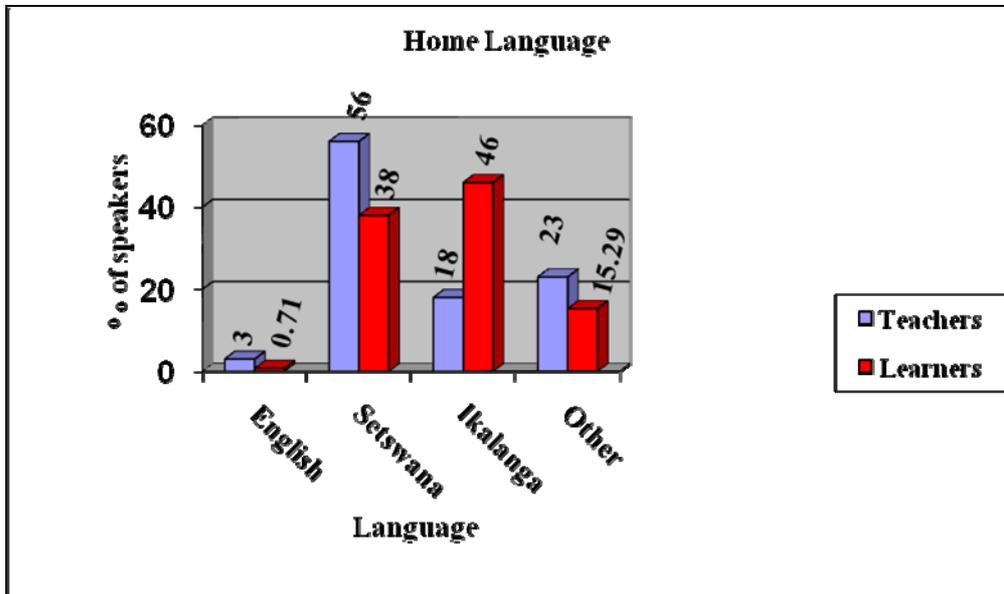
4.9.2 Proficiency in Setswana and English

According to self-evaluation responses by both the teachers and learners, as expected, more teachers than the learners were proficient in both Setswana and English with respect to the four domains of language competence as languages that are used in schools. Over and above, Setswana is a HL for the majority of the teachers (56% as opposed to 38% for the learners). This is significant in that, should the learners lack competence in the two languages, CS is likely to occur during lessons.

Furthermore, both the teachers and learners learnt Setswana at home, and English at school. However, for the majority of the learners, Setswana was learnt as a second home language as 46% of them spoke Ikalanga as a home language.

4.9.3 The importance and functional uses of Setswana and English

(i) Social domain: The majority of both the teachers and learners used Setswana socially to speak to family members, friends and peers outside the classroom, but used

English in the classroom. The latter is expected, given that English is the LoLT. Here Setswana functions in a LFIC as well as a HFIC context and; English is a HFFC language. When speaking to strangers, teachers used English, whilst learners used Setswana. Both languages are used as LFFC languages. Therefore, in social domains, learners use Setswana much more than English but teachers use both, depending on to whom they are talking.

Furthermore, while learners viewed competence in both English and Setswana as important to be respected by family members, friends and the community, in the teachers' views, both English and Setswana were unimportant at family level; Setswana was unimportant for respect by friends; but English was important. However, at community level, competence in both English and Setswana was important. Therefore, the results suggest that the respondents' *proficiency* in the two languages determined the importance that they attached to them. To the learners, competence in Setswana was important as the language in which they were more proficient, but for the teachers, English competence was more important than competence in Setswana because of its status as the official language; a marker of social prestige; and the language of career and employment opportunities.

(ii) Psychological function (confidence-building and abilities)

The majority of the teachers and learners considered English competence as **very important** for the development of self-confidence and abilities. Setswana was also **very important** for learners but it was only **important** for teachers. The results are significant in that both the teachers and learners regard English highly because of its status as a language of educational and professional opportunities. However, learners also highly value Setswana because they are more fluent in it than in English.

(iii) Entertainment and information acquisition

Both the teachers and learners attached great importance to competence in English to follow radio and television programmes, but teachers did not attach as much importance to Setswana in this regard as learners did.

(iv) Economic value and public address

The majority of both the teachers and learners regarded English competence as **very important** for employment opportunities**.** However, the majority of the teachers viewed Setswana only as **important,** but the learners' views were divided about competence in Setswana as half of them indicated that it was **very important,** and the other half said it was **important**. In addition, the majority of the teachers viewed both English and Setswana as **very important** for public discussions. The learners' views on the importance of the two languages in public discussions were not solicited due to their limited opportunities to partake in public discussions. The results suggest that to the teachers, English had a higher economic value than Setswana did, but for the learners, their lack of experience in working life jeopardized their judgement on the roles of the two languages at HFFC level.

4.9.4 English knowledge for prestige

The majority of the teachers did not attach much importance to English competence at personal levels (family and friends), but attached more importance to it at professional and public levels when dealing with colleagues and the community. To the contrary, learners attached more importance to English competence at all levels -- personal, friendship and public. The results suggest that the status of English as the official language for education, job opportunities and business was an influential factor on the respondents 'views and was regarded as a marker of social status.

Graph 4.5: The importance that teachers and learners attach to English for prestige
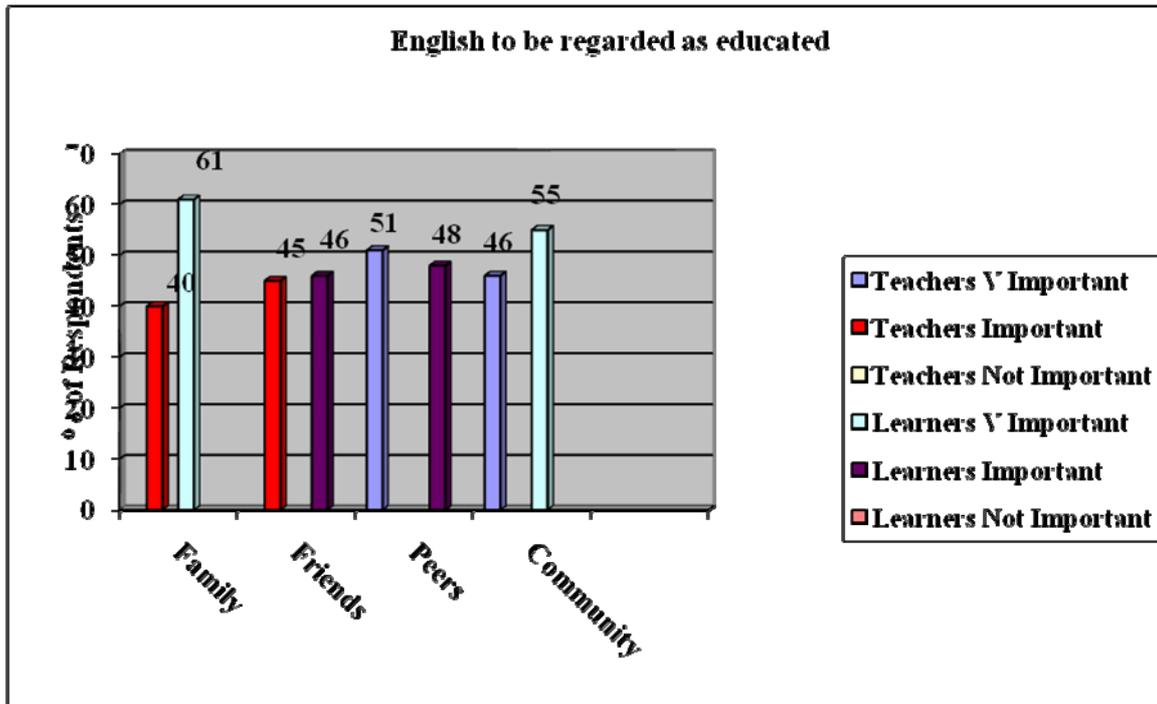
Please note: V = Very

4.9.5 Setswana in education

The majority of both the teachers and learners stated that Setswana has a very important educational role at primary- and secondary-school levels; hence competence in it was crucial, especially at the first level during the formative years of education as discussed earlier in this chapter. Their views about the role of these two languages have implication on this study as it investigates CS in education at the level of secondary schools.

However, at college and university levels, the majority of the teachers indicated that Setswana was **unimportant,** but the learners considered it to be **very important**. The lack of life experience at university among the learners contributed to their view as they may not be aware of what the practice is at tertiary level with respect to the use of Setswana in education.

4.9.6 Setswana in public life

The majority of both the teachers and learners attached importance to competence in Setswana for visits to the shops and to government offices. However, learners attached more importance to Setswana when dealing with government officials than the teachers did. In addition, teachers said Setswana was important for their spiritual and religious purposes (worship).

From the above, it is clear that both the teachers and learners recognized the importance of competence in both English and Setswana in various spheres of their lives, except in a very few instances. Teachers attached more importance to English than to Setswana; while English was unimportant only at family level, Setswana was unimportant at family and friendship levels, as well as in education at college and university levels.

On the contrary, learners did not consider any of the two languages as unimportant. Like the teachers, they considered English to be more important than Setswana, but they also attached more value to Setswana than the teachers did because, as a national language, they were more fluent in it than in English. Therefore, the respondents' level of fluency in a language influenced their attitudes towards it. The teachers, who were more educated, preferred English to Setswana.

The views above reflect the status that English in Botswana enjoys as the official language used virtually in all spheres of life such as in education, the judiciary, the media, and in the vocational environment. English is mainly a HFFC language. However, Setswana is largely regarded as a LFIC or LFFC language or HFLFC language. In education, Setswana is a HFFC language at primary- and secondary-school levels.

4.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter has given an overview of the statistical package used in the analysis of the data pertaining to the teachers' and learners' responses to the research questions. The data subjected to statistical tests are presented in the next two chapters. The chapter

also presented an analysis of the data that will provide background to the study to better comprehend the views of the respondents. The data include the teachers' and learners' demographic details that include their personal and professional / academic details. The respondents' language profile that includes home language as well as their proficiency in English and Setswana has also been described. Their views on the functions of these two languages in different domains have also been presented. These revealed the importance that respondents attached to English and Setswana. The data derived from the analysis made are important as they shed light on the occurrence of CS in the classroom, which is central to the present study.

It is significant from the respondents' views that both the teachers and learners attached a high value to English, yet CS occurred in the classrooms in Botswana. This suggests that there is an underlying problem in communicating in English. The question therefore is: does CS facilitate English proficiency among learners and assist them to learn in English, or does it impede the acquisition of English and consequently stifle learning?

The thrust of this study therefore is in two-fold. First, the study is focused on the effect of CS on the acquisition of proficiency in English; hence answering the following questions is important: Does CS contribute to better understanding of the lesson content and promote knowledge acquisition? Does CS decrease when CALP is fully acquired or does CS affect negatively future academic development due to lower level of CALP? Second, the study is also focused on the effect of CS on the social and academic development of Setswana. Consequently, the impact of the aforementioned on teaching and learning is addressed.

In the next two chapters, an analysis of the teachers' and learners' responses to the research questions that address the study problem is presented. These deal with the roles of English and Setswana, including CS between them in teaching and learning. In addition, although not central to this study, their views on the role of the local language, Ikalanga, and / or CS to it in teaching and learning, are presented.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA: TEACHERS' RESPONSES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the presentation of the teachers' and learners' demographic details, language profiles, and language use, as well as their perceptions about the functional domains of English and Setswana. The present chapter deals with the views of the teachers in response to the questions that were asked to obtain information so that the main research questions can be answered.

The views of the teachers are grouped into three sections according to the sub-themes of the study: The first section presents the teachers' subjective evaluation of the learners' competence in English and Setswana, and how they use the two languages in class. The teachers' views on the learners' proficiency in both languages are important because they impact on their views on the learners' CS in the classroom. The second section deals with the educational role of English and Setswana in the schools in Botswana, including CS during a lesson. The third and final section deals with the role of other local languages in education, and / or CS during a lesson to those languages.

5.2 PRESENTATION FORMAT OF THE ANALYZED DATA IN THE PRESENT CHAPTER

As previously explained in Chapter Three, section 3.7, the data relate mainly to independent and dependent variables. *Independent* variables are those variables that the researcher studies as a possible cause of something (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005) or those key factors that may influence how the respondents perceive a particular issue; while the *dependent* variables are those that depend on the independent variables for their interpretation in relation to the question at hand. The independent variables (used to obtain data about the teachers and to further analyze their responses under the dependent variables) were (with their explanations placed in parenthesis):

- **school location** (urban or peri-urban);

- **gender** (Male or Female) ;

- **age** (Under 31 years: younger, 31 to 40 years: middle-age, and over 40 years: mature age);

- **home language**: (Setswana, Ikalanga, English, Others);

- **teaching experience**: (0-5 years: inexperienced, 6-10 years: moderately-experienced, 11-15 years: well experienced and 16 years and above: most experienced);

- **subjects taught**: (language subjects -- English (L and L), and Setswana vs. content subjects -- Biology, History and Home Economics; in some cases,

- **language subject** (English -- L and L) vs. language subject (Setswana); and

- **fluency in speaking English**: (fluent or moderately fluent).

The data on the dependent variables fall into three broad categories: Teachers' views on the role of English and Setswana as LoLT; their views and attitudes towards CS and its role in teaching and learning; and the role of other local languages, and / or CS to them in teaching and learning. The data are highly subjective as they were provided by the teachers. Thereafter, the dependent variables were further analyzed with respect to the independent variables. The results from the analyzed data were then interpreted to determine if there was any relationship of influence between the dependent and the independent variables regarding the phenomenon under consideration, namely, the role of CS in the classroom and its effects on teaching and learning. The results showed that some of the independent variables influenced the teachers' responses with respect to some of the dependent variables, while others did not. However, for reasons of space, only the teachers' responses to the dependent variables are presented in tabular form in this chapter; the researcher only reports on the results of the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables without using the tabular presentation of the data.

Multi-variance analysis was *not* done on any of the dependent variables. This was found unnecessary at this stage as the objective of the study was mainly to establish the effect of CS on teaching and learning. Such analysis will be done in the next phase of the study.

Descriptive statistics in the form of percentages were used as a basis for the interpretation of the data in respect of the teachers' and the learners' responses. The interpretations were used to formulate a number of hypotheses in respect of the educational effects of CS in the classroom. These hypotheses were focused on the extent of CS in the classroom; who code-switches; when and why they do so. After the data analysis and interpretation, the hypotheses (based on the results of the influence of independent variables on the dependent variables) were then subjected to statistical tests to establish their validity. Only questions that were directly related to the objectives of the study were subjected to statistical tests. These were mainly questions on CS (mainly between English and Setswana, and to some extent to a local language); attitudes towards it; and its role in teaching and learning.

Robinson (1996: 66, in Strydom, 2002: 103) states the following regarding statistics: " … provide one more way of understanding a sociolinguistic situation and may not be regarded … as the pillars of irrefutable proof on which the argument stands".

In this respect, the results from the statistical tests are used to corroborate or refute the results obtained through the questionnaires, as well as by observing the lessons in the classrooms.

Some of the results were statistically significant whilst others were not. Where statistical tests were done, the results were reported as either statistically significant or not statistically significant. Only the details of the statistically significant results will be reported, while the results of the data that are not statistically significant or only have a significant tendency for a relationship will be very briefly reported. A list of the data not statistically significant is available but for reasons of space, has not been included in this study. If necessary, an interested reader could request that it be made available.

As previously reported in Chapter Three (cf. section 3.6.2 paragraph 1), the questionnaires largely contained close-ended questions and a few open-ended questions, namely 6% or 13 questions in the teachers' questionnaire; and 5% or 11 questions in the learners' questionnaire. Unfortunately, the open-ended questions were largely ignored by the respondents. As a result, these questions were excluded from

the analysis of the data. This setback will, however, not affect the results of the study owing to the smaller number of the questions involved (cf. Addenda D and E). The discussion and interpretation of both the quantitative (Chapters Four to Six) and the qualitative data (Chapter Seven) will be done in Chapter Eight below each research question.

While the chronological order of the data presentation largely follows the order in which the data appeared in the questionnaires, in some cases, it was necessary to shift some items to the other sections that contained items addressing the same sub-theme, and with relevance to a particular research question. While this style of presentation, to some extent, affects the chronological presentation of the tables of results, it nonetheless allows for grouping the data into sub-headings and for better comprehension of the results. In addition, the analysis of the results was done within and between the tables; and cross-referencing between the tables was made where more than one table addressed the same sub-theme. The data in this chapter will be used in Chapter Eight to respond to the research questions.

5.3 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE LEARNERS' PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH AND SETSWANA

The teachers' views essentially fall into three categories: the views of Setswana teachers (25 in total); the views of the teachers of subjects that are taught in 'English' -- hereafter referred to as content-subject teachers -- (69 in total); and the views of all the teachers, irrespective of the subjects they teach (94 in total). In this study, the following legends for interpretation will be used:

Very well = Good to excellent
Well = fair or Average
Not that well = Poor / unsatisfactory

Table 5.1: Teachers' evaluation of learners' proficiency in English and Setswana (RQ 5 ii)

Domains of language competency		VW		W		NW		Total		M Frq
	Lang	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Read texts	Eng.	5	7	38	57	24	36	67	100	2
	Sets.	1	4	13	52	11	44	25	100	0
2. Write texts	Eng.	1	2	23	35	42	64	66	100	3
	Sets.	1	4	11	44	13	52	25	100	0
3. Speak during class discussions	Eng.	2	4	34	50	32	47	68	100	1
	Sets.	3	12	15	60	7	28	25	100	0
4. Understand when interpreting a test / exam	Eng.	3	4	26	39	38	57	67	100	2
	Sets.	0	0	15	60	10	40	25	100	0

Legends: VW = Very Well; W = Well; NW = Not Well

The teachers evaluated the learners' proficiency in English and Setswana as they used them in the classroom and the results, presented in Table 5.1 above, indicate that learners were more proficient in Setswana than in English. They speak, understand and interpret test or examination questions better in Setswana than in English. However, learners read better in English than in Setswana. The results are not unexpected, given that English is usually spoken in the classroom only, but Setswana is spoken inside and outside the classroom and even outside the school environment. Therefore, learners are more exposed to Setswana than to English.

Concerning English, more teachers were concerned more about the learners' writing skills and interpretation of questions (understanding) in English than about their oral domains of competence (reading and speaking) as indicated by 64% and 57% as opposed to 36% and 47% respectively. The results suggest that learners experienced the most problems in self-expression through writing and interpretation of written information, be it a test or an examination, as well as speaking. Reading was the least problematic in the four domains of language competence. The results therefore indicate that skills pertaining to speaking and interpretation (understanding) may have an effect on CS use in the classroom.

Regarding learners' competence in Setswana, Setswana teachers were satisfied with the learners' speaking and interpretation skills as indicated by 72% and 60%

respectively. Reading was also not problematic as 64% of the teachers were satisfied with the learners' reading ability; the majority of them (52%) saying that learners read well. Writing in Setswana was considered the most problematic as 52% of the teachers were dissatisfied with the learners' writing ability. The results of the analysis suggest that the skills acquired at school (reading and writing) were considered more difficult than those acquired before entering school (speaking and interpretation, as the latter is closely associated to understanding). This could be due to the fact that Setswana is not a HL for a significant proportion of the learners (at least 46%). The results suggest that BICS had been acquired in Setswana; hence learners were considered able to express themselves in Setswana, but it may have been CALP in Setswana that could have been more problematic since in learning, it is acquisition of CALP in a LoLT that is required. The results suggest that learners perform better in the domains of speaking and interpretation in Setswana than in English, hence they used CS (the subject of this study) in the classroom.

Table 5.2: Teachers' observations on learners' language use in class (RQ 5 ii)

	Always		Sometime		Never		Total		M Frq
Language use	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. *Standard Setswana	6	27	14	64	2	9	22	100	3
2. *Vernacular Setswana	5	22	16	70	2	9	23	100	2
3. Code-switch between English and Setswana	31	37	47	57	5	6	83	100	11

*Teachers in Setswana only; Item 3: All teachers

The results in Table 5.2 above show that CS takes place, irrespective of the subject taught, as indicated by 94% of the teachers. The results also show that both Standard and Vernacular Setswana are used in the classroom as confirmed by 91% and 92% of the Setswana teachers respectively. Although the central focus of this study is not on Setswana as a subject *per se*, it nonetheless has an effect on CS as the results show that CS in the classroom mainly involves English and Setswana (as languages). The results hence indicate that there is prevalent use of CS in the classroom.

The influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The effect of various independent variables on the teachers' views on the dependent variables contained in Table 5.2 above was investigated, but not found to be determinant of CS. These are:

- teaching experience;
- age;
- HL;
- subject taught;
- fluency in speaking English;
- gender; and
- school location.

The results suggest that CS occurred in the classroom irrespective of the factors listed above. Similarly, during Setswana lessons, teachers of Setswana used both Standard and Vernacular Setswana.

The researcher tested the data on CS for statistical significance. Only the teachers' age had an influence on their views about the learners' CS in class. The statistical test result ($p = 0.008$) shows that the relationship between the teachers' age and their views on the learners' CS in class is highly significant. The nature of the relationship is such that more of the younger teachers (70%) than the middle-aged (31%) and the mature teachers (11%) stated that their learners **always** CS between English and Setswana in class. Conversely, more middle-aged teachers (62%) and mature teachers (78%) said their learners **sometimes** CS between English and Setswana in class. The results suggest that learners were more likely to CS during lessons of younger teachers than during lessons of the middle-aged and the more mature teachers. The reason could be that perhaps the younger teachers were more tolerant of CS than the other teachers.

Other relationships between the teachers' views on the dependent variables and the other independent variables had no statistical significance. For instance, the statistical test result ($p = 0.08$) indicates that the relationship between school location and the teachers' responses on the learners' CS in class has a tendency for statistical significance. The results show that the majority of the teachers at both urban and peri

urban schools said their learners **sometimes** CS to Setswana in class: S 1: 65%, and S 2: 50%; S 3: 61%, and S 4: 52%. The results show that there are no significant differences in the teachers' responses by school location.

Subsequent results, both significant and insignificant, should be interpreted in the same way. The results on the use of Standard and Vernacular Setswana during Setswana lessons were not tested for statistical significance as they had no direct relevance to CS.

Table 5.3: Reasons why teachers always use English in class (RQ 5 i)

Reasons	N	%
1. It is school policy.	24	35
2. There are non-Setswana speakers in my class.	6	9
3. It is easier to explain and to understand concepts in English.	23	33
4. It is an international language for education and work.	47	67
5. It is a neutral language.	16	22

Please note: Only views of non-Setswana teachers are given
Total and percentage cannot be given as respondents could
choose more than one item.

The results in Table 5.3 above show that the main reason for always using English in class is a result of its status as an international language for education and work, as indicated by 67% of the teachers. Other reasons were not as important as the aforementioned reason. The results suggest that teachers were aware of the benefits of teaching in English in addition to adhering to the LiEP of Botswana that teaching (except Setswana) should be done in English. The results are interesting in that, notwithstanding the indicators above, CS still occurred in the classroom. The issue will be discussed further in Chapter Eight when the research questions are answered.

The influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results show that there was no significant difference in the teachers' views in respect of home language, teaching experience, gender, school location, subject taught and fluency in speaking English, as the majority of the teachers always used English in class because of its status in education and in the world of work. However, age had a significant influence on the teachers' views in respect of using English in class. The

younger (63%) and the middle-aged (75%) teachers **always** used English in class
because of its educational and professional status internationally but all mature
teachers (100%) were guided more by pedagogical benefits (that is to say, was it easier
for the learners to understand explanation of concepts made in English) than by the
educational status of English.

Table 5.4: Teachers' views on the appropriateness of the LiEP
(RQ 5 iii)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
LoLT	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Cease using Eng. as LoLT and study only as second / foreign lang.	12	15	62	78	6	8	80	100	14
2. Use Setswana as LoLT in primary school.	42	53	32	40	6	8	80	100	14
3. Use other local languages for T and L.	39	51	25	32	13	17	77	100	17

Please note: T and L = Teaching and Learning

The results in Table 5.4 above show that the majority of the teachers supported the
continued use of English as a LoLT (78%) and being learnt as a subject. However,
concerning Setswana and other local languages, they called for the revision of the
LiEP: that Setswana be the LoLT in primary schools only (53%); and that other local
languages be introduction in the school system (51%).

The results suggest that the majority of the teachers recognized the educational value
of using Setswana and other local languages during the formative years of a child's
education as espoused by Bamgbose (1991: 66). However, some teachers, although in
the minority, held a contrary view: Forty percent and nearly one-third (32%) objected
to the use of Setswana and other local languages in education respectively. Some
teachers (33%) did not express their views on the three issues stated above. The
reasons for their lack of a definite opinion are not clear, but the researcher can only
surmise that these may be teachers who do not speak the local language or, even if they
do, they do not use it as it was not provided for in the LiEP of the country.

The influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The results show that gender, the nature of the subject taught, home language, age, school location, teaching experience, and fluency in speaking English had no effect on the teachers' responses to the learning of English as a second / foreign language only. The majority of the teachers, irrespective of the above, supported the status quo, namely that English should continue to be used as the LoLT. The results confirm the status that English enjoys in the education system in Botswana.

The results also showed that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of age, school location, teaching experience, and fluency in speaking English supported the use of Setswana as the LoLT or MoI at primary school. Therefore, none of these independent variables had an effect on the teachers' views as the differences in their opinions were not significant except for fluency in English.

The results regarding the relationship between fluency in speaking English (that is, the difference in views between the teachers fluent and the moderately fluent in English) and the teachers' opinion on the view that Setswana should be used as a LoLT in schools is statistically significant ($p = 0.01$). This suggests that both the fluent and the moderately fluent teachers recognize the importance of using Setswana, the national language, in education, especially at the formative stage in a child's life. In addition, gender, subject taught, and HL had an effect on the teachers' views. The majority of the female teachers (65%) were in support of its use but the male teachers (49%) were not. The results are significant and suggest that female teachers were more likely to use Setswana in their classes than the male teachers. The statistical test result ($p = 0.02$) shows that the relationship between the teachers' views and gender pertaining to the use of Setswana as the LoLT in primary schools is statistically significant.

The results also indicate that the majority of the teachers of language subjects (English and Setswana) were in support of the use of Setswana as the LoLT in primary schools; but the majority of the teachers of content subjects (Biology, History, and Home Economics) were not. However, there was no significant difference between the proportion of English teachers who supported the use of Setswana as the LoLT in primary schools and those who were against it (42% vs. 38%), as well as between

Biology teachers who were opposed to this view and those who supported it (50% vs. 44%). The results show that there is a significant difference in the teachers' views due to the nature of the subject taught, as the views of the teachers of language subjects were in contrast to those of the content subjects. The statistical test results show that the interaction between the subject taught and the teachers' views on the use of Setswana as a LoLT is statistically highly significant ($p = 0.002$). The results suggest that teachers of content subjects are more likely to use Setswana in their teaching than those who teach English Language and Literature in English.

Home language had an effect on the teachers' views on using Setswana as the LoLT. The majority of the teachers whose HL is Ikalanga (60%) did not support the use of Setswana as the LoLT in primary schools; but other teachers did (Setswana: 57%; English: 100%; and others: 64%). The results are significant and show that the teachers whose HL is Ikalanga did not want to promote the use of Setswana for teaching and learning at the expense of their HL. The relationship between HL and the teachers' views on the use of Setswana as the LoLT in primary schools is statistically significant ($p = 0.04$).

Furthermore, the majority of the teachers, irrespective of gender, subject taught, school location, teaching experience, and fluency in speaking English supported the inclusion of other local languages in education. This suggests that none of the independent variables mentioned above had an influence on the teachers' views. However, HL and age did have an effect on their views. All the teachers whose HL is English (100%), and 41% of the teachers whose HL is Setswana did not support the inclusion of other local languages in education; but the majority of the teachers whose HL is either Ikalanga (86%) or 'others' (65%) did support it. The differences in the teachers' views are significant and suggest that the teachers whose HL is either Setswana or English, the languages taught in schools, are against the inclusion of other local languages in education, but the teachers whose HLs are currently not taught in schools advocated for their inclusion in the curriculum. The statistical test result ($p = 0.008$) shows that the relationship between HL and the teachers' views on the use of other local languages in education is statistically highly significant. This suggests that there is reasonable association between the teachers' views and home language.

There was also a difference in opinion between the younger teachers, the least experienced on the one hand and the older and more experienced teachers on the other. The former (38%) were opposed to the view that other local languages should also be used for teaching and learning, but the latter (the middle-aged, 55%; and the mature, 75%) supported this view. However, the difference was not that significant as 29% of the younger teachers did not offer their views at all. This suggests that either they did not speak any of the local languages or they never used them because the system did not officially cater for them in the LiEP. Hence the results were not statistically significant.

5.4 TEACHERS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS CS AND ITS ROLE IN THE CLASSROOM

Table 5.5: Teachers' attitude to learners' CS use in the classroom (RQ 2)

	Always		Sometime		Never		Total		M Frq
Are you bothered by …	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. CS to Setswana in a Non-Setswana class?	37	54	29	43	2	3	68	100	1
2. CS to English in a Setswana class?	16	64	9	36	0	0	25	100	0
3. CS to other local languages?	60	69	24	28	3	3	87	100	7

Please note: Item 1: Non-Setswana teachers only = 69; Item 2: Setswana teachers only = 25; Item 3: all teachers = 94.

The results in Table 5.5 above show that the majority of the teachers were **always** bothered by the learners' CS in class, irrespective of the subject that they taught and the language to which CS was taking place. The results further reveal that the majority of the teachers objected more to CS to a local language than to Setswana, or even from Setswana to English. The data suggest that although CS occurs, not all teachers (irrespective of the subject they teach) support its use by the learners. The results also show that Setswana teachers felt more strongly about CS than the teachers of the other subjects as none of them stated that CS during Setswana lessons did *not* bother them.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results show that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of teaching experience, school location, fluency in speaking English, age, HL and gender were bothered by CS to Setswana. This indicates that the above-stated independent variables did not significantly influence the teachers' views (except subject taught). Hence their results were also not statistically significant.

Subject taught had a significant influence on the teachers' views about CS to Setswana. The results are such that the language teachers (English L and L) were more bothered by the learners' CS to Setswana than teachers of content subjects (History, Home Economics and Biology) (72% vs. 50%, 57, 67%) were. The statistical test result ($p =$ 0.007) shows that the relationship between the nature of the subject taught and the teachers' views on the learners' CS to Setswana in class is highly significant. The results suggest that, as expected, CS was likely to occur more during the lessons of content subjects than during the lessons of language subjects (English L and L), as their focus was more on the learners' understanding of the content than on improvement of learners' proficiency in English, which was the task of English (L and L) teachers. The results on the effect of fluency in English were also significant in that more teachers who were fluent in English than the teachers moderately fluent in English were expected to be bothered by learners' CS. So, the results are such that 55% of the teachers fluent in English, and 58% of the teachers moderately fluent in English were *always* bothered by learners' CS. The results indicate that both the fluent and the moderately fluent teachers were likely to CS and would then allow their learners to CS. Therefore, the relationship between fluency in speaking English and the teachers' views about the learners' CS to Setswana in a class taught in 'English' was statistically significant ($p =$ 0.02).

The results also show that the majority of the teachers whose HL is either Ikalanga (67%), or English (100%), or Others (60%) were **always** bothered by learners' CS to Setswana, but 50% of the teachers whose HL is Setswana were only **sometimes** bothered. The results indicate that there is likely to be more CS to Setswana in the classes of the teachers whose HL is Setswana than in the classes of the other teachers. However, HL had no significant influence on the teachers' views about the learners'

CS to Setswana because the differences were very small. Consequently, the results were not statistically significant.

With respect to Setswana classes, the majority of the teachers of Setswana, irrespective of teaching experience, HL, school location, subject taught, age, and fluency in speaking English, objected to the learners' CS. The results indicate that none of the independent variables above had a significant influence on the teachers' views. Consequently, none of the results was statistically significant. However, gender had an influence on the teachers' views: all male teachers of Setswana (100%) were **always** bothered by the learners' CS to English; but among the female teachers, only 53% were bothered. This is significant given that the proportion of male teachers who did not support CS to English is almost double the proportion of the female teachers who hold similar views.

The results suggest that the male teachers of Setswana are less tolerant of CS by the learners than the female teachers. The statistical test result ($p = 0.05$) shows that the relationship between gender and the teachers' views on CS in a Setswana class is statistically significant.

Furthermore, the majority of the teachers, irrespective of teaching experience, HL, gender, subject taught, age, fluency in speaking English and school location, were opposed to CS to a local language in class. There was no significant difference in the teachers' responses, hence the results were not statistically significant except for the influence of school location on the teachers' views: more teachers in peri-urban schools (83%) than in urban schools (57%) were bothered by the learners' use of other local languages in class. The results suggest that there is likely to be more CS to other local languages in class at the two peri-urban schools than at the two urban schools. This is consistent with the population of the learners because Ikalanga is the HL for the majority of the learners in the peri-urban schools (58% at S 3, and 74% at S 4); while Setswana is the HL for the majority of the learners in the urban schools (53% at S 1, and 49% at S 2). The statistical test result ($p = 0.01$) shows that the relationship between the teachers' views and school location on the learners' CS to a local language is significant.

The results show that generally, teachers were opposed to learners' CS, be it to Setswana, to English or to a local language. Notably, the results showed that teachers, irrespective of teaching experience, strongly objected to CS to a local language. The teachers whose HL is Setswana objected more to CS from English to a local language than to Setswana. Male teachers of Setswana objected more to CS to English than the female teachers did. Schools generally discouraged CS. There was more CS during the lessons of content subjects than during the lessons of language subjects. Teachers of all ages, the fluent and the moderately fluent, discouraged CS.

Table 5.6: Teachers' views on learners' language use in class (by gender) (RQ 5 ii)

	Boys		Girls		Both		Total		M Frq
Language use	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. CS to Setswana in a non-Setswana class?	7	12	5	9	45	79	57	100	12
2. Express themselves well in spoken English?	5	8	32	51	26	41	63	100	6
3. Express themselves well in written English	2	3	31	50	29	49	62	100	7

Please note: Only views of non-Setswana teachers.

The results in Table 5.6 above show that learners, irrespective of gender, CS to Setswana in class, as indicated by 79% of the teachers; were not competent in either spoken or written English. Nonetheless, girls better expressed themselves (in both spoken and written English) than boys. It was, however, not easy for the researcher to confirm these views as the lessons were largely teacher centred and, as such, the recorded discourse was mainly that of the teachers. The learners were mainly passive listeners and only took part occasionally when they were required to respond to a question. If they responded, they either code-switched to Setswana, which would or would not be allowed by the teacher, or they used English in the form of a one-word answer or a short phrase or even a short sentence. This issue will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Seven that covers the qualitative analysis of the data.

Again, as the study was limited to oral communication and the researcher did not have access to the learners' written work, it was not possible to confirm or refute the teachers' views regarding the learners' self-expression in written English, though

desirable. The results are significant in that CS signals that the learners have a problem with the language of instruction, namely, English.

The results suggest that the learners, irrespective of their gender, CS in class. While CS by girls may not necessarily be due to a lack of proficiency in English, it is likely to be the case with boys.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results show that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of gender, teaching experience, home language, fluency in English, age, school location and the nature of the subject taught, agreed that both boys and girls CS to Setswana in class. None of the independent variables above were of significant influence to the teachers' evaluation of the learners' CS based on gender, except age. Consequently, the statistical test results showed that the relationship between the aforementioned independent variables and the teachers' views is not statistically significant. However, the relationship between age and the teachers' views on the learners' CS to Setswana in class is statistically significant ($p = 0.02$): more teachers of mature age (100%) and teachers of middle age (86%) than the younger teachers (63%) stated that both girls and boys CS in class. The results suggest that CS was more likely to occur in the classes of the middle-aged and the mature teachers than in those of the younger teachers.

The teachers' views differed on the learners' proficiency in spoken and written English. Generally, girls were considered more proficient in both spoken and written English than boys.   However, the results on the influence of the independent variables on the teachers' views were not statistically significant, except for teaching experience. The majority of the well-experienced (73%) and the most experienced teachers (100%) stated that girls were more proficient in written English than boys, but 52% of the least experienced and 57% of the moderately experienced teachers stated that both boys and girls were proficient in written English. The relationship between the teachers' responses on the learners' self-expression in written English and teaching experience is statistically significant ($p = 0.04$). The results suggest that boys were less proficient in written English than girls were; and that the girls' CS did not necessarily imply a lack

of proficiency in English, whilst boys' CS may suggest a lack of proficiency in English.

Table 5.7: Teachers' views on their medium of lesson delivery (to show the extent of CS in the classroom) (RQ 2)

Language	N	%
1. English all the time	35	39
2. English and Setswana	32	35
3. *Setswana most of the time	10	11
4. *Setswana only	13	14
5. English and other local language(s)	1	1
Total	**91**	**100**

Please note: M Frq: Three Setswana teachers; ***** Setswana teachers only

The results in Table 5.7 above show that although just more than half the teachers (53%) do not CS, there is also evidence of CS in the classroom as 47% of the teachers stated that they code-switch between English and Setswana, as well as between English and other local language(s). However, the latter is almost non-existent as only one teacher stated that he code-switched between English and a local language.

The results suggest the occurrence of CS mainly between English and Setswana regardless of the subject taught. This is expected, given that apart from Setswana, no other local language is used in schools officially.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results show that the nature of the subject taught and home language had an effect on the teachers' responses: the majority of the teachers of content subjects (Biology: 67%, Home Economics: 57%, and History: 62.5%) stated that they CS between English and Setswana in class. However, 74% of the English (L and L) teachers and 54% of the teachers of Setswana respectively said that they use English only and Setswana only during their lessons, thereby suggesting that they do not CS. This also suggests that 26% of the English (L and L) and 46% of the teachers of Setswana also CS. The statistical test results show that the differences in the responses above are statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$). The results suggest that for subjects taught in English, CS is more likely to occur during the lessons of content subjects than during the English (L and L) lessons. However, during the language lessons, Setswana

teachers were more likely to code-switch to English than the English (L and L) teachers would code-switch to Setswana.

The results also show that there were more teachers whose HL is Setswana (42%) who stated that they CS during their lessons than those who said that they do not. Conversely, there were more teachers whose HL is Ikalanga (53% vs. 35%), English (67% vs. 33%), and Others (50% vs. 30%), who said that they use English only; suggesting that they never CS more than those who said that they do. Although there seems to be a difference in the teachers' views about CS in the classroom, HL did not influence the teachers' views that much as the differences in views are not that significant. Similarly, the statistical tests also confirmed the insignificance of these results. The results suggest that there is more CS to Setswana during the lessons of the teachers whose HL is Setswana than during the lessons of the other teachers.

The results also indicate that independent variables (school location, gender, teaching experience and fluency in speaking English) had no effect on the teachers' responses to CS in the classroom as the differences in their views were not significant. Consequently, the results were also statistically of no significance. However, the differences in the teachers' views based on age were significant: All the teachers of mature age (100%) said they always use English in class, suggesting that there may be no CS during their lessons. It should be noted that only 10% of the teachers were in this category. However, the views of the middle-aged teachers and the younger teachers were evenly split: Fifty percent of the former (middle-aged teachers) and 48% of the latter (younger teachers) stated that they always use English only, but the other 50% of the former and the other 48% of the latter said they CS. The results suggest that there is likely to be CS during the lessons of these two categories of teachers. The statistical test result ($p = 0.04$) confirmed that the relationship between age and the teachers' views on their CS to Setswana is statistically significant. Furthermore, during Setswana lessons, the majority of the younger teachers (67%) and the mature teachers (75%) used limited CS; but the majority of the middle-aged teachers (63%) did not CS. The results suggest that there was likely to be less CS in the Setswana classes taught by middle-aged teachers than in the classes of the other categories of teachers.

Table 5.8: Teachers' attitude towards allowing learners to CS in the classroom (RQ 2)

Feedback	Frq	%
1. I **never** allow my learners to cs to Setswana	14	17
2. I **seldom** allow cs to Setswana.	22	26
3. I allow my learners to cs to Setswana if **they have difficulty with English**.	27	32
4. *I only allow the use of Setswana in my class.	21	25
Total	**84**	**100**

Please note: MFrq: 10; * Setswana teachers only.

The results in Table 5.8 above show that the majority of the teachers of the subjects taught in English (58%) allowed CS in their classes, but 42% of the teachers never or seldom allowed the learners to CS during their lessons; the latter included Setswana teachers. The results suggest that Setswana is accepted as an alternative LoLT or MoI in the classroom even though this is not an official policy. However, not all the teachers were supportive of CS use in the classroom even though they were in the minority.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The analysis of the results indicated that teaching experience, the nature of the subject taught and home language had an effect on the teachers' responses; and that other independent variables (school location, gender, age and fluency in speaking English) had no influence on the dependent variables. The statistical test results showed that HL had no significant influence on the teachers' views. However, there was a significant tendency of relationship between the teachers' views and teaching experience, school location, gender and age. Furthermore, subject taught and fluency in speaking English had a significant influence on the teachers' views. The results were as follows:

The results showed that 50% of the teachers whose HL is Ikalanga, and 50% of the teachers whose HL is English (one teacher) seldom or never allowed CS to Setswana in class. This suggests that the other half of each group allowed CS. Conversely, 60% of the teachers whose HL is 'Others' and 44% of the teachers for whom HL is Setswana allowed CS in their classes; this suggests that 40% and 56% respectively

never code-switched. The differences in the opinion of the teachers by HL were not that significant, and consequently have no statistical significance. The results also showed that there was a significant tendency of a relationship between the teachers' views and teaching experience, school location, gender and age about the learners' CS in class: Sixty-eight percent of the inexperienced teachers and 65% of the moderately experienced teachers seldom or never allowed CS during their lessons, but 62% of the well-experienced and all the most experienced teachers (100%) allowed CS if learners had difficulty expressing themselves in English. The results showed that teachers with ten years' experience and fewer were reluctant to allow CS use, but those with more than ten years' experience were willing to allow CS if learners experienced problems with self-expression in English. This suggests that CS was less likely to occur during the classes of the former (teachers with less than ten years' expereince) than during the classes of the latter (teachers with more than ten years' expereince). The statistical test result was ($p = 0.08$).

In addition, the majority of the teachers in peri-urban schools (S 3: 61%; S 4: 50%) allowed their learners to CS to Setswana if they were unable to express themselves well in English; but the majority of the teachers in the urban schools (S 1: 59%; S 2: 76%) seldom or never allowed CS. The results suggest that there was likely to be more CS at peri-urban schools than at urban schools. The statistical test result was ($p = 0.07$). The results also indicate that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of gender (male 59%; female 56%), seldom or never allowed CS in their classes. However, the proportion of both male (41%) and female (44%) teachers who allowed CS was somehow significant even though fewer than 50% in each case. The results suggest that there were more teachers (male teachers) who did not allow CS than those who did. The statistical test result was ($p = 0.08$). Furthermore, more of the younger teachers (59%) and the middle-aged teachers (58%) were not keen to allow CS in their classes; but the majority of the mature teachers (75%) allowed CS if learners were unable to express themselves well in English. The results suggest that there was likely to be more tolerance of CS for specific instructional / educational functions during the lessons of the mature teachers than during the lessons of the middle-aged and the younger teachers. The statistical test result ($p = 0.07$).

The results further showed that the majority of the teachers of content subjects (Biology, Home Economics and History) allowed their learners to CS to Setswana in class if they had difficulty expressing themselves well in English; but 80% of the language teachers (English L and L) seldom or never allowed learners to CS in class. The results suggest that there was likely to be more CS during the lessons of the content subjects than during English (L and L) lessons. The statistical test result ($p = 0.001$) confirmed that the results above were statistically highly significant.

Furthermore, 57% of the fluent and 54% of the moderately fluent teachers were reluctant to allow CS in their classes, but 43% of the former (fluent teachers) and 46% of the latter (moderately fluent teachers) allowed CS. The results suggest that there were more teachers, irrespective of fluency in English, who discouraged CS than those who condoned it. Again the views of both the fluent and the moderately fluent were very similar and were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.001$).

Table 5.9: Teachers responses on when learners are allowed to CS in the classroom (RQ 2)

CS in class	Frq	%
1.Learners are allowed to express themselves in Setswana in class **only when speaking**.	40	58
M Frq	29	42
Total	**69**	**100**

Please note: Non-Setswana teachers only.

The results in Table 5.9 above show that CS was limited to oral communication. This suggests that CS is used as a strategy to facilitate spoken communication in class where there is a problem communicating in English.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

Although the results showed that teaching experience and the nature of the subject taught had an effect on the teachers' responses, and that other independent variables had no effect on the teachers' views on when learners were allowed to CS, statistical test results indicated that the teachers' age had an influence on their opinions. Hence the results were statistically significant. Teaching experience and subject taught also somewhat influenced the teachers' opinions. HL, school location, gender, and fluency

in speaking English had no influence of statistical significance to the teachers' views. The results were: more middle-aged teachers (65%) than the younger teachers (50%) and the mature teachers (50%) allowed learners to CS when speaking in class. The reason could be that the middle-aged teachers perceived CS as a teaching and learning strategy that increased learner involvement in the lesson; the other teachers perhaps perceived it as an impediment to language development. The statistical test result shows that the relationship between the teachers' views and age is significant ($p = 0.02$). Similarly, the results also showed that more teachers of content subjects than the teachers of English (L and L) allowed their learners to CS to Setswana when speaking in class (Biology: 76%, Home Economics: 86% and History: 75% vs. 36%). It is self-evident that the relationship between the nature of the subject taught and the teachers' views is statistically highly significant ($p = 0.006$).

The results also show that the majority of the teachers in all categories of experience (except the inexperienced teachers) allowed their learners to CS to Setswana in class only when speaking. The results confirm that there was likely to be less CS in the classes of the least experienced teachers than in the classes of the more experienced teachers. The statistical test result ($p = 0.09$) shows that there was a significant tendency for a relationship between teaching experience and the teachers' opinion on when learners were allowed to CS. However, HL, school location, gender, and fluency in English had no significant influence on the teachers' views about when they allowed their learners to CS in class. The results suggest that CS was used by teachers to explain the lesson, and by learners to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the subject taught. The statistical test results showed that the relationship between the teachers' views and the four independent variables stated above was statistically not significant.

Table 5.10: Teachers' views on causes of CS by teachers and learners (RQ 3)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
Proficiency in English	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. Teachers' CS in class **is not due** to a lack of proficiency in English.	52	65	10	12	3	18	80	100	14
2. Learners' CS in class **is due** to a lack of proficiency in English.	62	77	10	12	9	11	81	100	13

The results in Table 5.10 above show that the majority of the teachers agreed that the teachers' CS to Setswana in class did not signal their lack of proficiency in English and that the learners' CS signalled their lack of proficiency in English as 65% and 77% indicated respectively.

The results suggest that the teachers CS to Setswana in class to assist the learners who have difficulty following a lesson presented in English, but not because they themselves have problems with self-expression in English. They also allow the learners to CS to Setswana to overcome language difficulty and to be able to participate in the lesson. Therefore, CS in the classroom is used as an educational strategy more for the benefit of the learners than for the teachers.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results showed that gender and teaching experience had a significant influence on the teachers' views about the dependent variables in Table 5.10 above: the proportion or number of female teachers who were of the opinion that *teachers'* CS was not due to a lack of proficiency in English was more than double the number of male teachers who was of the same opinion. The statistical test results revealed that the relationship between the teachers' responses and gender was highly significant ($p = 0.003$). In addition, the majority of both male and female teachers agreed that *learners'* CS was due to a lack of proficiency in English (82% vs. 71%). However, the results were not statistically significant. Similarly, the relationship between the teachers' views and teaching experience was statistically significant ($p = 0.02$). In both cases, there were more teachers (most experienced) who agreed with the views as indicated in Table 5.10 above than the other teachers. The other independent variables (subject taught, HL, age, school location and fluency in speaking English) had no significant influence on the teachers' views, and therefore also were not statistically significant.

Table 5.11: Reasons for teachers' use of CS in class: (RQ 4 ii)

Reasons	N	%
1. Increased learner participation	16	23
2. Better lesson comprehension	35	51
3. Promotion of Setswana as the national language	3	4
4. Promotion of learner attention	17	25
5. All of the above	2	3
6. None of the above	17	25

Please note: Total percentage not provided as respondents could choose more than one item.

The results in Table 5.11 above represent only the views of the teachers of subjects taught in English. These teachers (about 75% of them) use CS in the classroom with varying degrees and for various reasons. The main reason is to address a problem of comprehension (and communication) in English for teaching and learning to take place. The least popular reason for CS in the classroom is to promote Setswana as a national language. The results suggest that the majority of the teachers CS during their lessons for pedagogical reasons.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results showed that the nature of the subject taught had a significant influence on the teachers' views: the majority of the teachers of content subjects stated that they CS mainly to promote comprehension of the lesson by learners, but only a minority of the teachers of English (L and L) shared the similar view. The results suggest that teachers of content subjects were more concerned about the learners' comprehension of the subject content than about improving their learners' proficiency in English. They viewed the latter as the role of the teachers of English. The minimal use of CS during English (L and L) lessons suggests that the English teachers were concerned about the promotion of proficiency in English language among the learners. The relationship between the nature of the subject taught and the teachers' views on the following dependent variables was statistically highly significant:

- The use of CS to increase comprehension of the lesson among learners ($p = 0.001$);
- to capture learner attention ($p = 0.005$); and

- to increase learner participation ($p = 0.001$)

The results also indicated that age and school location had a significant influence on the teachers' views: the younger teachers code-switched more than the middle-aged and the mature teachers: viz 13:87, 30:70 and 50:50. The results suggest that the younger teachers were more likely to use CS in class to address the problem of comprehension (and communication) than the middle-aged and the mature teachers. The statistical test results showed that there was a significant tendency of relationship between age and the teachers' CS to capture learners' attention ($p = 0.07$). Furthermore, school location had a significant influence on the teachers' views that they do not CS to perform any of the tasks outlined in Table 5.11 above. The results show that there is a significant tendency of relationship between school location (urban or peri-urban) and the teachers' views ($p = 0.09$): more teachers at urban schools than at peri-urban schools stated that they did not CS in class. The results suggest that CS was more likely to occur in peri-urban schools than in urban schools. This also suggests that the problem of a lack of proficiency in English was more acute in peri-urban schools than in urban schools. Other results on the influence of school location on the teachers' views had no statistical significance. Similarly, the results on the influence of gender, teaching experience, HL, and fluency in speaking English had no statistical significance.

Table 5.12: Instances when teachers allow learners to code-switch to Setswana in the classroom (RQ 4 ii)

CS to Setswana	N	%
1. Ask a question	12	17
2. To respond to teacher's question	13	19
3. To summarize a lesson	2	3
4. To discuss class tasks	15	22
5. All the above	19	28
6. None of the above	35	51

Please note: Total and percentage could not be given as respondents could choose more than one option.

The results in Table 5.12 above show that the learners were allowed to code-switch in class to perform different tasks. However, they did not code-switch as much as the teachers did as indicated earlier in Table 5.11. This supports an earlier observation that teachers code-switch but discouraged their learners from doing so. The results suggest

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that CS was used more by the teachers than by the learners, and that it was largely meant to facilitate communication in the classroom due to the learners' inability to express themselves in English as mentioned. However, not all teachers allowed CS by learners even though nearly half of the teachers (49%) allowed their learners to CS.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results show that gender, subject taught, fluency in speaking English and age had a significant influence on the teachers' views about the dependent variables contained in Table 5.12 above. There was a relationship of statistical significance between the teachers' responses and gender: both the male and female teachers allowed their learners to CS, but more male teachers than female teachers did not allow their learners to CS. The proportion or number of male teachers who did not allow CS was almost double the proportion of teachers who allowed it (60% vs. 38%).

The statistical tests confirmed that the relationship between gender and tolerance (by female teachers) for learners' CS was statistically significant ($p = 0.03$); and the relationship between gender and less tolerance for learners' CS (by male teachers) was statistically highly significant ($p = 0.005$).

The results on the relationship between subject taught and the teachers' views about CS in the classroom were significant: CS was more permissible during the lessons of content subjects than during English (L and L) lessons. The statistical test results showed that the relationship between subject taught and the teachers' views on allowing learners to CS when asking a question was statistically significant ($p = 0.04$): only 6% of the teachers of English (L and L) allowed this practice, but for content subjects the percentage was more (Biology: 29%; History: 13%; and Home Economics: 28%). Similarly, the relationship between subject taught and the teachers' views on the learners' CS to respond to the teacher's question was also statistically highly significant ($p = 0.006$): 3% of English (L and L) teachers allowed learners to CS when responding to a teacher's question, but for Biology and History it was 24% and 25% respectively; and for Home Economics teachers, it was 43%. Therefore, the results suggest that the nature of the subject taught (language or content) influenced the teachers' attitude towards CS in the classroom.

Furthermore, age had a significant influence on the teachers' views about when they allowed CS in their classes: more mature teachers (50:50) than the other teachers allowed their learners to answer in Setswana in class, with the least CS occurring during the classes of the middle-aged (10:90) than during the classes of the younger teachers (21:79). The learners were also allowed to CS when asking a question in class, and the least CS once again took place during the lessons of the middle-aged teachers (10:90) when compared with CS taking place during the lessons of the younger teachers and the mature teachers (25:75) in each case. Statistically, there was a significant tendency towards a relationship between age and the teachers' views about the learners' CS when asking and answering a question in class ($p = 0.07$). In addition, the results also showed that the few middle-aged teachers who condoned CS allowed it all the time, but more teachers of younger ages and the mature ages occasionally allowed it. For instance, 5% of the middle-aged teachers stated that they allowed learners to CS to perform all the classroom functions listed in Table 5.12 above but none of the younger teachers and the mature teachers allowed CS at the same frequency. The results were statistically significant ($p = 0.03$).

It was noted previously that more of the younger teachers and of the middle-aged teachers than the mature teachers stated that they code-switched in class. However, on learners' CS, fewer of the younger teachers and the middle-aged teachers allowed it, but the proportion of mature teachers who allowed it was the same as those who did not allow it: (younger: 87:46; middle-aged: 70:53, mature: 50:50). This suggests that although CS was used as a mode of interaction between teachers and learners, among the younger and the middle-aged teachers, it was an instructional strategy used or allowed to ensure comprehension during lessons, but not necessarily a strategy that learners could always use to participate in the lesson. However, for the mature teachers, CS was a two-way strategy used to facilitate lesson comprehension, and to enable learners to participate in the lesson, as well.

Similarly, fluency in speaking English had a significant influence on the teachers' views on some of the dependent variables listed in Table 5.12 above. Statistically, the relationship between fluency in speaking English and the teachers' views on the learners' CS to ask a question and to answer the teacher's question was statistically highly significant ($p = 0.001$) and significant ($p = 0.01$) respectively: almost the same

proportion of the teachers fluent in English and the teachers moderately fluent in English stated that they allowed CS when learners asked questions (16% vs. 17%) and when learners answered a question in Setswana (14% vs. 17%). The results were significant in that the fluent teachers were not expected to condone CS. However, the results indicated that CS was a communication strategy allowed by the teachers in their classes, regardless of their fluency in English, to enable learners to participate in the lesson. This suggests that teachers recognized that the learners' lack of competency in spoken English prevented them from participating in the lesson. Therefore, allowing CS was a way of overcoming the difficulty in communication. The other results showed that fluency in speaking English had no significant influence on the differences in the teachers' responses.

The results also showed that teaching experience, HL and school location had no significant influence on the teachers' views about the learners' CS. Therefore, the relationship between these independent variables and the teachers' views about the dependent variables listed in Table 5.12 above was not statistically significant.

Table 5.13: Teachers' views on the educational benefits of CS in a Setswana class (RQ 4 ii)

CS in a Setswana class	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
In Setswana class I sometimes:	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Use English to clarify a point.	21	84	3	12	1	4	25	100	0
2. Allow learners to explain in English.	8	36	14	64	0	0	21	100	4

Please note: Only the views of Setswana teachers.

The results in Table 5.13 above show that the majority of the teachers of Setswana (84%) CS to clarify a point, but they did not allow their learners to CS even when they had difficulty explaining themselves in Setswana, as stated by 64% of the teachers. The results show that CS also takes place in Setswana classes; and that the teachers freely code-switched as and whenever they wished, but the learners were not allowed to freely code-switch. The results also show that some Setswana teachers, even though they were in the minority, recognized the value of CS, which is to facilitate teaching and learning,

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results showed that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of teaching experience, age, school location, gender, HL and fluency in speaking English, stated that they sometimes CS to English to clarify a point. All Setswana teachers considered themselves to be fluent in English. The results also showed that fluency in speaking English and subject taught had no influence on the teachers' views about allowing learners to CS to English during Setswana lessons. However, the majority of the teachers in all the categories of experience, except the least experienced, who were also the younger teachers, did not allow learners to CS to Setswana. The results suggest that during the lessons of younger and inexperienced teachers there was likely to be more CS to English than during the lessons of other teachers. However, the differences in the results were not that significant. Similarly, school location and gender had no significant effect on the differences in the teachers' responses. None of the results above was statistically significant. Statistical tests were not applicable to the nature of the subject taught as the dependent variables specifically referred to Setswana as a subject only.

Table 5.14: Teachers' views on the effect of CS on teaching and learning pace (RQ 4 iii)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
Effect of CS on teaching	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. CS during the lesson is a waste of teaching time.	8	10	53	69	16	21	77	100	17

The results in Table 5.14 above show that the majority of the teachers were of the view that CS did not slow down the pace of teaching and learning; and therefore had no adverse effect on curriculum coverage. The results suggest that although the teachers had positive views about CS, not all them code-switched, hence some were not sure about its effect on teaching and learning.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results show that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of HL, subject taught, school location, gender, teaching experience, age, and fluency in speaking English, did not view the use of CS as a waste of teaching time. However, only the results of the

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effect of teaching experience and fluency in speaking English on the teachers' views were significant. The results were such that although teachers, irrespective of teaching experience, did not agree that CS had an adverse effect on teaching time, there was a significant difference between the proportion of the well-experienced teachers and the other teachers (89%, vs. 69%, 54% and 60%). The statistical test result ($p = 0.005$) showed that the relationship between teaching experience and the teachers' views about the effect of CS on teaching time was highly significant. Similarly, the results on the effect of fluency in speaking English on the teachers' views were significant. The majority of both the teachers fluent in English and the teachers moderately fluent in English agreed that CS did not waste teaching time. This confirms an earlier view that both categories of teachers code-switched and allowed their learners to code-switch. The results suggest that the majority of the teachers were of the opinion that CS had an educational value and did not merely constitute a repetition of lesson material previously presented in English. The relationship between fluency in speaking English and the teachers' views is statistically significant ($p = 0.01$).

The results of the effect of other independent variables (gender, age, HL, subject taught, school location) on the teachers' views were not statistically significant. The results suggest that both male and female teachers of all age groups, regardless of their HL, and teaching either content or language subjects in urban and peri-urban schools, were likely to code-switch and to allow CS in their classes.

Table 5.15: Teachers' views on the didactic consequences of CS in the schools (Q4 i)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
Didactic effect of CS	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. Learners understand better when I explain some lesson parts in Setswana.	35	64	13	24	7	13	55	100	14
2. Using both English and Setswana prevents proficiency in English among the learners.	30	37	33	40	18	22	81	100	13

Please note: Item 1 excludes views of Setswana teachers.

The results in Table 5.15 above show that the majority of the teachers were of the view that CS to Setswana improved understanding of the lessons and further did not prevent the development of proficiency in English among learners. The results suggest that

teachers viewed CS, be it to Setswana or to English, as a positive teaching strategy. The results also suggest that while some teachers were only concerned about the educational benefits of CS, others (although in the minority) were apprehensive about the effect of CS use on language development. The latter view is held by 37% of the teachers.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The results show that the nature of the subject taught and HL had a significant effect on the teachers' views about the didactic consequences of CS in schools. The majority of the teachers of English (L and L) stated that CS had negative effects on the learners' proficiency in English, but teachers of content subjects said it had no adverse effect on the proficiency in English, even though the opinion of the Home Economics' teachers was evenly divided (English: 62% vs. History: 57%; Biology: 50% and Home Economics: 40%). The results suggest that, from the point of view of language development in English, the language teachers did not support CS, but the teachers of the content subjects did not have any objection as their primary focus was more on understanding the content among the learners, and less on the improvement of proficiency in the target language. The relationship between subject taught and the teachers' views on the effect of CS on English proficiency among learners was statistically significant ($p = 0.04$). However, there were no significant differences in the teachers' responses on the effect of the nature of subject taught on the teachers' views about CS to improve comprehension of the lesson. The majority of the teachers, regardless of the nature of subject taught, agreed that CS enhanced understanding the content of the lessons. Consequently, the results had no statistical significance.

The results also show that the differences in the teachers' responses by HL regarding the effect of CS on the comprehension of the content of the lesson were significant: the majority of the teachers, for whom Setswana, Ikalanga and those whose HL falls under 'Others', whose HLs were one of the indigenous languages, agreed that CS promoted understanding of the lessons, but all the teachers whose HL is English, which is also the LoLT or MoI (100%) disagreed. The results show that HL influenced the teachers' opinion. Furthermore, differences in the proportion of teachers who agreed by HL were significant (Setswana: 79%; Ikalanga: 45%; and 'Others': 53%). The results suggest that the teachers for whom Setswana is a HL were likely to CS to Setswana

during their lessons whilst the teachers for whom Ikalanga is a HL were less likely to CS to Setswana during their lessons. The statistical test results ($p = 0.03$) showed that the relationship between HL and the teachers' views on the effect of CS on the learners' comprehension of the lessons were statistically significant. However, the results on the effect of HL on the teachers' views about the effect of CS on proficiency in English among learners were not that significant.

The results also showed that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of fluency in speaking English, age, school location, teaching experience, and gender, agreed that CS enhanced teaching and learning. The differences in the teachers' responses were not significant; therefore, none of the five independent variables above had an influence on the teachers' views. The statistical tests results were also not statistically significant.

Table 5.16: Teachers' views on the educational benefits of CS (RQ 4 ii)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
Effect of CS on T and L	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. CS between English and Setswana promotes teaching and learning	41	54	18	24	17	22	76	100	18

The results in Table 5.16 above indicate that the majority of the 78% of the teachers who gave a definite answer held positive views about the effect of CS on teaching and learning. The 22% who were non-committal suggest that they did not CS in their classes. The results suggest that the majority of the teachers viewed CS (especially between Setswana and English) as educationally beneficial; and are therefore likely to use it.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The results show that there were differences in opinion between teachers of content subjects and English (L and L): the former (Biology: 58%; History: 57%; Home Economics: 75%) agreed that CS promotes teaching and learning, but the latter -- English (L and L) did not support CS (38% disagreed; 29% agreed), and viewed the practice to be at odds with the main objective of their department. However, the majority of Setswana teachers (73%) held positive views about CS in general. Their

response was unexpected, given the assumption that as teachers of a language subject, they would discourage CS. The results suggest that the use of CS was least likely to occur in the English (L and L) lessons than in the lessons of the other subjects, including Setswana. Therefore, there were no significant differences in views between Setswana teachers and the teachers of content subjects. The results were therefore statistically not significant.

Furthermore, other independent variables, namely school location, age, teaching experience, gender, HL, and fluency in speaking English had no influence on the teachers' responses; and the majority of the teachers shared the view that CS promotes teaching and learning. The results suggest that CS is a common occurrence in the classroom. Therefore neither the differences in the teachers' responses nor the results stated above were statistically significant.

Table 5.17: Teachers' attitude towards CS for instructional purposes (RQ 5 i)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
Teacher's CS	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
I have no problem CS during my lessons.	34	45	35	47	6	8	75	100	19

The results in Table 5.17 above show that there was no significant difference in the proportion of the teachers who found CS problematic, and those who did not (47% vs. 45%).

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The results show that there was a significant difference in the teachers' responses by the nature of subject taught. Among the subjects taught in English, the majority of the English (L and L) teachers (74%) and Home Economics teachers (60%) objected to CS, but the majority of the Biology teachers (56%) and those of History (71%) had no problem regarding CS in their classes. There was not much of a significant difference in views among the teachers of content subjects. However, among the language subjects, the nature of the subject taught had an influence on the teachers' views: Setswana teachers held different views from those of English (L and L). The former did not object to CS, but the latter did (55% vs. 74% respectively). The result on the

relationship between the teachers' views and subject taught is statistically significant ($p = 0.04$).

On the contrary, the results show that there were no striking significant differences about CS during lessons in the views among teachers by gender, school location, age, teaching experience, HL and fluency in speaking English. In this regard, none of the six independent variables had a significant influence on the teachers' views. Therefore, the results were not statistically significant.

5.5 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE ROLE OF SETSWANA IN EDUCATION

Table 5.18: Teachers' views on the effects of Botswana's LiEP on the use of Setswana in education (RQ 6)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
Setswana in education	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. Setswana should be used during Setswana lessons only.	34	43	40	51	5	6	79	100	15
2. Using Setswana in class is a sign of national pride.	27	33	36	44	18	22	81	100	13

The results in Table 5.18 above show that there were more teachers who supported the use of Setswana in non-Setswana classes than those who were opposed to it (51% vs. 43%). The results suggest that the majority of teachers, although not by many, were of the view that Setswana, as a national language, had a role to play in education. However, the proportion of those who were opposed to its use signifies that some teachers were apprehensive about using Setswana for teaching and learning other subjects apart from Setswana.

Once again, more teachers did not view the use of Setswana in class as a sign of national pride (44% vs. 33%). Nonetheless, this view could not be said to be popular as fewer than half the respondents subscribed to it. The results suggest that the use of Setswana in class is purely didactic – to overcome a communication problem, not to promote it deliberately as a national language.

<u>Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables</u>

The results indicated that gender, subject taught, school location and fluency in speaking English had a significant influence on the teachers' responses to the use of Setswana in education: 56% of the male teachers did not support the use of Setswana (LoLT) to teach other subjects apart from Setswana as a subject, but 58% of the female teachers supported it. The results also showed that 62% of the male teachers disagreed with the view that the use of Setswana in class was a sign of national pride, but 39% of the female teachers were in agreement. Almost a third (32%) of the female teachers were not sure of what their opinions were. These could be teachers who do not teach Setswana and may not be concerned about the promotion of Setswana as a national language. The results suggest that the male teachers were opposed to Setswana assuming a similar role to that of English in education, but the female teachers were supportive of its use as a LoLT. The statistical test results showed that the differences in the teachers' responses above were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.009$).

The results above are not consistent with the earlier results that male teachers tended to CS more than the female teachers. Given their rate of CS during their lessons, one would have expected the male teachers to support Setswana use in the teaching of other subjects. This implies that male teachers were satisfied with the informal use of Setswana in class, in the form of CS to address specific language problems during lessons of subjects taught in English. On the other hand, female teachers seemed to favour the official use of Setswana as the LoLT even for subjects currently taught in 'English'.

The results also showed that the teachers of the two language subjects (English and Setswana) held opposite views: 68% of the English (L and L) teachers supported the view that Setswana should never be used in class except during Setswana lessons, but 73% of Setswana teachers disagreed. In addition, 83% of the Setswana teachers agreed that using Setswana in class was a sign of national pride, but 64% of the English (L and L) teachers were not of the same opinion. Each group 'jealously' guarded their subject. In the researcher's view, the English (L and L) teachers viewed the use of Setswana outside Setswana lessons as reducing the importance of English in the curriculum; and the Setswana teachers viewed the use of Setswana outside Setswana

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lessons as promotion of Setswana in the curriculum. Furthermore, the majority of the teachers of content subjects also supported the use of Setswana in the teaching of other subjects, even though the History teachers' views were evenly divided. The results suggest that the teachers of the other subjects taught in 'English' were more likely to CS to Setswana during their lessons than the teachers of English (L and L). The results are consistent with earlier results stated above (cf. Table 5.4 above). However, these teachers specifically supported the use of Setswana as the LoLT in primary schools. The majority of the teachers of content subjects (Biology: 61%; and History: 71%) did not view the use of Setswana as a mark of national pride. Fifty seven percent of the teachers in Home Economics were not sure, while more disagreed (29%) than agreed (14%).

The results showed that subject taught influenced the teachers' opinion in that only Setswana teachers supported the view that using Setswana in class was a sign of national pride. The teachers of English (L and L) and content subjects, who also taught in 'English', did not support this view. The views of Setswana teachers are not unexpected, given that it is also within their mandate to promote Setswana as a national language. The results suggest that the teachers of the subjects taught in 'English' CS to Setswana, not to promote Setswana as a national language, but to overcome the language problem that their learners experienced as had been observed. The results above were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.003$), showing that the relationship between the teachers' responses and the nature of the subject taught is highly significant.

Furthermore, the results showed that 61% of the teachers at S 1 and 63% of the teachers at S 3 supported the use of Setswana for teaching other subjects, but at S 2 and S 4, 50% and 53% respectively were of the view that Setswana should only be used during Setswana lessons. Although schools within the same location had divergent views, the differences in opinion were not that significant. Hence the results were not statistically significant. The results further showed that 42% and 70% of the teachers at S 2 and S 4 disagreed with the view that using Setswana in class was a sign of national pride, but at S 1 and S 3 33% and 47% agreed respectively. It was noted that a significant number of teachers at S 1, S 2 and S 3 were non-committal, hence the low number of those who gave a definite opinion. The results were, however, somehow

significant in that the majority of the teachers at S 4 were clearly opposed to the idea that using Setswana in class suggested showing national pride. The results were not unexpected as Setswana was used less as a home language but more as a national language. Naturally, a significant proportion of the teachers who spoke Ikalanga as HL, had more of an affinity for their own language than for Setswana. The statistical test result ($p = 0.06$) showed that there was a significant tendency of relationship between school location and the teachers' responses on using Setswana to demonstrate national pride.

The results also showed that 49% of the fluent and 50% of the moderately fluent teachers supported the view that Setswana should be used in the teaching of other subjects. However, the remaining 50% of the moderately fluent teachers were opposed to the use of Setswana as a LoLT. The results are significant in that the moderately fluent teachers were expected to support the use of Setswana in the teaching of other subjects, while the fluent teachers were not expected to be supportive it. The results above were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.001$). In addition, 48% of the fluent teachers did not view the use of Setswana in class as a sign of national pride, but 40% of the moderately fluent teachers viewed it as such. The results suggest that the moderately fluent teachers were more likely to use Setswana in their classes than the teachers more fluent in English. However, the differences in the teachers' views were not that significant. Consequently, the results were not statistically significant.

However, teaching experience, HL and age had no significant influence on the teachers' views on the two dependent variables contained in Table 5.18 above. The majority of the teachers with the least experience and 50% of those with the most experience had similar views, but those in the middle categories shared similar views, as well. In addition, only the well-experienced teachers (50%) viewed the use of Setswana in class as a sign of national pride. The results suggest the following: The teachers with six to15 years' experience were more likely to CS to Setswana in class than the least and the most experienced teachers. However, although the majority of the teachers mainly used Setswana in class to compensate for the learners' lack of competency in English, the majority of the well-experienced teachers used it for pedagogical as well as reasons of national identity.

The results also showed that 49% of the teachers whose HL is Setswana and 63% of the teachers whose HL falls in the category 'Others', supported the view that Setswana should be used in the teaching of the other subjects, but 62% of the teachers whose HL is Ikalanga and the two teachers whose HL is English (100%) were not in support of this view. The results suggest that the former group supported a wide use of Setswana in the curriculum; but the latter did not support this notion. As previously alluded to, the teachers whose HL falls under 'Others' appear to have accepted Setswana as a national language even though their languages are not taught in the schools. These teachers were very few (11), and accounted for only 13% of the teachers who participated in the study. Furthermore, the majority of the teachers, irrespective of HL, did not view the use of Setswana as a sign of national pride. This suggests that the majority of the teachers used Setswana purely for didactic reasons but not for its status as a national language.

The results also showed that 57% of the younger teachers did not support the view that Setswana should be used to teach other subjects; but 55% of the middle-aged and 63% of the mature teachers supported this view. The results suggest that the younger teachers were less likely to CS in their classes than the middle-aged and the mature teachers. However, the differences in the teachers' opinion were not that significant. The results also showed that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of age, disagreed with the view that using Setswana is a sign of national pride; even though the views of the mature teachers were evenly divided (44%). This suggests that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of age, used Setswana purely for pedagogical reasons.

The results expressed on the influence of teaching experience, HL and age on the teachers' views about the use of Setswana as the LoLT and using Setswana to demonstrate national pride were not statistically significant.

5.6 TEACHERS' VIEWS ON THE ROLE OF OTHER LOCAL LANGUAGES IN EDUCATION

Table 5.19: Teachers' use of local languages in class (RQ 2)

	Always		Sometimes		Never		Total		M Frq
Local languages in T and L	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
Teachers use other local languages to ensure learners' understanding.	6	8	43	55	29	37	78	100	16

The results in Table 5.19 above show that CS to a local language also occurred in the classroom as indicated by 63% of the teachers. The results suggest that, in addition to CS between English and Setswana, CS may also take place to a local language.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variable

The results showed that the differences in the teachers' opinions about the use of local languages were not significant; hence none of the six independent variables (teaching experience, fluency in speaking English, subject taught, HL, age, and gender) had a significant impact on the teachers' views. Furthermore, teachers at the two urban schools held a different opinion than those at the two peri-urban schools viz. that local languages were not used in class as indicated by 60% and 52% of the teachers at S 1 and S 2 respectively, and that local languages were used in class as indicated by 87.5% and 89% of the teachers at S 3 and S 4 respectively. The results suggest that CS to a local language was more likely to occur at the two peri-urban schools than at the two urban schools. However, it is important to note that a significant number of the teachers whose HL is Ikalanga (47%), the main local language of the area, denied that a local language was used in class. Hence the results above are not statistically significant.

Table 5.20: Local languages often used in class (RQ 2)

Local Languages	N	%
1. Ikalanga	75	96
5. Sebirwa	1	1
6. Setswapong	2	3
Total	**78**	**100**

M Frq: 22

The results in Table 5.20 above show that Ikalanga is the main local language often used in the classroom. These results were not unexpected, given that Ikalanga is the language of the area and a home language for over 25% of the teachers and more than 50% of the learners (cf. Table 4.5 and Table 4.14 in Chapter 4).

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

All the independent variables, namely gender, teaching experience, subject taught, home language, fluency in speaking English, age and school location, had no effect on the teachers' responses. Furthermore, by school location, the proportion of the teachers who stated that Ikalanga, as the local language, was often used in the classroom, was higher at the two peri-urban schools (S 3 and S 4) than at the two urban schools (S 1 and S 2) (31% and 31% vs. 21% and 18% respectively). The results suggest that Ikalanga was more likely to be used in the classroom at the two peri-urban schools than at the two urban schools. However, the results were not that significant. None of the results (that is to say, the influence of all seven the independent variables on the dependent variable contained in Table 5.20) above were statistically significant.

Table 5.21: Teachers' views on the effect of Botswana's LiEP on other local languages (RQ 6)

Local languages in education	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. I have no problem when a learner uses his / her local language in class.	13	17	58	75	6	8	77	100	17
2. There is no need to use other local languages in class besides English.	25	32	37	47	16	21	78	100	16
3. I sometimes use the learners' local language in class to ensure understanding of the lesson.	28	36	45	58	4	5	77	100	17
4. Allowing learners to use their local language in class does not help them improve their spoken English.	51	69	14	19	9	12	74	100	20
5. Allowing learners to use their local language does not increase class participation.	17	23	29	40	27	37	73	100	21

The results in Table 5.21 above show that the majority of the teachers have negative perceptions about the use of the learners' local language in class as shown by the following:

- They neither used nor allowed learners to use their local language in class to enhance understanding their lessons as indicated by 75% and 58% of the teachers respectively.
- They agreed that allowing the learners to use their specific local language negatively impacts on attaining fluency in English as indicated by 69% of the teachers. Interestingly, a similar question was asked earlier about CS between English and Setswana, and teachers stated that CS to Setswana did not have a negative impact on English proficiency among the learners. One is therefore compelled to ask: Why would CS to a local language negatively affect English proficiency if CS to Setswana does not? This question will be addressed in Chapter Eight.

Despite the negative perceptions of CS to a local language expressed above, there were some teachers who saw the need to use it in education. As examples, the following:

- Forty seven percent (47%) of the teachers indicated that there was need to use other local languages in class besides English, even though almost one-third (32%) had reservations about it.

- Forty percent (40%) of the teachers agreed that allowing learners to CS to their local language in class increased class participation, even though 23% did not agree.

The results suggest that local languages were viewed as having a minimal role or no role to play in education, and were regarded largely as LFIC languages. The responses by some teachers that they were not sure about the effects of the use of a local language in class suggest that these were the teachers who never CS to the learners' local language as it was not officially permissible to do so, or because they did not speak it.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results showed that home language, subject taught, and gender had a significant effect on the teachers' views about the dependent variables contained in Table 5.21 above: The majority of the teachers did not CS to a local language to enhance understanding of the lesson, except for 60% of the teachers whose HL falls in the category 'Others', who stated that they sometimes CS to a local language in class. The results were unexpected in that the teachers whose HL is Ikalanga were expected to use their HL that the majority of the learners also spoke and understood, and not the teachers whose HL falls under 'Others'.

The teachers' views differed on the need to use a local language in class. Among the language subjects, 50% of the teachers of English (L and L) said that there was no need to use it, but 86% of the teachers of Setswana disagreed and pointed out a need for it. The results suggest that, as previously explained, the English (L and L) teachers were protective of the use of English in education; but the teachers of Setswana, as one of the indigenous languages in Botswana, also supported the use of other local languages in education. Similarly, among the teachers of subjects taught in English, 43% of the History teachers held similar views as the English (L and L) teachers, but 60% of the Home Economics teachers and 44% of the Biology teachers shared similar views as those of the Setswana teachers. The results also indicated that the opinion of the

English (L and L) teachers was different from the rest of the other teachers who teach their subjects in English (except for 43% of the History teachers). This also suggests a protectionist tendency among the English (L and L) teachers.

Despite the teachers' negative perceptions about the use of a local language in class, the results show that among the teachers who gave a definite answer (a significant number of them were not sure), there were more teachers, irrespective of subjects taught, who agreed that allowing the learners to use a local language in class increased class participation. Similarly, the majority of the teachers whose HL is Setswana, or Ikalanga, or 'Others', shared the same view, except for the two teachers whose HL is English and who were opposed to this practice. The results on the effect of HL on the teachers' views show that the teachers whose HL is one of the indigenous languages were positive about the use of local languages in education, but the two teachers whose HL is English had negative views on the use of local languages in class.

The majority of both the male teachers and female teachers also shared the same sentiments. While the majority of female teachers (57%) found it unnecessary to use a local language in class, besides English, the male teachers' opinions were evenly divided on the issue (36% agreed that it was necessary, and the other 36% stated that it was unnecessary).

The results suggest that, generally, the majority of the teachers, irrespective of subject taught, HL and gender, had more negative than positive perceptions about the use of local languages in class. By subject taught, this negative perception was more evident among the teachers of English (L and L) than among the teachers who taught content subjects as well as the teachers who taught Setswana. This suggests that the English (L and L) teachers were less likely to CS to a local language than the teachers of the other subjects. The teachers whose HL is any of the indigenous languages (Ikalanga, or Setswana, or 'Others') were more receptive to the idea of using a local language in class than teachers for whom English was a HL. The results suggest that the former (teachers whose HL is any of the indigenous languages) were more likely to use a local language in class as long as they could speak it and it was intelligible to the learners. The results also suggest that these teachers did not use a local language in class because it was not yet officially permissible to do so, not because they were overly

concerned about the fact. By gender, the results suggest that the both male and female teachers largely viewed the local languages as languages with a limited educational role. However, the female teachers were more negative towards the use of a local language in class than their male colleagues. Therefore, they were less likely to CS to a local language in class.

The results on the influence of subject taught, gender and HL on the teachers' views on allowing learners to CS to a local language to increase class participation were significant, and also statistically significant. The relationship between subject taught and HL and the differences in the teachers' responses on allowing learners to CS to a local language to increase participation, was statistically significant ($p = 0.02$, and $p = 0.03$ respectively). Similarly, the relationship between home language and the differences in the teachers' responses to the learners' use of a local language in class is statistically significant ($p = 0.03$). There was also a significant tendency for a relationship between HL and the differences in the teachers' responses on allowing learners to CS to a local language to increase participation ($p = 0.06$). Further, there was a significant tendency for a relationship between subject taught and the differences in the teachers' responses to the need to use other local languages in class ($p = 0.09$). Other results had no statistical significance.

The results suggest that, although the majority of the teachers had negative perceptions about the use of local languages in education generally, some recognized that, potentially, these languages could enhance teaching and learning. The results also suggest that currently, these teachers do not CS to a local language as the LiEP does not cover such a provision, not because they did not recognize some of the educational benefits of using a local language for teaching and learning. However, they acknowledge the negative effect of allowing the use of a local language in class on the development of a proficiency in English.

Furthermore, the effect of teaching experience, age, fluency in speaking English and school location on the teachers' views on the dependent variables contained in Table 5.21 above was investigated but found to be of no significance. The results (indicated that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of all the independent variables stated above, disapproved of CS to local languages in class. They found their use

unnecessary and stated that allowing learners to use them negatively impacted on the learners' attainment of a proficiency in English. However, on a positive note, the majority of the teachers, irrespective of the length of their teaching experience, age, fluency in speaking English, and school location agreed that allowing learners to CS to their local language increased class participation. None of the results above was statistically significant.

5.7 SHORT SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The teachers' responses discussed above have shown that both the teachers and the learners CS in the classroom. The teachers generally had a positive attitude towards CS in the classroom, but they supported its use more by teachers than by learners. They viewed its use by teachers as a way of addressing the problem of a lack of full competence in English among the majority of their learners which, in their view, negatively affected teaching and learning. The teachers' views suggest that they believed that they had acquired a proficiency in English, therefore their CS was not due to a lack of proficiency in English. Furthermore, although both boys and girls CS, in the teachers' views, boys CS more than girls, and the latter were more fluent in English than the former.

The results also showed that the teachers whose home language is English or Ikalanga consistently shared the same views; and the teachers whose HL is Setswana or 'Others' also consistently shared similar views on issues relating to language use in the classroom. It was also noted that, generally, the teachers whose HL falls in the category 'Others', were positive about the use of Setswana. This suggests that they have accepted it as a national language. The teachers whose HL is Ikalanga were generally negative about the use of Setswana (LoLT); while teachers whose HL is Setswana were consistently negative towards the use of other local languages, such as Ikalanga in education. The teachers whose HL is English were opposed to the use of both Setswana and a local language in class.

Furthermore, the results showed that while the independent variables did not have much influence on the teachers' views in the case of most of the dependent variables,

where there was an effect, there often was a relationship between experience and age. The results also showed that generally, gender and fluency in speaking English did not indicate much of a difference in the teachers' views, but the nature of the subject taught and school location influenced the teachers' views to some extent.

Having presented the teachers' responses, the learners' responses are presented in the next chapter in a similar fashion.

CHAPTER SIX

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA: LEARNERS' RESPONSES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the analysis of the teachers' responses to the questions set in the questionnaire to gather information for the researcher to be able to answer the research questions. The present chapter deals with the views of the learners in response to questions similar to those set for the teachers. These responses were analysed to answer the main research questions, which will subsequently address the main objective of the study.

The learners' views, like those of the teachers were divided into three main sections according to their relevance to the sub-themes of the study: (i) The first section deals with the learners' subjective self-evaluation of their proficiency in English (as the language of focus in the study because of its role as LoLT), and their evaluation of their teachers' proficiency in English. The learners' views on the teachers' proficiency, as well as their own proficiency in English are important because they impact on their views on CS in the classroom by each group of respondents. (ii) The second section deals with the learners' views on the role of English and Setswana in education, including CS between the two in the classroom. (iii) The third section deals with the learners' views on the use of Setswana and other indigenous languages as the LoLT.

6.2 PRESENTATION FORMAT OF THE ANALYZED DATA IN THE PRESENT CHAPTER

The independent variables used to further analyze the learners' data are:
- academic ability.
- fluency in speaking English (fluent or not fluent); and
- form / grade (F 4 or F 5);

- Gender;
- home language;
- school location (urban or peri-urban);

Academic ability was not measured in any scientific way. Instead, the learners' Junior Certificate examination results, including their performance in the Science subjects, were used by schools to categorize learners into three main streams viz.: low ability (LA), medium ability (MA) and high ability (HA). As explained in Chapter Three, the LA learners were considered academically weak and followed a combined Science syllabus that culminated in a single Science examination consisting of components of Physics, Chemistry and Biology. This syllabus was considered basic to expose the learners to the basic principles in each of the three Sciences. The MA learners were considered to be of average ability and followed a syllabus that culminated in two Science examination papers. The two papers were considered academically more challenging than the paper for LA learners. The HA learners were considered to be the academically gifted group and were offered the three Sciences separately -- both the core and the extended versions. Since the classes were already streamed into these three categories, academic ability was used as an independent variable to investigate whether or not it had any significant influence on CS by learners.

The data on the analysis of the dependent variables by the learners' independent variables will be dealt with in the same way as was done with the teachers' data. The results of the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables are not presented in tabular format but only reported on owing to a lack of space.

In addition to subjecting some of the results to statistical tests to confirm their significance or non-significance, the effect size was also calculated as the learners' sample was very large. As previously reported in Chapter Four (cf. Section 4.3), the effect size was calculated to confirm whether the relationship is real or random.

6.3 LEARNERS' EVALUATION OF THEIR COMPETENCE AND THE TEACHERS' COMPETENCE IN THE LANGUAGE USE IN CLASS

Table 6.1: Learners' self-evaluation in proficiency in English use in class (RQ5 ii)

	Very well		Well		Not that well		Total		M Frq
Language Skills	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. Write tasks	439	20	1435	64	351	16	2225	100	142
2. Read texts	993	45	1078	48	153	7	2224	100	143
3. Understand teachers' explanations of concepts	617	28	1249	56	372	17	2238	100	129
4. Answer questions in the examination	474	21	1356	61	401	18	2231	100	136
5. Answer questions during the lesson	591	27	1211	54	429	19	2231	100	136

The results in Table 6.1 above show that the majority of the learners rated their proficiency in English as very well or well. Eighty four percent were positive about their writing skill; 93% about their reading skill; 83% about their comprehension of explanation of concepts in class; 82% about the way they answer questions in the examinations; and 81% about the way they answer questions (orally) during the lesson.

The results show that the majority of the learners considered themselves to have mastered the language skills in English. Because of the unavailability of oral examinations in either English or Setswana (Nkosana, 2006), the question on examinations referred to only written examinations. The results also suggest that the learners' speaking and understanding skills are not as strong as their writing and reading skills. This of course, has an effect on the use of CS in the classroom.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The results showed that the majority of the learners, irrespective of gender, school location, form / grade, and academic ability considered themselves fluent in the four types of language competence: writing, reading, understanding, and speaking. However, the following results showed that the effect of form / grade and HL on some of the dependent variables contained in Table 6.1 above were significant: more F 5

than F 4 learners considered that they read and wrote well in English as indicated by the percentages: 85% vs. 79%, and 94% vs. 92% respectively. The results above were also statistically significant, showing that the relationship between form / grade and the learners' opinion of their proficiency in reading and their interpretation and writing skills during an examination written in English was highly significant ($p = 0.004$, and $p = 0.001$ respectively). Both results had a small effect size (0.07), showing that there was a small association between the learners' opinion and the view that they generally read well in English, and also interpreted and answered examination questions well in English. Subsequent results with the same effect size should also be interpreted in the same way. The high statistical significance of the results could have been largely due to the large sample size. Therefore, in reality, the differences in the learners' proficiency in reading, interpreting, and answering examinations in English may not be as highly significant as the results suggest. Conversely, the differences in the learners' views about the effect of form / grade on the learners' writing, understanding teachers' explanation of concepts, and answering questions during the lessons were not that significant, suggesting that there was not much difference in competence between F 5 and F 4 learners (writing: 85% vs. 83%; understanding explanation of concepts: 88% vs. 80%; and answering a question orally in class: 81% vs. 81%). The results above were not statistically significant.

HL also had a significant influence on the learners' views on their competence in writing, understanding the explanation of concepts, spoken English in class; and interpretation and writing of examinations in English. The results showed that, generally, the majority of the learners, irrespective of their HL, considered themselves very competent in all four the domains of language. However, more learners whose HL is English considered themselves to be more competent than the others. The majority of the other learners whose HL is either Setswana or Ikalanga or 'Others' rated their overall competence in English as average, except for 47% of the learners whose HL is Setswana, and 48% of learners who had more than one HL, and who stated that they read very well in English. The results are not unexpected in that the learners for whom English is a HL had a head-start in the acquisition of English. So, naturally, their competence should be better than that of the other learners. For the other learners, English was either a second or even a third language that was mainly learnt and used at school.

The results showing the differences in the learners' responses were statistically significant. The effect of HL on the learners' responses to their competence in the domains of writing and understanding of the explanation of concepts in English was statistically highly significant ($p = 0.006$ and $p = < 0.0001$ respectively). Both results had a small effect size of (0.08) and (0.06) respectively. In addition, the relationship between the learners' HL and their spoken English during the lessons was statistically significant ($p = 0.04$) with no effect size, showing that the size of the sample had no effect on the significance of the results. (Again, subsequent results with no effect size should be interpreted in the same way). The effect of HL on the learners' views about their competence in interpreting and writing examinations in English also had a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.06$), showing no effect size. The results are significant, especially the results on the learners' competence in the domains of speaking and understanding of English.

The results suggest that the majority of the learners, apart from those whose HL is English, were likely to CS to Setswana, and their teachers were also likely to CS to Setswana to facilitate communication in the classroom, which impacts on teaching and learning. The results on the effect of HL on the learners' reading proficiency in English were not statistically significant.

The results of the effect of gender, school location, fluency in speaking English and academic ability on the learners' self-evaluation in their competence in all four the domains of language were not significant. The majority of the learners, irrespective of these four independent variables, considered themselves to be proficient in English as they maintained that they wrote, understood, interpreted and answered examinations questions, and read well in English. The learners' best domain of language competence was reading as 63% of the learners fluent in English; 53% of the HA learners; 47% of the female learners and 50% of the learners at S 1 considered themselves to be proficient readers in English. However, the differences in the learners' responses stated above had no statistical significance. The results suggest that the majority of the learners, regardless of their gender, school location, fluency in speaking English and academic ability were less likely to CS to Setswana in class, and that it was also unnecessary for their teachers to CS in class. These results are interesting. The researcher will determine if these results are consistent with the

findings of the study, including the results from the qualitative data obtained through observation of the lessons.

Table 6.2: Learners' views on writing examinations in English (Q5 ii)

Question	Always		Sometimes		None		Total		M Frq
Written Communication	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Any problems writing examinations in English?	67	3	1576	70	601	27	2244	100	123

The results in Table 6.2 above show that the majority of the learners experienced problems from time to time when writing examinations in English as 73% of them stated. This is contradictory to what 82% of the learners said in Table 6.1 above that they interpreted and answered English well during examinations.

As indicated earlier, this study is limited to spoken communication during a lesson. Therefore it was not possible for the researcher to confirm or refute the assertions made by the learners regarding their proficiency in written English.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results indicated that effect of form / grade, gender, HL, school location, academic ability, and fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on the learners' views about their experiences when writing examinations in English: 76% of the F 4 learners and 70% of the F 5 learners; 71% of the male learners and 75% of the female learners stated that they experienced problems when writing examinations in English. In addition, the majority of the learners who spoke the following as home languages stated that they experienced problems when writing examinations in English: Setswana: 70%; Ikalanga: 77%; Others: 67%; and more than one HL: 75%. However, 63% of the learners for whom English is a HL stated that they did not experience problems when writing examinations in English. The results were statistically significant and showed the following:

The relationship between form / grade and the learners' opinion about their English proficiency during written examinations was statistically highly significant ($p = 0.007$),

with a small effect size (0.06). This shows that there was a small association between form and the learners' opinions: that more F 4 learners (76%) than F 5 learners (70%) **sometimes** experienced problems when answering examinations in English. The results suggest that CS was more likely to occur in the F 4 than in the F 5 classes. The relationship between gender and the learners' views was also statistically significant (p = 0.02) with no effect size, showing that there was a medium association between gender and the learners' opinions; that is, more girls than boys **sometimes** had problems writing examinations in English. The results suggest that girls were more likely to experience problems when writing examinations in English than boys.

The results of the relationship between HL and learners' opinion about the effect on writing examinations in English were statistically highly significant (p = 0.0003) with a small effect size (0.08): more learners for whom Setswana, Ikalanga and other indigenous languages were HLs were more likely to experience problems writing examinations in English than the learners for whom English was a HL. The results suggest that even though English was taught in schools and was also the LoLT in all subjects except Setswana, the majority of the learners still experienced problems with it. They have not yet fully acquired competence in understanding and writing in English. The results were consistent with the researcher's expectations regarding proficiency in English among learners whose HL was not English.

The results also indicated that the effect of school location, academic ability, and fluency in speaking English on the learners' views about the effect of writing examinations in English were not that significant: the majority of the learners, irrespective of school location, stated that they experienced problems when writing examinations in English (S 1: 64%; S 2: 74%; S 3: 74%; and S 4: 82%). The results suggest that the majority of the learners, regardless of the location of their schools, had not fully acquired proficiency in English. Although statistically the results appeared highly significant (p = <.0001), the effect size of 0.11 showed that the high significance was largely due to the large sample size. Therefore, there was only a small association between the results and reality. Similarly, although the majority of the LA (82%), MA (78%), and HA (60%) learners stated that they sometimes experienced problems when writing examinations in English, the results were statistically highly significant (p = <.0001) in that more LA and MA than HA learners

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stated that they experienced problems when writing examinations in English. However, like the results above, the high significance is due to the sample size as indicated by a small effect size of 0.14. The same opinion was expressed by both the fluent and the non-fluent learners in English (57%, and 81% respectively). The difference in their opinions was also highly significant ($p = <.0001$) with a medium to large effect size of 0.26, showing that the results were not strongly influenced by sample size: there was a strong association between learners' opinions and that they experienced problems when writing examinations in English. The results suggest that the LA and MA learners as well as the non-fluent learners were likely to experience problems when writing examinations in English.

Table 6.3: Learners' evaluation of teachers' English proficiency in class (Q5 ii)

	VW		W		NW		Total		M Frq
Proficiency in English	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. Writes in English	1807	77	494	21	34	2	2335	100	32
2. Reads English	1826	78	448	19	53	2	2327	100	40
3. Speaks English when explaining concepts in class	1452	62	762	33	123	5	2337	100	30

The results in Table 6.3 above show that almost all the learners had positive views about the teachers' proficiency in English. However, there were more learners who said that teachers wrote and read very well in English than those who said that they expressed themselves very well in spoken English (98% and 97% vs. 95%). The results imply that the teachers were highly proficient in English. However, their spoken English was not as good as their writing or reading skills. The same observation was made by the teachers about the learners' proficiency in spoken English (cf. Table 5.1). Therefore, the results may have an effect on CS in the classroom.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The results indicate that the majority of the learners, irrespective of school location, home language, form / grade, academic ability, fluency in speaking English, and gender considered their teachers to be proficient in English. The results were significant. However, more learners at peri-urban schools were satisfied with the

teachers' writing and reading proficiency than those at urban schools (writing: 82% and 80% vs. 72% and 76%; reading: 81% and 83% vs. 74% and 78% respectively). However, their views about the teachers' fluency in spoken English were similar at all four the schools (S 1 and S 2: 61% at each; and S 3: 60% and S 4: 67%). The results have a significant effect on CS as CS is a mode of oral communication. The differences in the learners' responses to the teachers' explanation of concepts in English were also statistically significant ($p = 0.02$), with no effect size. The results suggest that learners at both urban and peri-urban schools were of the view that, although their teachers had acquired overall competence in all four the domains of English, they were not as proficient in speaking as they were in the three other domains of the English language. The results suggest that teachers were likely to CS in class.

The learners' views (by HL) were similar to those expressed above: More learners considered their teachers to be more proficient in English writing and reading than in speaking. This was more evident from the learners whose HL was either English or who had more than one HL (56% and 55% respectively) as opposed to 61%; 65%; and 65% for Setswana, Ikalanga and 'Others', in that order. The results on the teachers' spoken English were not statistically significant, but results on the learners' views about teachers' writing proficiency in English were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$). The results were as follows: The number of learners for whom English is a HL and who considered teachers to be proficient in writing was not as high as for learners of other HLs (67% for English vs. 75% for Setswana; 81% for Ikalanga; 77% for 'Others'; and 73% for learners with more than one language). This suggests that learners in the former category, as speakers of English as a HL, were likely to feel that the proficiency of their teachers in English was not as good as theirs, as the latter were mainly speakers of English (teachers) as a second or a foreign language. The results had a small effect size (0.06).

The effect of form / grade on the learners' views about their teachers' writing and speaking was not that significant, but its effect on learners' views about their teachers' reading skills was significant. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.008$), showing that slightly more F 4s (80%) than F 5s (77%) were of the view that their teachers were fluent readers in English. However, the results had a small effect size (0.06). Academic ability also had a significant effect on the learners' views on

their teachers' proficiency in writing and reading in English: more LA and MA than HA learners stated that their teachers were very proficient in writing and reading (80%, 81% and 82%; 81% respectively vs. 70% and 72%). The results show that there was no significant difference in the views of the LA and MA learners, but there was a difference in views between them and the HA learners. The differences in the learners' responses to the teachers' writing and reading were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$). However, the small effect size of 0.08 in both cases indicated that the high statistical significance of the results was strongly influenced by the large sample size. Therefore, there was only a small association between the results and reality. In addition, the effect of academic ability on the learners' views on their teachers' speaking proficiency when explaining concepts was significant: Almost the same proportion of LA and MA learners (64% and 65% respectively) stated that the teachers were fluent in spoken English, but slightly fewer HA learners (57%) held the same view. The results were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$), showing that more MA and LA learners than the HA learners were of the view that their teachers explain concepts very well in English. The results had no effect size.

The learners' rate of fluency in speaking English also had an effect on their views on their teachers' competence in English. More of the fluent learners and more of the non-fluent learners were more satisfied with their teachers' writing and reading proficiency than with the teachers' proficiency in spoken English (79%, 77% and 79%, 78% vs. 64%, and 61%). The results on the teachers' writing and reading proficiency were not significant but the results on their proficiency in speaking showed a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.08$), with no effect size. The results suggest that teachers were not as proficient in speaking in English as they were in writing and reading, and were therefore likely to CS in class. Similarly, the majority of both the male and female learners stated that their teachers' speaking of English (61: 64) was not as good as their writing (77: 79) and reading (79: 79) in English. The results suggest that both boys and girls were satisfied with their teachers' proficiency in English. Hence there was no significant difference in the learners' views in respect of the three domains of language competence. Therefore, there was no statistical relationship between gender and the learners' views.

The results suggest that the majority of the learners, irrespective of all six the independent variables discussed above, considered their teachers to be proficient in

English, but their proficiency was more evident in writing and reading than in speaking. The results have a significant impact on CS in the classroom, suggesting that teachers are likely to CS during their lessons.

Table 6.4: Learners' attitude towards use of CS in class by the teachers (RQ 5 i)

Are you bothered by:	Very much		A little		Not at all		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Teachers' CS to Setswana in a non-Setswana class?	521	23	842	38	874	39	2237	100	130
2. Teachers' CS to English in a Setswana class?	800	36	670	30	755	34	2225	100	142
3. Teachers' CS to a local language in class?	607	27	688	31	939	42	2234	100	133

The results in Table 6.4 above show that there were more learners who had positive views on CS in class than those who were opposed to it. However, more learners seemed to object CS to English in a Setswana class than CS to either Setswana or a local language. The results suggest that learners did not see the justification for CS in a Setswana class since the LoLT was comprehensible to all the learners taking Setswana lessons. The results also suggest that learners viewed CS as a communication strategy used where the LoLT, such as English, was not effective.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results showed that all the independent variables (school location, gender, ability, form / grade, fluency in speaking English, and HL) had an effect on the learners' responses to the dependent variables contained in Table 6.4 above. However, the effect of form / grade and HL had no significant effect on the learners' views about CS to Setswana. In addition, the former (form / grade) had no significant effect on the learners' views about CS to a local language whilst the latter (HL) had no significant effect on the learners' views about CS to English in a Setswana class. In this regard, the aforementioned results were not statistically significant. Other independent variables (school location, gender, academic ability and fluency in speaking English) had a significant effect on the learners' views about CS to Setswana; to English in a

Setswana class; and to a local language. The aforementioned results were statistically significant.

For instance, whilst CS to Setswana was not a problematic issue at S 1 and S 2 (urban schools), it was somehow an issue at S 3 and S 4 (peri-urban schools). At the former, 47% and 40% of the learners were not at all bothered by the practice, but at the latter – the peri-urban schools -- 39% at each school were somehow bothered. The results suggest that Setswana as the HL for the majority of the learners at urban schools (S 1: 53%; S 2: 49%) was more acceptable in the classroom than at peri-urban schools where Ikalanga was the HL of the majority of the learners (S 3: 53%; S 4: 74%). Whilst the learners at the two urban schools did not object to teachers CS to English, those at the two peri-urban schools objected (S 1: 40%; S 2: 36% vs. S 3: 42%; S 4: 44%). The results suggest that CS to English was more likely to occur during Setswana classes at urban schools than at peri-urban schools). Only learners at one peri-urban school (S 4) were concerned about the teachers' CS to a local language as indicated by 48% of the learners, but at the other three schools (S 1: 48%; S 2; 44%; and S 3: 41%) CS to a local language was not a problematic issue. The results were unexpected in that learners at the two urban schools were expected to be opposed to CS to a local language, and those at S 3 (peri-urban school) to be in support of it as well as those at S 4 (peri-urban school), as the majority of the learners at S 1 and S 2 spoke Setswana as a HL, but the majority of the learners at S 3 and S 4 spoke a local language (Ikalanga) as HL, as stated above. The above results were all statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$). However, the effect size of 0.11 (for CS to Setswana), 0.13 (for CS to English) and 0.09 (for CS to a local language) shows that the high significance was strongly influenced by the large sample size. In reality, therefore, there was a small association between the learners' views about CS in all three the scenarios.

The results also show that both boys and girls were not bothered by CS to Setswana. However, more boys than girls were not bothered by the practice (42% vs. 37%). The results suggest that boys were more likely to CS to Setswana than girls, as observed earlier by teachers that boys CS more than girls (cf. Table 5.6). Whilst girls said they were very much bothered by the teachers' CS to English in a Setswana class, almost the same proportion of boys said that they were not (37% vs. 38%). Both boys and

girls did not support CS to a local language (46%; 39%). The results suggest that more boys than girls were likely to CS to either English or Setswana, and that both groups of learners were less likely to CS to a local language. The results above were also statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$). However, the small effect size of 0.08 for CS to Setswana, and 0.07 for CS to English or to a local language showed that the sample size influenced the significance of the results.

The results of the effect of academic ability on the learners' views on CS were significant: the majority of HA learners were not bothered by the teachers' CS; be it to Setswana (47%); or to English (43%); or to a local language (54%). The results suggest that HA learners were indifferent to CS use; and were of the opinion that CS did not have any bearing on their learning. More MA learners were not bothered by CS to Setswana or to a local language (38%, and 39% respectively), but had strong objections to CS to English as 40% of them indicated. This suggests that MA learners did not see the need for the teacher to CS to English since the majority of the learners were not proficient in it. LA learners strongly objected to CS to English or to a local language as indicated by 42% and 35% respectively; but not so much by CS to Setswana (42%; 35%; vs. 43%). The results suggest that LA learners only viewed CS to Setswana as educationally beneficial, but found CS to English in a Setswana class unnecessary, and CS to a local language unacceptable as none of the local languages was used in education except Setswana. The differences in the learners' views on CS in all three the cases were highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), with a small effect size of 0.09, 0.12 and 0.13 in each case.

The views of both the fluent and the non-fluent learners were similar on the teachers' CS to Setswana and to a local language, but they differed from one another about the teachers' CS to English in a Setswana class. In the former (teachers' CS to Setswana and to a local language), 39% of both the fluent and the non-fluent learners stated that they had no objection, but in the latter (teachers' CS to English), 42% of the fluent learners stated that they did not object but 39% of the non-fluent said they had strong objections. The results were not unexpected in that the learners who were less fluent in English were expected to welcome CS to Setswana or to a local language. The results suggest that fluent learners were indifferent to CS, and did not consider its use to have any effect on their learning. However, the non-fluent learners found CS to Setswana or

to a local language educationally beneficial. Therefore, they were more likely to CS either to Setswana or to a local language in class than the fluent learners. Statistically, the relationship between fluency in speaking English and the learners' views on their teachers' CS in a non-Setswana class, and CS to English in a Setswana class was highly significant ($p = 0.009$) and ($p = < 0.0001$) respectively. However, the small effect size of 0.06 and 0.11 respectively showed that the large sample size strongly influenced the results. Furthermore, the relationship between learners' fluency in speaking English and their teachers' CS to a local language had a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.07$), with no effect size. This indicates that there was no association between the learners' responses and reality.

The results also showed that the views of both the F 4 and F 5 learners were similar: almost the same number of each said that they did not object to CS to Setswana (40%; 38%), and the same number of each group also did not object to CS to a local language (42%). However, their views differed on CS to English, as 36% of the F 4s had no objection but 37% of the F 5s had strong objections. The former results were not significant, but the latter were significant. The F 5 learners, as the most senior learners who were about to complete their high school education, were expected to be more fluent in English than their junior counterparts (F 4s) and to be opposed to CS. The results suggest that the F 5 learners viewed CS from English to Setswana or even to a local language as a strategy used to address the difficulties encountered in communication as a result of the learners' lack of proficiency in English. Their objection to CS to English suggests that they found the use of English unnecessary as all the learners in a Setswana class had some degree of competence in Setswana. However, this may not be the case as, on the one hand, a significant number of the learners (57.68%) did not have Setswana as a HL, suggesting that their competence in Setswana may not be that good. On the other hand, the F 4 learners found CS educationally beneficial, hence their general support of it. The effect of form / grade on the learners' views about CS to English in a Setswana class was statistically significant ($p = 0.03$), with no effect size.

Although HL appeared to have an influence on the learners' views on CS in class, the results of the learners' views on CS to Setswana or to English were not significant, and consequently had no statistical significance. However, the learners' views about CS to

a local language were significant, hence the results had a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.08$), with no effect size: Almost the same number of the learners with differentHLs (Setswana: 44%; Ikalanga: 40%; 'Others': 45%; and learners with more than one HL: 45%) had no objection to CS to a local language, except the learners for whom English was a HL (53%) who stated they were a little bothered by the practice. The results suggest that CS was generally accepted in the classroom, irrespective of the learners' HL, as there were more learners who did not object to it, including learners for whom HL was English who partially objected to it. The results above show that there was no strong objection to CS, irrespective of the learners' gender, academic ability, HL, fluency in speaking English, the form / grade, and the location of their school (urban or peri-urban).

The learners were further asked, according to gender, about their views on the teachers' language use in class. Their responses were as follows:

Table 6.5: Learners' views on teachers' language use in class by gender (RQ 5 ii)

	Male		Female		Both (M&F)		Total		M Frq
Language use	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Use Setswana in a non-Setswana class.	537	25	457	21	1162	54	2156	100	211
2. Use English in a Setswana Class.	487	25	634	32	842	43	1963	100	404
3. Express themselves well in spoken English.	628	29	352	16	1171	54	2152	100	215

The results in Table 6.5 above show that learners generally agreed that teachers, irrespective of gender, CS to Setswana in the lessons of the subjects taught in English (54%); CS to English during Setswana lessons (43%); and express themselves well in spoken English (54%). However, looking at the two groups individually, more male teachers than the female teachers CS to Setswana; yet more male teachers than their female counterparts express themselves well in spoken English. During Setswana classes, more female teachers than the male teachers CS to English. The results also showed that there was more CS to Setswana than to English.

The results suggest the following: the male teachers do not CS to Setswana due to a lack of fluency in English, but it could be so in the case of the female teachers. CS to

Setswana is more likely to occur during the lessons taught by the male teachers, and CS to English is more likely to occur during the lessons taught by the female teachers; so CS occurs in the classroom, irrespective of the LoLT used (English or Setswana); and both the male and female teachers use it. It should however, be noted that out of the 25 teachers of Setswana, only three were male. Furthermore, CS was more likely to occur during the lessons of subjects taught in English than during Setswana lessons.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The majority of the learners, irrespective of gender, school location, form / grade, academic ability, and fluency in speaking English, were of the view that both the male and female teachers CS to Setswana in a class taught in English; and that Setswana teachers (both male and female) CS to English in class. The results also show that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of gender, were fluent in English. The results suggest that CS is prevalent in the classroom irrespective of the teacher's gender, but that the teachers' CS to Setswana does not imply a lack of proficiency in English as Setswana teachers also CS to English. CS is an attempt to facilitate communication in the classroom.

The results also showed that the following independent variables had a significant effect on the learners' views about the dependent variables stated in Table 6.5 above. Hence the results were statistically significant: Form / grade had a significant effect on the learners' views about the teachers' CS to Setswana in a lesson taught in 'English'. Both the F 4 (56%) and F 5 (52%) learners stated that their teachers CS to Setswana in class. This suggests that teachers CS to Setswana regardless of the level of class they teach. The results showed a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.08$), with no effect size. Although both boys and girls said their teachers CS to English during Setswana lessons, more girls (46%) than boys (39%) stated that Setswana teachers, regardless of gender, CS from Setswana to English in class. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.008$). However, the small effect size (0.07) shows that there is very little association between the learners' opinions and the view that Setswana teachers CS to English during the lesson, and that the high significance of the results was mainly due to the large sample size.

The statistical test results showed that the relationship between school location and the learners' views about Setswana teachers' CS to English in class was statistically significant ($p = 0.01$): almost the same proportion of learners at each school were of the view that both the male and female teachers of Setswana CS to English in class (S 1: 54%; S 2: 56%; S 3: 54%; S 4: 50%). The results suggest that CS to English was common in schools regardless of their location. A small effect size (0.12) showed that there was a less notable association between the learners' views and the view expressed above. In addition, both the Form F 4s (46%) and the F 5s (40%) stated that their teachers CS to Setswana in class. The results on the learners' views about the teachers' CS to English were statistically significant ($p = 0.02$); with a small effect size (0.06).

Furthermore, almost the same number of learners with different academic abilities (LA: 46%, MA: 41%, HA: 43%) agreed that Setswana teachers CS to English in class, and the results were statistically significant *($p = 0.04$)*; with no effect size. This suggests that Setswana teachers use similar forms of delivering lessons across the classes of different ability levels. This is based on the fact that 92% of the teachers teach at F 4 and F 5 levels. This observation is interesting given that during the lessons of subjects taught in 'English', CS is used to overcome the communication barrier caused by the learners' lack of fluency in English; but in a Setswana class, it appears that the motive is different. This observation will be discussed further in Chapter Seven when the qualitative results of the study are discussed. The results also showed that Setswana teachers, irrespective of gender, CS to English, as learners with different HLs stated: Setswana (42%), Ikalanga (43%), English (53%), 'Others' (45%) as well as learners with more than one HL (45%). The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.003$), with a small effect size (0.06).

Furthermore, the results on the effect of gender, school location, form / grade, academic ability, fluency in speaking English, and HL on the learners' views on the teachers' fluency in spoken English were significant: Slightly more girls than boys said both the male and female teachers were fluent in spoken English (58% vs. 50%). Almost the same proportion of learners at each of the four schools said teachers were fluent in spoken English, irrespective of gender (S 1: 50%; S 2: 55%; S 3: 56%; S 4: 58%). Slightly more F4s than F5s said both the male and female teachers were fluent

in spoken English (F 4: 58%, F 5: 50%). Almost the same proportion of learners (LA: 58%; MA: 51%; and HA: 56%) held the same view that teachers, regardless of their gender, were fluent in spoken English. Slightly more of the non-fluent learners than the fluent learners stated that both the male and female teachers were fluent in spoken English (57% vs. 50%). Although learners, irrespective of HL, stated that teachers were fluent in spoken English, the number of the learners whose HL is English who held the same view was slightly lower than the numbers of learners of other home languages (English: 47% vs. Setswana: 50%; Ikalanga: 57%; 'Others': 56%; and the learners with more than one HL: 58%).

The results above suggest that teachers at both urban and peri-urban schools, both male and female, teaching both F 4 and F 5 classes of learners with different home languages, fluent and non-fluent in English, and with different academic abilities, were fluent in English. The results on the effect of gender, school location and academic ability were highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), as well as form / grade ($p = 0.0004$). The results suggested that the relationship between the above said independent variables and the view that teachers were fluent in spoken English was of high significance. However, a small effect sizes ranging from 0.07-0.09 showed that the large sample size strongly influenced the results. Similarly, the effect of fluency in spoken English and HL on the learners' views were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$) and ($p = 0.03$) each with a small effect size of 0.06 also showing a strong influence of the sample size.

The results of the influence of gender, school location, academic ability, fluency in speaking English and HL on the learners' views about teachers' CS to Setswana during the lessons of subjects taught in 'English' were not statistically significant. The results of the effect of fluency in speaking English on the learners' views on CS to English also had no statistical significance.

Table 6.6: Learners' views on teachers' language use in class (by subject) (RQ 5 ii)

	English		Setswana		Both (E and S)		History		HE		Biology	
Language use	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
1. Mix languages when speaking in class	146	6	58	3	1116	47	119	48	36	25	981	41
2. Use Setswana in a non-Setswana class	836	35	*	*	*	*	67	27	34	24	953	40
3. Express them well in spoken English	452	19	12	0.51	815	34	120	49	38	27	875	37
4. Express them well in spoken Setswana.	12	0.51	630	27	1176	50	38	15	15	11	322	14

NB: * Not applicable

The results in Table 6.6 above show that the majority of the learners were of the view that the History teachers and the language teachers (English and Setswana) CS more than the teachers of the other subjects. However, looking at the subjects individually, the least CS occurs in a Setswana class (3%) and in the English class (6%). Regarding CS in an English class, it may occur from time to time due to the proficiency problem that both the teachers and learners confirmed the latter (learners) have with English (cf. Tables 5.1 and 6.1); but its occurrence was not as frequent as in the other subjects taught in English.

With respect to spoken English, the majority of the learners (49%) said History teachers were the most fluent; while the least were the Setswana teachers at 0.51%. The observation made regarding Setswana teachers is expected given that these teachers mainly teach in Setswana and are expected also to use Setswana as the LoLT. However, the observation made regarding English teachers' proficiency in English suggests that their level of competence in English varied from teacher to teacher. With respect to spoken Setswana, the majority of the learners (50%) said the language teachers were fluent, especially Setswana teachers. This is not unexpected, given that Setswana teachers are expected to be fluent in Setswana, and that the majority of the teachers considered themselves to be proficient in it as the national language (cf. Table 4.6 in Chapter Four). The results suggest that CS occurs across all the subjects; but

that it occurs less during Setswana lessons. While it occurs during English lessons, it is not at the same rate as it is in the lessons of the content subjects. The results also indicate that the History teachers are the most proficient in English; and that the language teachers are the most proficient in Setswana (mainly Setswana teachers).

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results showed that the majority of the learners, irrespective of form / grade, academic ability, school location, gender, fluency in speaking English, and HL, shared the view that the language teachers (English and Setswana) were fluent in the respective subjects they teach; that the History teachers were the most fluent in English, followed by English teachers; that teachers of subjects taught in 'English' CS in class, but Biology teachers CS to Setswana the most. All the aforementioned independent variables, except gender, had a significant effect on some of the dependent variables. Only academic ability had a significant effect on the learners' views about teachers' CS to Setswana during lessons of subjects taught in 'English'. The results showed that the LA and the MA learners said Biology teachers CS more to Setswana than the other teachers; but the HA learners said it was the English teachers who CS more -- LA (41%) and MA (41%) vs. HA (41%). The results suggest that HA learners did not expect the teachers of language subjects to CS in class by virtue of the mandate bestowed upon them to promote fluency in the respective languages they teach. The differences in the learners' views were statistically highly significant $(p = 0.0003)$, with a small effect size of 0.06.

Academic ability and fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on the learners' views about the History teachers' fluency in English. More LA learners than the MA and HA learners considered the History teachers to be more fluent than other teachers (76% vs. 53%; and 57% respectively). The differences in the learners' views about the History teachers' fluency in English were statistically highly significant $(p = 0.0005)$, with an effect size of 0.24. The results show that there was *medium* of association between the learners' opinion and the view that the History teachers were the most fluent in spoken English. The results suggest that the History teachers' CS was not due to a lack of fluency in spoken English. Academic ability had no significant effect on the learners' views about English (Land L) teachers' fluency in

English as the differences in the learners' views were not significant (LA: 53%, MA: 52%, HA: 57%). Consequently, the results had no statistical significance.

Fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on the learners' views about the History and the English (L and L) teachers' fluency in spoken English. Both the fluent and the non-fluent learners (61% and 43% respectively) stated that the History teachers were the most fluent in spoken English followed by the English (L and L) teachers (59% and 52% respectively). Both results had statistical significance. The statistical results for the former was $p = 0.01$, with no effect size. The results for the latter were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.006$), with a small effect size of 0.07. Similarly, HL had a significant effect on the learners' views about the English (L and L) teachers' fluency in spoken English. The results were as follows: Setswana: 41%; Ikalanga: 31%; English: 50%; Others: 39%; and more than one language: 37%. The results suggest that the English (L and L) teachers were not as fluent in spoken English as they were expected to be. The differences in the learners' views were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.004$), with a small effect size of 0.06.

The results also showed that form / grade, academic ability, school location, fluency in speaking English and HL had a significant effect on the learners' views on the teachers' fluency in spoken Setswana. The majority of the learners, irrespective of all the above independent variables, considered Setswana teachers the most fluent in spoken Setswana: F 4 and F 5 learners (81% of each), LA: 75%, MA: 77% and HA: 78%), at both urban and peri-urban schools (S 1: 72%; S 2: 78%; S 3: 80%; and S 4: 77%), the fluent and the non-fluent learners (54% and 47% respectively), and learners with different HLs (Setswana: 75%; Ikalanga: 48%; English: 56%; 'Others': 56%; and those with more than one HL: 52%). The results were statistically significant, showing that the relationship between the aforementioned independent variables and the learners' views on Setswana teachers' proficiency was of varied statistical significance: Form / grade ($p = 0.09$) and Fluency in speaking English ($p = 0.06$) – the results showed that there was significant tendency of relationship between these variables and the learners' views. The former had no effect size; the latter had a small effect size (0.06). Academic ability ($p = 0.002$) and school location ($p = 0.002$) – the results were statistically highly significant. Both results had a small effect size (0.07 and (0.08) respectively. HL ($p = 0.04$) -- the results were statistically significant

without an effect size. The results suggest that Setswana teachers' fluency in spoken Setswana was unquestionable, therefore their CS to English in class was not due to a lack of proficiency in Setswana. The results are significant and they will be further discussed in Chapters Seven and Eight. Other results had no statistical significance.

6.4 LEARNERS' VIEWS ON THE EFFECT OF CS ON THE LIEP OF BOTSWANA

Table 6.7: Learners' views on the revision of the LiEP (RQ 5 iii)

LoLT	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Setswana should be used for T and L in primary schools.	1737	83	240	11	118	6	2095	100	272
2. Setswana should be used with English from primary to university levels.	1281	61	473	22	350	17	2104	100	263
3. Other local languages should be used for T and L.	722	35	1170	56	190	9	2082	100	285

The results in Table 6.7 above show that the majority of the learners had positive views about the use of Setswana in education: they supported that it be used for teaching and learning at all the levels of education alongside English; an even higher majority supported its specific use at primary schools. However, they disapproved of the use of other local languages in T and L (61%, 83% vs. 56%). The results suggest that the majority of the learners are likely to CS to Setswana, but they are less likely to CS to other local languages.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The majority of the learners, irrespective of school location, gender, HL, ability, form / grade, and fluency in speaking English, agreed that Setswana should be used for T and L at primary schools; and that it should also be used alongside English at all the levels of education. However, they disagreed with the view that other local languages should also be used for T and L. The results suggest that learners recognized the importance of Setswana in education especially at the lower levels. The results of the dependent variables were not tested for statistical significance because they only had

an implicit relevance to the main subject of the study, viz. the role of CS in teaching and learning.

Table 6.8: Learners' views on relationship between CS and English proficiency (RQ 3)

CS vs. English proficiency	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. Teachers' CS to Setswana **may be due to** inability to express oneself well in English.	869	41	762	36	495	23	2126	100	241
2. Learners' CS **may be due to** inability to express oneself well in English.	1316	63	403	19	374	18	2093	100	274

The results in Table 6.8 above show that there were more learners who were of the view that the teachers' and learners' CS to Setswana in a class taught in English was due to a lack of fluency in English. The opinion on the learners' CS was very clear -- that learners CS to overcome a language problem -- but it was not so clear regarding the use of CS by the teachers. There was an insignificant difference between those who said that the teachers CS because they could not express themselves well in English and those who did not think so (41% vs. 36%). In addition, 23% of the learners were not sure why the teachers CS to Setswana in class. Earlier (cf. Table 6.3 above) nearly all the learners said the teachers were fluent in spoken English (95%). This suggests that the former refers to the teachers' BICS and the latter refers to the teachers' CALP.

The results suggest that some teachers were not proficient in spoken English, hence their CS in class, even though the majority CS mainly to assist the learners to understand the lesson. The results also suggest that because learners could not express themselves well in English, they CS to Setswana to overcome the language problem.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The majority of the learners, irrespective of form / grade, fluency in speaking English, HL, gender, academic ability, and school location shared the view that the teachers' and learners' CS was due to a lack of fluency in English. However, the number of the learners who said so about the teachers was not as high as the number in the learners' case. Form / grade, academic ability and fluency in speaking English had a significant

effect on the learners' views on the dependent variables contained in Table 6.8 above, but gender, school location and HL did not.

The results of the effect of form / grade on the learners' opinion on the view that **teachers' CS** may be due to a lack of fluency in English were significant: 44% of F 5 learners agreed with this view, but the view of F 4 learners was not so clear. The number who agreed with this view was the same as that whom disagreed (38%). The results suggest that some teachers (although in the minority) were not fluent in English, hence their CS to Setswana in class. The results were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$), with no effect size. Form had no significant effect on the learners' view that **learners' CS** was due to a lack of fluency in English, and the results had no statistical significance: Both (F 4: 62%, F 5: 64%) agreed that learners' CS was due to an inability to express themselves in English. In addition, academic ability had a significant effect on the learners' views on their CS in class. More HA learners (68%) than the MA (64%) and LA (55%) learners were of the view that learners CS to Setswana because they were unable to express themselves well in English. The results suggest that learners acknowledged that they lacked competence in spoken English. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), with a small effect size of 0.07. Academic ability did not show any significant effect on the learners' opinion regarding the teachers' CS. Almost the same number of learners in all three the categories of academic ability agreed that the teachers' CS may be due to a lack of fluency in English (LA: 38%; MA: 40%; HA: 44%). The differences in the learners' views were not statistically significant.

Fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on the learners' views about the teachers' CS to Setswana; and the differences in the learners' views were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$), with a small effect size (0.06): 45% of the fluent learners agreed with this view but the views of the non-fluent learners were not clear: 36% disagreed with the view but 35% agreed. Forty-five percent of the learners did not offer their views. The results suggest that teachers CS in class. However, the low rate of learners who ascribed CS use to the teachers' lack of fluency in English suggests that generally, learners considered their teachers to be fluent in English as they had previously stated. Fluency in speaking English had no significant effect on the learners' views on their CS to Setswana. Hence the results were not statistically significant. Almost the same

number of the fluent and non-fluent learners agreed that the learners' CS was due to inability to express themselves in English (66% vs. 62%). Gender, school location, and HL had no significant effect on the learners' views, so the results were not statistically significant.

Table 6.9: Didactic consequences of CS in a non-Setswana class (RQ 4 i)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. I follow the lesson better when a teacher explains certain concepts in English.	1415	67	484	23	221	10	2120	100	247
2. We generally participate more when we are allowed to use Setswana.	1417	67	520	25	178	8	2115	100	252
3. CS in group discussions increases participation.	1548	74	352	17	187	9	2087	100	280
4. CS does not help learners to improve their English.	799	39	1011	49	264	13	2074	100	293

The results in Table 6.9 above show that the majority of the learners viewed CS use in class as positive; that CS improved the understanding of their lessons, increased group and class discussion and, above all, had no adverse effect on their acquisition of English proficiency. The latter was disputed by some learners, though fewer, namely 39%.

The results suggest that, in the learners' view, CS to Setswana had positive educational results, and that it does not have a negative impact on the acquisition of proficiency in English. However, some learners, although in the minority, viewed CS negatively from the point of view of language development. The results therefore suggest that there were more learners who were likely to CS to Setswana in class than those who were not.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The results show that the majority of the learners, irrespective of gender, school location, form / grade, academic ability, fluency in speaking English and HL (in some cases), shared the views that CS had positive effects on learning, improved the understanding of concepts, increased class and group participation; and did not

negatively affect the learners' acquisition of English proficiency. However, gender, school location, form / grade, academic ability, and HL had a significant effect on the learners' views on some of the dependent variables contained in Table 6.9 above. The results on the effect of gender showed that more girls than boys agreed that CS enhanced their participation in group discussions (F: 76%; M: 72%) as well as in class discussions (F: 69%; M: 64%). The results suggest that more girls than boys were likely to CS to Setswana in class or group discussions. The differences in learners' views on the two views above were statistically significant. The results of the former (group discussions) were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$), and the results of the latter (class discussions) were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.009$). Both results were without effect size. There was no significant difference in the learners' views on their ability to follow a lesson when a teacher code-switched (67% of both the boys and the girls agreed that CS enhances lesson comprehension) and about the effect of CS on English proficiency (M: 50%; F: 48%). Consequently, the aforementioned results had no statistical significance.

School location had a significant effect on learners' views on the effect of using CS regarding their acquisition of competence in English. Although more learners, irrespective of school location, disagreed with the view that CS negatively affected the acquisition of English proficiency, more learners in peri-urban areas than in urban areas disagreed (S 3: 55%; S 4: 50% vs. S 1: 47%; S 2: 44%). The results suggest that more learners in peri-urban than in urban schools considered CS beneficial. Therefore they were more likely to use it than learners in urban schools. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.004$), with a small effect size (0.07), showing that there was a nominal relationship between the learners' opinion and the views expressed above. The differences in the learners' views on the effect of school location on the other dependent variables had no statistical significance.

Form / grade had a significant effect on learners' views on all the dependent variables contained in Table 6.9 above, except the view that learners' participation in group discussions was enhanced by CS: more F 4s than F 5s agreed that they followed a lesson better if certain concepts were explained in Setswana, and also participated more in class if they were allowed to CS in class (69% vs. 64% and 69% vs. 64% respectively). The results suggest that more F 4 learners than F 5 learners were likely

to CS in class. Both results were respectively statistically significant ($p = 0.02$) and ($p = 0.01$), but had no effect size. In addition, more F 4s than F 5s disagreed that CS negatively affected learners' competence in English (52% vs. 45%). The differences in the learners views were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.008$), with a rather small effect size (0.06). However, the differences in the learners' views on the effect of CS on their participation in group discussions were not statistically significant.

Academic ability had a significant influence on the learners' views on the effect of CS on comprehending lessons and the explaining of certain concepts. More LA and MA learners than HA learners agreed that CS enhanced their understanding of the lessons, especially when concepts were explained (74%, 70% vs. 58%). The results suggest that more LA and MA learners than HA learners found CS educationally beneficial. Therefore, LA and MA learners were more likely to CS in class than the HA learners. There was no significant difference in the learners' views on the use of CS to enhance learner participation in group and class discussions, and that it did not negatively affect learners' acquisition of English competence (cf. Tables 6.9 d). The aforementioned results were not statistically significant.

HL had a significant effect on learners' views on the effect of CS in the classroom: the views of learners for whom English is a HL were in contrast with the views of the majority of the other learners:

- The majority of the learners (Setswana: 74%; Ikalanga: 76%; Others: 74%; and learners with more than one HL: 77%) stated that they followed the lesson better if the teacher CS to Setswana, but the learners for whom HL is English (71%) disagreed. The differences in learners' views were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.002$), with a small effect size (0.09).
- The learners whose HL is English disagreed with the view that CS increased class participation, but other learners agreed with this view (English: 53% vs. Setswana: 76%; Ikalanga: 72%; Others: 76%; and more than one HL: 69%). The differences in opinion between learners whose HL is English and those of the other learners were also statistically significant ($p = 0.02$), with a small effect size (0.07).

- The opinions of learners for whom English is the HL were also evenly divided on the benefits of the use of CS during group discussions: 50% agreed that it enhanced participation; and the other 50% disagreed). However, other learners agreed that CS increased participation during group discussions (Setswana: 83%; Ikalanga: 81%; Others: 80%; more than one HL: 80%). The results above were statistically significant ($p = 0.04$), with a small effect size (0.07).
- The learners whose HL is English also held a contrary view on the effect of CS on learners' acquisition of English proficiency, but others felt that CS did not have a negative effect on English proficiency (English: 56% vs. Setswana: 47%; Ikalanga: 50%; Others: 46%; more than one HL: 51%). However, the differences in the learners' views were not statistically significant.

The results suggest that the majority of the learners, except those learners for whom English is a HL, found CS to Setswana pedagogically beneficial. Therefore, the former (learners whose HL is either Setswana, Ikalanga, Others, and those with more than one HL were more likely to CS to Setswana in class than the latter (learners whose HL is English). The results were not unexpected in that the latter (learners for whom English is a HL) may not speak or understand Setswana.

Fluency in speaking English also had a significant effect on learners' views on the dependent variables contained in Table 6.9 above: More non-fluent learners than fluent learners agreed that it was easier for them to follow a lesson if CS was used (81% vs. 62%). They participated more in group and general class discussions if they were allowed to CS to Setswana. The results suggest that non-fluent learners (more so than the fluent learners) found CS educationally beneficial. The differences in the learners' views were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), with no effect size. Fluency in speaking English had no significant effect on the learners' views on the effect of CS on English proficiency among learners. Therefore the results had no statistical significance.

Table 6.10: Learners' views on the effect of CS use in class on non-Setswana speaking learners (RQ 4 iv)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
CS in class	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
It is improper to CS to Setswana in a class of non-Setswana speakers.	1353	65	477	23	257	12	2087	100	280

The results in Table 6.10 above show that the majority of the learners (65%) did not support the use of CS in a class that had learners who were non-Setswana speakers. The responses to this question are interesting, given that nearly all learners in the study were citizens of Botswana (99.3%) or 2 239 learners, while non-citizens accounted for only 0.67% or 15 learners. The results show that despite what the respondents (both teachers and learners) say about CS, the majority of the learners were mindful that the educational benefits they accrued from its use may not benefit their other classmates who did not fully understand Setswana.

Influence of independent variables on the dependent variables

The results showed that the majority of the teachers, irrespective of academic ability, HL, gender, form / grade, school location, and fluency in speaking English, shared the view that it was not fair for the teacher to CS to Setswana in a class in which some of the learners did not fully understand Setswana. The results of the effect of these independent variables, except academic ability, were not significant. Consequently, the differences in learners' views were not statistically significant. Academic ability had a significant effect on the learners' views on the dependent variable expressed above: more HA and MA learners than LA learners agreed that CS to Setswana should not be used in a class with learners who did not fully understand Setswana (HA: 70%, MA: 65%, vs. LA: 59%). The results suggest that HA and MA learners disapproved of teachers' CS and found it discriminatory to learners who did not fully understand Setswana, but LA learners were not as concerned as the former, suggesting that they found CS educationally beneficial. The differences in learners' views were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.006$), with a small effect size (0.06).

Table 6.11: Reasons for learners' CS use in the classroom (RQ 4 ii)

	%
1. Ask a question	42
2. Answer a question	27
3. Summarize a lesson	17
4. Discuss class tasks	32
5. All of the above	12
6. None of the above	40

NB: Excludes Setswana lessons

The results in Table 6.11 above show that the learners were allowed to CS to Setswana in class to perform different educational tasks, but in varying degrees. The most common task was to ask a question, followed by a discussion of class tasks, and to answer a question. The least performed task was a summary of the lesson. The results indicate a prevalence of CS in the classroom even though 40% of the learners said that it was not used, and only a few (12%) admitted that they were allowed to CS all the time. The results suggest that the learners were allowed to CS from time to time during a lesson, depending on the task at hand, even though not all the teachers allowed CS during their lessons.

The results also show that the teachers discouraged the learners from CS yet they themselves CS freely as indicated in Table 5.11 (cf. Chapter 5). This suggests that they believed that CS had instructional benefits but had a negative impact on language development.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results showed that the majority of the learners, irrespective of school location, gender, form, academic ability, fluency in speaking English, and HL, admitted that they were allowed to CS in class but to varying degrees. They CS mainly to ask a question, discuss class tasks, and to answer a question. All the independent variables, except HL, had a significant effect on some of the learners' responses. The results showed that there was more CS at peri-urban schools than at urban schools as more learners at the latter than at the former stated that they were not allowed to CS (S 1: 45%, S 2: 46% vs. S 3: 35%; S 4: 39%). The results were statistically highly

significant ($p = 0.0009$), but with no effect size. Furthermore, more learners at peri-urban than at urban schools stated that they were allowed to CS to:

- ask a question (S 3: 53%, S 4: 46% vs. S 1: 37%, S 4: 40%): $p = < 0.0001$;
- answer a question (S 3: 34%, S 4: 26% vs. S 1 and S2: 26%): $p = 0.01$, with a small effect size (0.07);
- discuss class tasks (S 3: 38%, S 4: 35% vs. S 1: 29%, S 2: 30%): $p = 0.0002$
  summarize a lesson (S 3 and S 4: 21% vs. S 1:11%, S 2: 18%): $p = < 0.0001$
  (very few learners in both school locations), and
- perform all class functions - although very few in both cases: (S 3: 14%, S 4: 16% vs. S 1: 8%, S 2: 16%): $p = 0.0009$.

As indicated above, the differences in learners' responses were statistically highly significant in all cases above (without effect size), except for answering a question. The results suggest that CS was more likely to occur in classes at peri-urban than at urban schools. This suggests that lack of a proficiency in English may be more of a problem among learners at peri-urban schools than at urban schools.

Gender had a significant effect on learners' responses to the views that they were allowed to CS when asking a question and discussing class tasks. More boys than girls said that they were allowed to CS when asking a question (M: 47% vs. F: 42%) and when summarizing a lesson (M: 19% vs. F: 16%) respectively. In addition, almost the same number of both boys and girls stated that they were allowed to CS for different purposes in class. The results suggest that CS was prevalent in class and that boys were more likely to CS to Setswana than girls. The results on the differences in learners' views on CS when asking a question and also when performing other class functions were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.008$ and $p = 0.001$ respectively). The former had no effect size and the latter had a small effect size (0.06). The differences in learners' views on CS when summarizing a lesson showed a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.09$).

Form / grade also had a significant effect on learners' views on CS to ask a question, and also to perform different class functions. More F 4 learners than F 5 learners stated that they were allowed to CS when asking a question (F 4: 46% vs. F 5: 42%)

and when discussing class tasks (F 4: 35% vs. F 5: 31%). The results suggest that CS was more likely to occur in F 4 classes than in F 5 classes. Both results demonstrated a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.07$ and $p = 0.09$ respectively), with no effect size.

Furthermore, fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on learners' views, hence the differences in learners' views as set out above were statistically significant: more fluent learners than the non-fluent learners stated that they were allowed to CS when asking a question (45% vs. 41%); answering a question (31% vs. 25%); and discussing class tasks (34% vs. 30%). The relationship between fluency in speaking English and CS: when asking a question had a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.09$); answering a question was statistically highly significant ($p = 0.004$); and discussing class tasks was statistically significant ($p = 0.04$). None of the results had an effect size. In addition, more F 4 than F 5 learners stated that they were allowed to CS to perform all class functions listed in Table 6.11above (42% vs. 39%). However, the number of F 4 learners who stated that they were never allowed to CS in class was very small and was the same as that of F 5 learners (12%). This suggests that CS was used at both levels, but that its functions varied. The differences in learners' views in both cases showed a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.08$ and $p = 0.07$ respectively), but without any effect size.

Academic ability had a significant effect on learners' views about CS to summarise a lesson, and to discuss class tasks. The results showed that more LA and MA learners than HA learners stated that they were allowed to CS when performing both functions (LA: 21%, MA: 18% vs. HA: 12%) and (LA: 33%, MA: 34% vs. HA: 27%). The results suggest that CS was more likely to be used during classes of LA and MA learners than in classes of HA learners. Both results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.0001$) and ($p = 0.004$), and both had no effect size.

HL had no significant effect on learners' views on any of the dependent variables. Consequently, the statistical test results showed that there was no relationship of statistical significance between HL and any of the dependent variables.

Table 6.12: Learners' views on educational benefits of CS use in a non-Setswana class (RQ 4 ii)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total (N and %)		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. I learn better when a teacher CS.	1781	84	235	11	104	5	2120	100	247
2. I participate more when I am allowed to CS to Setswana.	1086	53	674	33	283	14	2043	100	324

The results in Table 6.12 above show that the majority of the learners have positive views on CS in the classroom. They were of the view that the use of CS enhances teaching and learning; and also increases learner participation in the lessons (84% and 53% respectively). The results suggest that learners were likely to CS to Setswana in class.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

School location, form / grade, fluency in speaking English, and HL had a significant effect on learners' views that CS to Setswana enhanced learning. More learners at peri-urban than at urban schools agreed that CS enhanced learning (S 3: 87%, S 4: 86% vs. S 1: 79%, S 2: 83%). Thus CS was more likely to occur at peri-urban than at urban schools. The results were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$), with no effect size. Slightly more F 4 than F 5 learners agreed that CS enhanced learning (F 4: 86% vs. 82%), suggesting that F 4 learners were more likely to CS than F 5 learners. The results showed a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.06$), with no effect size. Slightly more non-fluent than fluent learners also agreed with the aforementioned view (90% vs. 84%). The results were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), with no effect size. Furthermore, the number of learners for whom English is a HL who agreed that CS between English and Setswana enhanced their learning, was not as high as for the learners of other home languages (English: 60% vs. Setswana: 88%, Ikalanga: 90%, 'Others': 82%, and learners with more than one HL: 90%). This suggests that the learners for whom English is a HL (who could speak and understand Setswana) did not CS as much as learners of other HLs did). The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.0006$) with a small effect size of 0.07. On the contrary, academic ability and gender had no significant effect on learners' opinions

about the aforementioned view. In this regard, the differences in learners' responses were not statistically significant.

Only HL, form / grade, academic ability, and fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on the learners' opinion on the view that CS enhanced learner participation in the lesson. The majority of learners for whom English is a HL, held a different view from the other learners of other home languages. They disagreed with the view that CS enhanced their participation in the lesson, but other learners agreed (English: 67% vs. Setswana: 61%, Ikalanga: 64%, 'Others': 52%, and learners with more than one HL: 63%). The results were expected in that, having English as their HL, which is also the LoLT, put them at an academic advantage over other learners. The differences in learners' responses were statistically significant ($p = 0.04$):

- Regarding form/ grade, more F 4 than F 5 learners agreed that CS enhanced their participation in lessons (F 4: 55% vs. F 5: 51%); the results were statistically significant ($p = 0.03$).
- Academic ability: More LA learners than MA and HA learners agreed that CS enhanced their participation in the lesson (LA: 59% vs. MA: 56%, HA: 45%). The results were also statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$).
- The views of the fluent learners were in contrast to those of non-fluent learners: the former (fluent learners) disagreed with the view that CS to Setswana enhanced their participation in the lesson, but the latter (non-fluent learners) agreed (54% vs. 69%). The results were also statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$).
- Only the results of the influence of HL on learners' views about the effect of CS on learning and on class participation, and the effect of academic ability on learners' views on class participation had a small effect size of 0.07 and 0.10 respectively. This showed that there was a small association between learners' opinions and the views expressed above.
- Other results, although statistically significant, had no effect size, showing that the views expressed above were remote from reality.
- Gender had no significant effect on learners' views regarding both views as the learners' views were almost identical. Consequently, the learners' responses were not statistically significant.

The results above suggest that learners for whom English was a HL were less likely to CS to Setswana in class than the other learners. However, more of the less fluent learners, the F 4 learners at peri-urban schools, and the LA learners were more likely to CS to Setswana in class because they found CS didactically and educationally beneficial.

Table 6.13: Learners' attitude towards CS use in a Setswana class (Didactic) (RQ4 i)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. English should not be used in a Setswana class.	890	43	878	42	308	15	2076	100	291
2. No objection to teachers' CS to English to clarify a point.	1351	65	593	28	144	7	2088	100	279
3. It's okay to answer teachers' questions in English.	283	15	1578	76	227	11	2088	100	279

The results in Table 6.13 above show that the learners' views were almost evenly split on CS in a Setswana lesson: 42% supported its use, but 43% did not. Despite this split response, the results also show that the majority of the learners (65%) supported the teachers' CS during a lesson as long as it was educationally beneficial, such as for clarification of a point, but objected to the learners' CS as 76% of them had indicated. The results suggest that in a Setswana class, the learners viewed the teacher's CS as having an educational role; and that the teachers were more likely to CS than the learners.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The majority of the learners, irrespective of academic ability, fluency in speaking English, gender, form / grade, school location, and HL, supported the teachers' CS to English, but did not support the learners' CS in a Setswana class. The results suggest that learners regarded the teacher's CS to be for a specific purpose, namely to clarify a point; but did not find it essential for learners to CS since they expressed themselves better in Setswana -- a language all learners in a Setswana lesson understood. Learners were not as supportive of CS in a Setswana lesson as they were in a lesson taught in 'English' (cf. Table 6.12). Therefore, it appears that learners associated CS with

lessons taught in English because they regarded it as a teaching strategy employed to address the learners' incompetence in English.

The following independent variables had a significant effect on learners' views about the teachers' CS to English in a Setswana class:

- Academic ability: more HA learners than MA and LA learners supported the teachers' CS to English for clarification purposes (HA: 72% vs. MA: 64%, LA: 56%). The results suggest that HA learners regarded CS to be inconsequential to their learning, but other learners (especially LA learners) were not as enthusiastic about CS in a Setswana class as they were about CS in a class taught in English. The results also suggest that LA learners find CS to Setswana more didactically beneficial than CS to English.
- Fluency in speaking English: more fluent learners than non-fluent learners did not object to the teachers' CS to English (76% vs. 66%).
- Both results (above) were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), with a small effect size of 0.13 and 0.07 respectively.
- School location: although the majority of learners at all four the schools did not object to the teachers' CS to English in a Setswana class, on average, more learners at urban than at peri-urban schools did not object (67% vs. 62%). The results suggest that CS to English seemed to be more acceptable in urban schools than in peri-urban schools. Learners at urban schools held English in high esteem because of its official status. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.004$), with a small effect size (0.06).

The small effect size in each case suggested that a large sample size influenced the significance of the results.

Academic ability and fluency in English also had a significant effect on learners' views that English should not be used in a Setswana class: slightly more LA learners than MA and HA learners were opposed to CS to English in a Setswana class (52% vs. 43% and 49%), thereby suggesting that the LA learners were also likely to be less fluent in English. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$) with a small effect size (0.14). In addition, there were more fluent learners who supported CS to

English in a Setswana class than those who did not (54% vs. 48%), and that there were more non-fluent learners who did not support CS to English than those who did so (52% vs. 46%). The results suggest that learners who considered themselves to be fluent in English were more likely to code-switch to English in a Setswana class than the less fluent learners. The results were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$) with no effect size.

Academic ability, school location, and fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on the learners' views that it was acceptable for them to CS to English when responding to a teacher's question in a Setswana lesson: more LA learners than MA and HA learners disagreed with this view (80% vs. 75% and 72%). The results on the effect of academic ability on learners' views were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.005$), with no effect size. Although the majority of the learners at all four the schools were opposed to CS when answering a teacher's question, more learners at peri-urban schools than those at urban schools were opposed to this practice (76% vs. 73%). Similarly, more non-fluent than fluent learners disagreed with this view (77% vs. 72%). The effects of school location and fluency in English on the learners' views were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$, with an effect size of 0.06 and $p = 0.02$ with no effect size respectively). The results suggest that more LA learners, not fluent in English, at peri-urban schools, were less likely to CS to English in a Setswana lesson. The results are consistent with those already expressed above, namely that generally, learners were less enthusiastic about CS to English than to Setswana. For these learners it appeared that learning was more effective if Setswana was used than if English was the LoLT. Other results had no statistical significance. In addition, gender, form / grade, and HL had no significant effect on learners' views about the dependent variables expressed above. Consequently, the differences in the learners' views were not statistically significant.

Table 6.14: Learners' views on extent of their CS use in a Setswana class (RQ 2)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. I never use English in a Setswana class.	1164	56	705	34	218	10	2087	100	280
2. Learners use Setswana only during Setswana lessons.	712	35	1125	55	226	11	2063	100	304

The results in Table 6.14 above indicate that the number of the learners who said they personally never CS during Setswana lessons was almost the same as those who said that other learners did (56% vs. 55%). The results suggest that, like in other classes taught in English, learners CS during Setswana lessons.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results demonstrated that the majority of the learners, irrespective of academic ability, form / grade, fluency in speaking English, gender, school location and HL, stated that personally, they never CS to English during a Setswana lesson, but that other learners did. Notwithstanding the above, the following independent variables had a significant effect on the view that learners never CS to English during a Setswana lesson:

- Academic ability: more LA learners than MA and HA learners stated that they did not CS to English during Setswana lessons (64% vs. 58%, 47%). The results suggest that, in a Setswana class, LA learners were less likely to CS to English, but HA learners were more likely to CS, whilst the MA learners were likely to *moderately* CS to English. The results are consistent with those stated above (cf. Table 6.13). The differences in learners' responses were statistically highly significant (($p = < 0.0001$), with a small effect size of 0.09.
- School location: more learners at peri-urban than at urban schools agreed that personally, they never CS to English in a Setswana class (S 3: 57%, S 4: 61% vs. S 1: 52%, S 2: 54%). The results suggest that CS in a Setswana class was more likely to occur at urban than at peri-urban schools. The results had a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.09$) with no effect size.
- Fluency in speaking English: more non-fluent than fluent learners stated that they never CS to English in a Setswana lesson (58% vs. 51%). The results suggest that the fluent learners were more likely to CS to English in a Setswana class than non-fluent learners. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.002$), with a small effect size of 0.07.

Furthermore, academic ability and gender had a significant effect on learners' views about language use in a Setswana class: more HA and MA learners disagreed with the view that learners use Setswana only during Setswana lessons. This implies that CS to English occurred during Setswana lessons. However, half of the LA learners agreed that there was no CS during Setswana lessons (HA: 65%, MA: 56% vs. LA: 50%). The results were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$) with a small effect size (0.15). In addition, more girls than boys disagreed with the view that learners used Setswana only during Setswana lessons (56% vs. 53%). The results suggest that there was CS during Setswana lessons. The results had a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.09$) with no effect size. The results suggest that CS occurred during Setswana lessons even though some learners attributed its use to other learners; but not to themselves.

Gender had no significant effect on learners' views pertaining to CS to English by individual learners. School location and fluency in English had no significant effect on learners' views on general CS by learners in a Setswana class. In addition, HL and Form / grade had no significant effect on the learners' views on both dependent variables contained in Table 6.14 above. Consequently, the insignificant results had no statistical significance.

Table 6.15: Learners' views on extent of teachers' CS in a Setswana class (RQ 2)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
CS in a Setswana class	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
1. My teacher sometimes CS to English.	1180	58	722	35	147	7	2049	100	318
2. The teacher sometimes allows learners to CS to English.	589	29	1262	62	194	9	2045	100	322

The results in Table 6.15 above show that in a Setswana class, teachers CS to English, but they discouraged their learners from doing the same (58% vs. 62%). The results suggest that CS during Setswana lessons seems to be the privilege of the teachers, but the same privilege was rarely extended to their learners.

<u>Influence of independent variables on learners' views about dependent variables</u>

The results showed that form / grade and fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on learners' views about teachers' CS in a Setswana class: more F 5 than F 4 learners agreed that their Setswana teachers sometimes CS to English in class (60% vs. 56%). The results indicated a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.08$). The more fluent learners than the non-fluent learners agreed that Setswana teachers sometimes CS to English in class (66% vs. 60%). The differences in the learners' views above were statistically significant ($p = 0.01$). Both results had no effect size. Form / grade had no significant effect on the view that learners were allowed to CS in a Setswana class.

Furthermore, HL, and fluency in speaking English also had a significant effect on learners' view that Setswana teachers allowed CS to English in class: the majority of the learners whose HL is Setswana (65%), Ikalanga (72%), Other (70%), and learners with more than one HL (62%) disagreed with the view that Setswana teachers allowed their learners to CS to English in class. However, 70% learners for whom English is HL agreed that Setswana teachers allowed CS. Furthermore, more non-fluent than the fluent learners disagreed with the view that Setswana teachers allowed CS in their classes (70% vs. 64%). The differences in learners' views in both cases were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.003$ and $p = 0.005$) with a small effect size of 0.10 and 0.6 respectively. The results above suggest that Setswana teachers freely CS to English in class, but actively discouraged their learners from doing the same. HL had no significant effect on learners' views about Setswana teachers' CS in class. Furthermore, academic ability, gender, and school location had no significant effect on learners' views on both dependent variables expressed above. Consequently, the differences in learners' views were not statistically significant.

Table 6.16: Learners' views on the effect of CS on the pace of teaching and learning (RQ 4 iii)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
Effect of CS on lesson pace	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**
CS use during the lesson is a waste of teaching time.	241	12	1602	78	207	10	2050	100	317

The results in Table 6.16 above indicate that the majority of the learners (78%) did not find the use of CS a waste of teaching time. Because CS did not affect the pace of the lesson, teaching and learning were not compromised. This question will be answered in detail in the next chapter by analyzing the qualitative data.

<u>Influence of independent variables on learners' views about the dependent variable stated above</u>

The majority of the learners, irrespective of school location, gender, form, fluency in speaking English, academic ability, and HL, did not view CS use as a waste of teaching time. However, only school location had a significant effect on learners' views about the impact of CS on teaching time: more learners at peri-urban than at urban schools indicated that CS had no adverse effect on the pace of the lesson and teaching time (S 3 and S 4: 80% vs. S 1: 76%, S 2: 75%). The results suggest that although CS was used in both urban and peri-urban schools it was more likely to be used in the latter than in the former; and that learners were positive about the effect of CS on teaching and learning. The differences in learners' views were statistically significant ($p = 0.02$), with no effect size. Other independent variables had no significant effect on learners' responses to the dependent variable contained in Table 6.16 above. Consequently, the results were also not statistically significant.

Table 6.17: Learners' views on their use of CS in class (by gender) (RQ 5 ii)

	Boys		Girls		Both		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. CS to Setswana in class	521	25	347	17	1189	58	2057	100	310
2. Express themselves well in English	327	16	770	37	974	47	2071	100	296

The results in Table 6.17 above show that although both boys and girls were of the view that they expressed themselves well in English, they CS to Setswana in class. However, more boys than girls CS (25 vs. 17) and more girls than boys were fluent in English (37% vs. 16). The results suggest that girls were less likely to CS than boys, and that their CS was not necessarily due to a lack of fluency in English. A similar observation was made in the previous chapter by teachers.

Influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables

The results showed more girls than boys (62% vs. 52%), more LA learners than MA and HA learners (LA: 64% vs. MA: 58%, HA: 53%) stated that learners CS to Setswana in class, regardless of their gender. The results suggest that learners, regardless of gender, CS to Setswana in class but boys were more likely to CS than girls; and CS was more likely to occur during classes of LA learners. CS was least likely to occur during classes of HA learners. The results of the effect of gender and academic ability on learners' views about their CS in class were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), with a *medium* effect size of 0.22 and ($p = < 0.004$), with a *small* effect size of 0.06 respectively. These statistical results suggest that there was a *medium* association between learners' opinion and gender, and a *small* association between learners' opinion and academic ability on the view that they CS in class, regardless of their gender.

In addition, there were more learners, regardless of HL, who stated that both boys and girls CS than those who said they did not. However, the smallest proportion was for learners for whom Setswana was a HL, followed by learners for whom English was a HL (55%, 56%). The numbers of learners whose HLs were Ikalanga, 'Others' and learners with more than one HLwere slightly higher (59%, 60%; and 65% in that order). The results suggest that learners for whom Setswana was a HL were reluctant to agree that they CS to Setswana in case they be viewed as using their HL in class, which may be seen as an indication of a lack of fluency in English. Concerning learners for whom English was a HL, the results were expected, given that their HL was the LoLT. Therefore, they were likely to be sensitive to CS to Setswana in class. The results on the effect of HL on the learners' opinion were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), with a small effect size of 0.11. Furthermore, more non-fluent than the fluent learners stated that both boys and girls CS to Setswana during lessons of subjects taught in 'English' (Non-fluent: 62% vs. Fluent: 50%). The results also showed that almost the same number of learners at both urban and peri-urban schools stated that both girls and boys CS in class (urban: 57.5% vs. peri-urban: 57%). The results on the effect of fluency in speaking English, and school location on learners' views regarding their CS in class were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$) with a small effect size of 0.12 and 0.16 respectively. The results suggest that

both boys and girls, regardless of their HL and school location, were likely to CS to Setswana in class because of the status of Setswana as a national language spoken by almost all learners (99%). However, more learners not fluent in English were likely to CS to Setswana than the learners fluent in English. Form / grade had no significant effect on learners' views on their CS in class.

Furthermore, gender, academic ability, HL, school location, fluency in speaking English, and form / grade had a significant effect on learners views on their fluency in spoken English: Although learners, regardless of gender, stated that they expressed themselves well in English (M: 46%, F: 48%), more girls considered themselves to be more fluent than boys (47% vs. 26%). More LA learners than MA and HA learners stated that both boys and girls were fluent in spoken English (LA: 53% vs. MA and HA: 45% each). Similarly, more learners, irrespective of HL stated that both boys and girls were fluent in English but that girls were more fluent than boys, except for learners for whom English was a HL, who did not see any difference in fluency between boys and girls (31%, 31%). The ratios were as follows in favour of girls: Setswana: 43: 12; Ikalanga: 31: 18; 'Others': 42: 15; and learners with more than one HL: 38: 16. In addition, more learners at S 2, S 3 and S 4 stated that both boys and girls were fluent in English, but at S1 more learners said girls were more fluent (S 2: 52%; S 3: 47%; S 4: 50%). Despite the views of learners at the first three schools expressed above, looking at each group individually, more girls at each school considered themselves to be more fluent than boys. The ratio was as follows: S 1: 47% vs. 12%; S 2: 36% vs. 12%; S 3: 32% vs. 21%; and S 4: 33% vs. 17%). The girls' views appeared to be highly subjective. Furthermore, more non-fluent learners stated that both boys and girls were fluent in spoken English but more fluent learners said girls were more fluent than boys (50% vs. 42%).

The results suggest that even though learners, irrespective of gender, CS to Setswana in class, girls' CS did not signal an inability to express themselves in English, but it was likely to be the case with boys. Therefore, the former (girls) were less likely to CS than the latter (boys). However, for learners whose HL is English, fluency for both boys and girls was rated the same. This was not unexpected, given that it was a language for both home and school.

The statistical test results showed that the differences in learners' views on the aforementioned dependent variable influenced by fluency in English, school location, and HL were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), each with a small effect size (0.09, 0.12 and 0.08, in that order). The influence of gender on learners' views was also statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$) with a *medium* effect size of 0.32. Academic ability had an influence of statistical significance on learners' views ($p = 0.02$), with a small effect size (0.08). The effect of form / grade on learners' views showed a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.07$), with no effect size.

6.5 LEARNERS' VIEWS ON THE USE OF SETSWANA AND OTHER INDIGENOUS LANGUAGES IN EDUCATION

Table 6.18: Learners' views on the teachers' use of other local languages in class (RQ 2)

	Always		Sometimes		Never		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Use other local languages in class	136	7	917	46	952	47	2005	100	362

The results in Table 6.18 above show that teachers CS to a local language in class. However, this form of CS is minimal because of the insignificant difference between the number of learners who said it occurred and those who said it did not occur (53% vs. 47%). The results suggest that this form of CS rarely occurred in class. This is not unexpected given that local languages have no official status in education.

Influence of independent variables on learners' views on dependent variables.

School location, gender, form, academic ability, and HL had a significant effect on the learners' views on the teachers' CS to a local language: the majority of the learners at peri-urban schools stated that other local languages were used in class, but those at urban schools said they were never used (S 3: 69%; S 4: 66% vs. S 1: 60%; S 2: 64%). The results suggest that teachers at peri-urban schools were more likely to CS to a local language than those at urban schools. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.001$), and the effect size (0.23), shows that there was a *medium* association

between the learners' opinion and the view that their teachers sometimes used a local language in class to ensure understanding.

Furthermore, more boys than girls stated that teachers CS to other local languages (besides Setswana) in class to ensure understanding (56% vs. 50%). However, the girls' view was evenly divided: half of them concurred with the majority of the boys; but the other half stated that CS to a local language never occurred in class. The results suggest that CS to a local language occurred from time to time in the classroom. Whilst the majority of the F 4 learners agreed that their teachers used other local languages (besides Setswana) in class to ensure understanding of the lessons, just more than half of the F 5 learners disagreed (57% vs. 52%). The results suggest that there was likely to be more CS to a local language at F 4 than at F 5 level. Both these results were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$) and ($p = 0.0006$) respectively. However, an effect size in each case (0.10 and 0.08) showed that there was a small association between the learners' opinion and the views stated above, and that the significance was largely due to a large sample.

In addition, more MA than LA learners (56% vs. 52%) held the view that other local languages were used in class, but 51% of the HA learners held an opposite view. The results suggest that teachers were unlikely to CS to local languages during classes of HA learners than during classes of MA learners and, to some extent even during classes of LA learners. Although there was a small difference between the number of learners who stated that local languages were used in class and those who said they were never used, to some extent, HL influenced the learners' views. The former (the view that local languages were used in class) was agreed to by 56% of the learners whose HL is Ikalanga; 51% of 'Others'; 53% of the learners with more than one HL, and 50% of the learners whose HL was English. However, 51% of the learners whose HL is Setswana and the other 50% of the learners whose HL is English agreed with the latter (the view that local languages were never used in class). The results suggest that the learners' local language might have been used for didactic reasons where the official LoLT was failing, and that it was likely to be used in a class where the teacher was sure that the language used was intelligible to the majority of the learners. The statistical test result ($p = 0.08$) showed that there was a tendency towards statistical significance in the relationship between the former independent variable (academic

ability) and the learners' opinion on the view expressed above. The results of the effect of HL on the learners' views were also statistically significant ($p = 0.02$). However, both results had no effect size.

Only fluency in speaking English had no significant effect on the learners' responses. Both the fluent and the non-fluent learners agreed that other local languages were used in class (50% vs. 54%). Consequently, the results were also not statistically significant.

Table 6.19: Local languages teachers use in class (RQ 2)

Languages	N	%
1. Ikalanga	837	90
2. Others	95	10
Total	**932**	**100**

The results in Table 6.19 above indicate that Ikalanga was the main local language to which CS took place. This was not unexpected, given that it was the home language for the majority of the learners (more than 46%). The other local languages were hardly used in class. The results suggest that although CS in the classroom was mainly between English and Setswana; sometimes it also involved Ikalanga, a local language of the area.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

Further analysis of the results by independent variables showed that all but school location had no significant effect on learners' views. Learners at peri-urban schools held contrasting views from learners in urban schools: the majority of those at the two peri urban schools stated that, besides Setswana, Ikalanga was the local language used in class, but the majority of the learners at the two urban schools disagreed (S 3: 71%, S 4: 61% vs. S 1: 66%, S 2: 61%). The results were consistent with the learners' population distribution by HL. There were more learners in peri-urban schools whose HL was Ikalanga than in urban schools (S 3: 58%, S 4: 74% vs. S 1: 23%, S 2: 36%). Setswana was a HL for the majority of the learners at urban than at peri-urban schools (S 1: 53%, S 2: 49% vs. S 3: 29%, S 4: 18%). Therefore, Ikalanga was more likely to

be used in peri-urban schools than in urban schools. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.0004$), with no effect size.

Furthermore, the results showed that nearly almost all learners, regardless of academic ability (LA and MA: 98% each, HA: 100%); gender (M: 98%, F: 99%); Form (F 4: 99%, F 5: 98%); and fluency in speaking English (fluent: 97%, non-fluent: 99%), agreed that Ikalanga was the main local language used in class besides Setswana. The results were not unexpected given that Ikalanga was the local language for the majority of the residents of the region in which the study was carried out. The results suggest that besides English and Setswana, Ikalanga was the main local language which could be used in the classroom. However, none of the four independent variables stated above had any influence of statistical significance on the learners' opinions on the views expressed above.

Table 6.20: Learners' negative perceptions about the use of Setswana in class (RQ 6)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. It is easier to learn new concepts in English than in Setswana.	959	45	663	31	519	24	2141	100	226
2. Setswana should only be used in Setswana classes.	1064	51	792	38	221	11	2077	100	290

The results in Table 6.20 above indicate that there were more learners who had negative perceptions about the use of Setswana in class than those who had positive perceptions. Learners found the learning of new concepts to be easier in English than in Setswana (45% vs. 31%); they did not support the use of Setswana outside Setswana lessons (51% vs. 38%). The results suggest that the learners did not support the use of Setswana as the LoLT, except during Setswana lessons. The learners' present view contradicts their earlier view (cf. Table 6.7) in which they supported the use of Setswana as the LoLT. The results therefore affirm the status of English as the LoLT, and downgrade the use of Setswana in education.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

The results showed that more learners, irrespective of school location, gender, Form, and HL, had negative perceptions about the use of Setswana in education. Therefore the results were not statistically significant.

Generally, the majority of the learners, regardless of HL, did not support the use of Setswana in education, but the learners whose HL is English (87.5%) were the most opposed to the idea of Setswana being used as the LoLT in schools. The results were not unexpected, given that such a policy would reduce the hegemony of English in education. The aforementioned results were not statistically significant. They suggest that the learners' perceptions about the use of Setswana in education are negative. They regard English as a HFFC language, and Setswana as a HFIC language in education.

However, fluency in speaking English and academic ability had a significant influence on learners' views on the dependent variables stated above (cf. Table 6.20): more fluent than the non-fluent learners agreed that it was easier to learn new concepts in English than in Setswana (53% vs. 41%), and also agreed that Setswana should be used in Setswana classes only (54% vs. 50%). The results showed that learners who were fluent in English had more regard for the use of English in education than Setswana. Therefore, they were less likely to CS to Setswana in a class taught in English, but were more likely to CS to English during a Setswana lesson. In both cases, the results were statistically significant. The former was ($p = < 0.0001$), showing that the relationship between fluency in speaking English and the learners' opinion on the effect of learning new concepts in English vs. Setswana was highly significant with a small effect size of (0.12). The latter result was ($p = 0.06$), showing that there was a tendency towards statistical significance between fluency in speaking English and the learners' opinion of using Setswana as LoLT, but there was no effect size.

Furthermore, more HA learners than MA and LA learners agreed that it was easier to learn in English than in Setswana (HA: 50% vs. MA: 45%; LA: 39%). The results suggest that HA learners were less likely to CS to Setswana, but that MA and LA learners were more likely to CS to Setswana. However, more LA than MA and HA

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learners agreed that Setswana should only be used in Setswana classes (60% vs. 51%, 45%). The results were unexpected. The LA learners were expected to support the wide use of Setswana as the LoLT. The HA learners and, to some extent, the MA learners were expected to oppose the use of Setswana as the LoLT. Both results were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.0009$ and $p = <0.0001$ respectively). However, the high significance was greatly influenced by a large sample size as the effect size was small in both cases (0.06 and 0.08 respectively).

Table 6.21: Learners' negative perceptions about the use of other local languages in class (RQ 6)

	Agree		Disagree		Not Sure		Total		M Frq
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
1. It is easier for me to learn in my own language than in English.	571	27	1194	57	319	15	2084	100	283
2. I have no problem when a teacher uses the learners' local language in class.	815	40	1060	52	183	9	2058	100	309
3. There is no need to use other local languages in class besides English.	909	44	871	42	272	13	2052	100	315
4. My teacher sometimes uses my local language in class to ensure understanding.	1079	53	829	40	145	7	2053	100	314
5. Learners participate more when they are allowed to use their own local language in class.	1004	49	737	36	300	15	2041	100	326
6. Allowing learners to use their local lang. in class does not help them improve their spoken Eng.	1365	67	468	23	218	11	2051	100	316

The results in Table 6.21 above show that, generally, learners had negative perceptions about the use of a local language in education. Their negative perceptions were as follows: they did not think that using their own local language made learning easier (57% vs. 27%); the use of a local language in class had a negative impact on acquiring fluency in English (67% vs. 23%); it was unnecessary to use local languages in class (44% vs. 42%). Consequently, they objected to the teachers' CS to a local language (52% vs. 40%).

Despite the negative views expressed above, some of the learners were of the opinion that using a local language in class had some positive effects on teaching and learning, such as increased class participation and increased understanding of lessons expressed by 49% and 53% respectively. The results suggest that some learners recognized the value of using local languages in education, even though they were in the minority, and even though it was not officially permissible to use them.

Overall, the majority of the learners shared the view that allowing the learners to use their local language in class had little or no educational value. This outcome, therefore, suggests a negative perception among the majority of the learners of the use of local languages in education. The local languages were mainly viewed as LFFC languages, as opposed to English that was undoubtedly viewed as a HFFC language.

These results above are similar to those expressed earlier in Table 6.20. In both cases, and on the one hand, Setswana and other local languages were viewed negatively as LFFC languages with a minimal or no role to play in education. On the other hand, English is positively perceived educationally as a HFFC language. Despite the negative perceptions expressed earlier about Setswana and other local languages in education, previous results indicated that CS to either Setswana or a local language occurs in the classroom. This implies that the LoLT (English) may be problematic to use in the classroom. This issue will be revisited in Chapter Eight when the responses to the research questions are discussed.

Influence of independent variables on dependent variables

All the independent variables had a significant effect on some of the learners' responses as contained in Table 6.21 above.

Gender, form / grade, academic ability, and fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on learners' opinions that it was easier for them to learn in their own language than in English: more girls than boys (60% vs. 56%) and more F5 than F4 learners (61% vs. 54%) disagreed. The results suggest that female learners in F5 were unlikely to CS to their local language in class. However, almost the same number of learners with different academic abilities (LA: 58%, MA: 57% and HA: 58%) shared

the same view as stated above. This suggests that despite the learners' differences in academic ability, the majority of them were unlikely to CS to a local language in class. In addition, the majority of the fluent learners disagreed with the view that it was easier for them to learn in their own language than in English, but the majority of the non-fluent learners agreed with this view (60% vs.53%). The results suggest that learners who were not fluent in English were more likely to support the use of their local language in class than the fluent learners.

Furthermore, the majority of the learners for whom Ikalanga is a local language agreed that they found it easier to learn in their own language than in English, but other learners whose HL was either Setswana or English or 'Others', including learners with more than one HL, disagreed (47% vs. 47%, 79%, 63%). The results are not unexpected because the use of Ikalanga in class would be more beneficial to the learners whose HL is Ikalanga than to the other learners. Furthermore, although they were some learners who understood Ikalanga, even though it was not their HL, there were other learners (30%) who did not understand it at all.

The results above were statistically significant. The relationship between gender and academic ability as independent variables, and the view that it was easier for learners to learn in their own language than in English, were statistically significant ($p = 0.03$ and $p = 0.01$ respectively). The former had no effect size, but the latter had an effect size of 0.07. On the one hand, the relationship between form / grade and fluency in speaking English, and, on the other hand, learners' views on the view stated above, were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.0003$ and $p = 0.0001$ respectively). The former had a small effect size of 0.07, but the latter had no effect size. School location and HL had no influence of statistical significance to the learners' opinions on the view stated above.

School location, gender, and HL had a significant effect on learners' opinions about the teachers' use of a local language in class. The majority of the learners at the two urban schools objected to teachers' using a local language in class, but at the two peri-urban schools there were more learners who had no objection to it than those who did object (S 1: 54%, S 2: 59% vs. S 3: 47%, S 4: 47%). The results were not unexpected as there were more learners whose HL is Ikalanga in the two peri-urban schools (S 3:58% and

S 4:74%) than there were in the two urban schools (S 1: 23% and S 2: 36%), as previously stated. The results suggest that CS to a local language was more likely to occur at the two peri-urban schools than at the two urban schools.

In addition, although both boys and girls disagreed with the view that learning was easier if a local language was used, slightly more girls than boys disagreed (F: 54% vs. M: 48%). The results suggest that boys were more likely to support the use of a local language in class than girls. Similarly, whilst more learners whose HL was either Setswana or English or 'Others', including learners with more than one HL, disagreed with this view, more learners for whom Ikalanga was a local language agreed with this view (Setswana: 51%, English: 64%, 'Others': 68% vs. Ikalanga: 49%). As previously stated, learners for whom Ikalanga was a HL would benefit didactically if a teacher were to CS to their local language. The differences in learners' views stated above were statistically highly significant (school location: $p = 0.0001$, gender: $p = 0.0003$, and HL: $p = 0.0001$). However, the high significance was due to a large sample size as small effect size was recorded for each result (0.11, 0.08 and 0.15). Academic ability, form, gender, and fluency in speaking English had no influence of statistical significance on the learners' views.

School location, gender and HL had a significant effect on learners' opinions on the view that there was no need to use other local languages in class. More learners at urban schools agreed with this view, but those at peri-urban schools disagreed (S 1: 45%, S 2: 51% vs. S 3: 46%, S 4: 45%). Furthermore, the proportion of girls who agreed with this view was the same as the number or proportion of boys who disagreed (47% vs. 47%). Whilst there were more learners, irrespective of HL, who agreed that there was no need to use a local language in class, more learners whose HL was Ikalanga were of the view that a local language should be used in class (Setswana: 51%, English: 64%, Others (including learners with more than one HL: 49% vs. Ikalanga: 48%).

The results suggest that more learners at the peri-urban schools, majority of them boys, whose HL is Ikalanga were more likely to be supportive of the use of their local languages in class alongside English. While the reason behind their views may be a lack of proficiency in English or Setswana, it could also be due to strong affinity to

their language that Bakalanga are known for in Botswana as already alluded to in Chapter One.

The results stated above were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.0008$, $p = 0.004$ and $p = < 0.0001$). However, the small effect size in each case (0.06, 0.07 and 0.15), suggested that the sample size largely influenced the significance of the results. As the previous results demonstrated, academic ability, form / grade, and fluency in speaking English did not have any significant effect on learners' views. Consequently, their results were not statistically significant.

School location, gender, academic ability, and form / grade had a significant effect on learners' views that sometimes teachers CS to a local language to ensure understanding. The majority of the learners at urban schools refuted this statement, but the majority of the learners at peri-urban schools agreed (S1: 51%, S 2: 49% vs. S 3: 66%, S 4: 64%); whilst both boys and girls agreed that sometimes teachers CS to a local language in class, more boys than girls agreed with the statement (M: 55% vs. F: 51%). Although the majority of the learners in each category of academic ability agreed with the statement above, more MA learners than HA and LA learners agreed (MA: 58%, HA: 50% and LA: 49%). The results are interesting in that, thus far, the views of MA and HA have been in contrast with the views of LA learners. Similarly, both F 4 and F 5 learners agreed that their teachers sometimes CS to a local language in class, but more F 4 than F 5 learners agreed (F 4: 57% vs. F 5: 48%). The results suggest that CS to a local language was likely to occur more at peri-urban schools than at urban schools, and that more boys than girls, learners of MA and in Form 4 classes were likely to support CS to a local language. The results also suggest that the objective of using a local language was to enhance comprehension of the content of the lessons where the LoLT may not be effective.

The differences in learners' views expressed above were statistically significant. The effect of school location, academic ability, and form / grade on learners' views that sometimes teachers CS to a local language to enhance understanding of the lesson was highly significant ($p = 0.0001$, $p = 0.0003$ and $p = 0.0005$, in that order). The *medium* effect size of 0.23 showed that there was a *medium* association between learners' responses (by school location). However, the small effect size of 0.09 and 0.08 on the

results of effect of academic ability and form / grade showed that sample size largely contributed to the high significance of the results, and that there was a small association between the results and reality. Fluency in speaking English and HL had no effect of statistical significance on learners' views.

Only school location had a significant effect on learners' views that learners' participation in class increased if they were allowed to CS to a local language. The majority of the learners at peri-urban schools agreed that CS to a local language increased class participation (S 3: 55%, S 4: 60% vs. S 1: 43%, S 2: 43%), but those at urban schools disagreed. The results were statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.0001$), with a small effect size of 0.14. All the other independent variables had no significant effect on learners' views. Hence their results were not statistically significant.

Form / grade and fluency in speaking English had a significant effect on learners' views that allowing learners to CS to a local language in class negatively affected the attainment of fluency in English. Although both the F 4 and F 5 learners agreed with this view, more F 5 than F 4 learners agreed. The results suggest that F 4 learners were not as negative about CS to a local language as the F 5 learners were. Similarly, both the fluent and the non-fluent learners agreed that allowing CS to a local language was detrimental to the acquisition of English proficiency among learners. However, more fluent learners than the non-fluent learners were opposed to this practice. The results on the effect of form / grade on learners' views were statistically highly significant ($p = 0.007$), with a small effect size of 0.06, but the differences in learners' responses (by fluency in English) indicated a tendency towards statistical significance ($p = 0.08$), with no effect size.

The results showed that more learners (boys) who were not fluent in English, were in F 4, whose HL was Ikalanga, and who were attending peri-urban schools, were more receptive to CS to a local language and were, therefore, more likely to CS than the fluent learners (girls) who were in F 5, whose HL was any of the languages in the study apart from Ikalanga, and who were attending urban schools. Academic ability was not as influential to learners' views as the other independent variables. Learners,

despite their different academic abilities, shared similar views -- they did not CS to a local language in class.

6.6 SHORT SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

According to their responses, the learners acknowledged the existence of CS in the classroom. They also acknowledged that CS did not only take place between English and Setswana, but that it was extended also to a local language, Ikalanga, although minimally so. The learners' attitude towards CS was generally positive, and they found it educationally beneficial. They did not object to CS to Setswana, but more to CS to English during Setswana lessons than to CS to a local language in any class. Furthermore, like their teachers, they were of the view that CS is used more during the lessons of content subjects than during the lessons of language subjects.

Having quantitatively analyzed and presented the results from the teachers' and the learners' responses in the previous and the present chapter respectively, and having stated what the statistics indicated, the next chapter will deal with the analysis and the presentation of the qualitative data obtained through lesson observations. The aim is to determine whether or not CS occurred during the lessons observed; to identify the nature of CS and its functions in the classroom, and its effects on teaching and learning. It is hoped that the findings from the qualitative data will corroborate the findings reached by analyzing the quantitative data.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The last three chapters were dedicated to the quantitative analysis of the data collected via questionnaires for the teachers and the learners. From the analysis, the participants' views on the role of CS in a teaching and learning situation were brought to the fore. The similarities and differences in their views were also summarized. In the present chapter, the qualitative analysis of the data collected during lesson observations will be presented. In analyzing the data collected, reference will be made to the definition of the concepts central to this study, namely CS and its different forms (intra-sentential, inter-sentential and tag-like / emblematic CS), CM, borrowing, and its associated categories -- borrowing proper and nonce borrowing. (cf. Chapter Two).

7.2 THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA FROM LESSON OBSERVATIONS

A large amount of data was collected. However, it was not practically possible to transcribe all the audio-recorded lessons (197). Instead, a random selection of 20 recorded lessons was made, and then they were transcribed verbatim. This is believed to be a fair representation of the qualitative data as it constitutes 10% of the data. As already alluded to in Chapter Three, for reasons of space, only five transcriptions representing each of the five subjects in the study are included in the study (cf. Addendum C). The rest of the data is available on audio-tapes and can be made available if necessary. It should be noted that, in the random selection of the lessons, the researcher ensured that there was representation in terms of subject, class level, gender of the teacher, and school location (urban or peri-urban). The five transcribed lessons comprise the following:

(a) A biology lesson (Transcription 1): The lesson was taught by a female teacher in an urban school, and the class level was F 4. The lesson topic was *Filtration*.

(b) A home- economics lesson: Fashion and Fabric (Transcription 2): The lesson was taught by a female teacher in a peri-urban school, and the class level was F 4. The lesson topic was *Design Elements and Principles.*

(c) A history lesson (Transcription 3): The lesson was taught by a male teacher in an urban school, and the class level was F 5. The lesson topic was *The colonization of the Cape by the Dutch.*

(d) An English language lesson (transcription 4): The lesson was taught by a male teacher in a peri-urban school; and the class level was F 5. The lesson topic was a comprehension exercise entitled *Man and Animals*. As previously explained in Chapter Three**,** the language and literature lessons in English are treated in the same way by schools, as in both cases language is the primary target. In that regard, only the transcription of the language lesson in English is included in the addendum.

(e) A Setswana lesson (Transcription 5): The lesson was taught by a male teacher in a peri-urban school, and the class level was F 5. The lesson topic was *Debate*, known in Setswana as *Ngangisano*.

All the transcribed lessons served as focal points in the analysis of the qualitative data. However, reference was also made to the other lessons not transcribed and some examples were drawn from them where necessary. The incidence of CS in the lessons was calculated by using the ratio between the absence of CS, and its presence within the sentence, used as a unit of calculation. The data was then scrutinized to determine whether it fell within the definition of CS as defined by the different scholars (cf. Chapter Two; section 2.2.1), and its role in education was examined.

The lessons were mainly characterized by the teachers' discourse and there were very few learners' discourse. The lessons were teacher-centred; that is, the teacher was the main speaker while the learners were passive participants with the occasional invitations by the teacher to respond to questions. Their responses were brief in the form of either a single word, phrase or a short sentence or even silence. At times the learners responded in a chorus, using short responses such as '**ee**' (*yes*) or **nnyaa** (*no*) followed by **mma** (*madam*) or **rra** (*sir*), depending on the gender of the teacher to

form **ee mma** or **ee rra** or their contracted forms *eemm* or *eerr* respectively (Arthur, 2001). The affirmative response implied that the learners were following what was being said or that they agreed with the teacher; while negation implied disagreement or that they were not following what was being said. Where there were learner responses, they were in most cases, barely audible. Although this was a setback, it did not adversely affect the results of the study because it provided an accurate picture of the language situation in the classroom.

The classroom observations also included a description of what visually transpired in the classroom. Owing to the absence of a video-recorder, what could not be recorded on the audio-tape was recorded in note form. The notes were used later to provide descriptions of the visible occurrences and were included in the transcriptions. These occurrences included gestures or mumblings by any of the participants. Further, as noted by Fasold (1984: 152, in Strydom, 2002: 85), 'observation' refers to the recording of people's activities by the researcher whilst watching them. It enabled the researcher to observe the conduct of the participants, and later to interpret the observations made in relation to the phenomenon being researched, namely CS.

For a more effective analysis of the recorded data, each lesson was divided into three main parts, referred to by Hymes (1974) as "act sequence" -- discourse initiation, development, and discourse closure. This was to better identify at which stage CS occurred during the discourse, or whether it occurred throughout the course of the lesson. This was based on Hymes' mnemonic of SPEAKING (Hymes, 1974), previously explained in Chapter Three (cf. Section 3.6.1 a). The application of this model allowed for the identification of CS as a speech act that occurred in a discourse that took place in a teaching and learning environment, such as the classroom, in order to establish its role within the discourse. Hence the nature and the function of CS within the discourse were important, that is, was its function semantic or pragmatic? The former refers to the educational functions of CS, and the latter to the use of CS for social or psychological reasons, as well as to manage class participation. The nature and the function of CS could be identified from the content of the speech act as well as the speaker's voice or tone. As the classroom was regarded by both the teacher and the learners as a bilingual space (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004), CS largely involved the use of two languages at the same time. The register of the language in which CS

took place was also scrutinized to establish whether it was formal or informal, standard or dialect. Since the classroom is the setting where the speech act takes place, there are certain expected norms or social rules that govern the event and the participants' actions and reactions, usually formal in nature. Therefore, the analysis sought to establish whether the expected norms were met or not.

Consequently, in applying Hymes' model, the following were taken into account: As the data were collected in a formal occasion (lesson), its language is expected to be largely formal. The teachers and the learners are the participants who should perform the role of speaker and listener in turns throughout the speech event. If CS were used in a situation such as this one (a formal learning situation), it was expected to be used to present educational material pertaining to the lesson.

7.3 PRESENTATION FORMAT OF THE ANALYZED DATA IN THE PRESENT CHAPTER

The analyzed data are presented in two main categories, namely analysis of the data from the non-language classes (content classes), and the analysis of the data from the language classes. The former are Biology, Home Economics and History. The latter are language and literature in English as well as Setswana. The reasons for the selection of these subjects in this manner have already been explained in Chapter Three (cf. Section 3.5.2).

The English translations of the CS forms are given in each case. The researcher opted to present the translations of the utterances made instead of using transliteration for easier understanding of the meanings portrayed. For easy identification of the CS forms, the data are presented as follows: In the extracts from the lessons of subjects taught in English, the CS forms that appear in Setswana are in **bold**; and the English translations in *italics*. Conversely, in the extracts from Setswana lessons, the CS forms that appear in English are in **bold**, and the English translations are in *italics*. In all instances, the non-CS utterances are in the (roman) Times New Roman font. In analyzing each lesson, first the words that it contained were counted to determine the amount of CS utterances. Mqadi (1990) used a similar method in investigating CS among students at the University of Zululand.

7.4 CS OCCURRENCE IN CONTENT SUBJECTS

The data from the classroom revealed that CS was used irrespective of the subject taught. This was established through the calculation of the incidence of CS in the lessons (cf. sections 7.4.1–7.4.3 and 7.5.1–7.5.2 below). The data revealed that even though CS was used across the different subjects, it was more prevalent in non-language subjects than in the language subjects. CS occured mainly from English to Setswana during lessons taught in 'English', more especially during Biology, Home Economics (Fashion and Fabric) and History lessons.

The number of CS utterances contained in each of the transcribed lessons for the three content subjects is summarized below. The duration for each transcribed lesson is indicated in brackets (also cf. Addendum C).

7.4.1 Transcription 1: Biology lesson

The lesson was a single period of 40 minutes' duration. In analyzing the transcription of this lesson, the following was observed:

The transcription contained 205 sentences made up of 2 700 words excluding inaudible words; 1 751 were in English, and 949 were in Setswana. The longest sentence within the text contained 44 words; out of which nine were in English while 35 were in Setswana. Consequently, the ratio between the absence of CS and its presence within this sentence was 23: 77.

7.4.2 Transcription 2: Home Economics lesson: Fashion and Fabric (F and F)

The lesson was a single period of 35 minutes' duration. In analyzing the transcription of this lesson, the following was observed:

The transcription contained 211 sentences made up of 3 195 words. Two thousand seven hundred and three (2 703) words were in English, while 495 were in Setswana (17%). There were 198 instances of CS in the text, making up 15% of the text. The longest sentence in the text contained 30 words; out of which 13 (44%) were in

English, and 17 (56%) were in Setswana. Thus the ratio between the absence of CS and its presence within the sentence was 44: 56.

7.4.3 Transcription 3: History lesson

The lesson was a single period of 35 minutes' duration. The transcription contained 194 sentences comprising 2 842 words. Two thousand seven hundred and eighty eight (2 788) of the words were in English, while 54 were in Setswana. CS instances comprised only 10% of the text. The longest sentence contained 33 words, and only 3 (9%) of them were in a form of CS. Therefore, the ratio of CS in the sentence was 9: 91.

In addition, in all the lessons transcribed, the analysis revealed that greetings (at the discourse-initiation stage) were exchanged mainly in Setswana irrespective of which LoLT was used. If the lesson was taught in English, the use of Setswana in this way fulfilled the instrumentalities function (forms and styles of the speech taking place, for example, CS). Hence CS was used pragmatically to establish a relation between the teacher and the class, as illustrated in Extracts 1, 2, and 3 below:

Extract 1: Biology lesson (greetings and lesson introduction)

The lesson was conducted by a female teacher; the level of the class was Form 4 in an urban school. The topic of the lesson was *Filtration*.

Te: **Dumelang**.
  Good morning.

C: **Ee mma**.
  Yes, madam.

Te: **A re tsweleleng bagaetsho**.
  Let's continue (no direct translation)
We were discussing excretion, specifically in relation to the nyphron, **gore**
  that

how does the nyphron perform or what is the function of the nyphron in relation to (…) formation. And remember, I told you that it is very important for you to know the structure of the nyphron. **Re a utwana**?

Do we understand each other?

In the extract above, discourse initiation, which included the exchange of greetings and the discussion of housekeeping matters, were mainly in Setswana. Here CS is used pragmatically to perform a *phatic* function. By using Setswana at the beginning of the lesson taught in "English", the teacher is establishing contact and relation with her class.

During the development stage of the lesson, CS in its different forms was used. The act sequence comprised the use of CS; and the genre was determined by which message the speaker wanted to transmit at each stage. The question **Re a utlwana**? meaning *Do we understand each other*? illustrates the pragmatic use of CS in the management of classroom discourse. These instances, together with its functions will be discussed in detail in the subsequent sections (7.6 and 7.7)

Extract 2: Home Economics (F and F): (greetings, housekeeping matters and lesson introduction)

The lesson was conducted by a female teacher; the level of the class was F 4 in a peri-urban school. The topic of the lesson was *Design elements and principles*.

Te: **Dumelang**.
   Good morning.

C: **Ee mma**.
    Yes, madam

Te: **Selang dipampiri le bule le difensetere**.
    Pick up the papers (litter) and open the windows
[LEARNERS START TO PICK UP LITTER ON THE FLOOR AND OPEN WINDOWS.]

Te: **Go siame, nnang ha hatshe**. (   ).
   It is okay, you can sit down.

[TEACHER THEN GIVES OUT HANDOUTS THAT FORM THE BASIS OF THE LESSON OF THE DAY; LEARNERS TALK AMONG THEMSELVES IN SETSWANA BUT WHAT THEY ARE SAYING IS INAUDIBLE.]

Te: **Lothe le nale** *handout*? (   )

   Do you all have …?

C: **Ee mma**.

   Yes, madam.

Te: Okay, now let's begin. Our topic today is "Design Elements and Principles"

   [CLASS LISTENS ATTENTIVELY.]

In the extract above, the discourse initiation, in the form of exchange of greetings and discussion of housekeeping matters, including the opening part of the lesson, was done entirely in Setswana. In addition, borrowing (Kamwangamalu, 2000) was used through the use of the words **dipampiri,** meaning *paper*, and **difensetere,** meaning *windows*. The two words have no original Setswana equivalents and are integrated fully into Setswana vocabulary. (The concept of reading and writing on paper was acquired from the British colonialists, and the housing design with windows was also foreign to Setswana culture). Although the latter has a Setswana equivalent **diokomela-bagwe**, literally translated to mean **those that are used to watch son-in-laws to be** (presumably when they visit discreetly), it is hardly used and, instead, it is the borrowed form (from Afrikaans) that is always used. The Setswana version occurs only in written texts as they are formal in nature.

Extract 3: History (greetings and house-keeping matters)

The lesson was conducted by a male teacher in an urban school; the level of the class was F 5. The topic of the lesson was *The colonization of the Cape by the Dutch*.

Te: **Dumelang**.

   Good day (it was midday)

C: **Ee rra**.

   Yes sir.

Te: *Cleanang blackboard*.

   Clean the blackboard

[A LEARNER VOLUNTEERS TO CLEAN THE CHALKBOARD.]

Te: **Dira ka bonako**.

   Be quick

Te: (   ) How they responded to the Portuguese attempt to colonize their kingdom; moving onto the Portuguese showing interest in the (   ) kingdom which was then under the leadership of Queen Ntsinga. And since they staged some campaigns against the colonization (   ), but in the end, the Portuguese were nevertheless able to colonize Angola. And then you know that Angola was a colony of Portugal. Now we are to look at a different story here which is the colonization of the Cape by the Dutch. To start with, maybe I could have (   ). To start with, from which country are the Dutch?

C: [SILENCE]

In Extract 3 above, discourse initiation (lines 1 and 2) was in the form of greetings exchanged entirely in Setswana, even though the period was for a subject that was taught in English. During the discussion of house-keeping matters, CM and borrowing were used (line 3) in the form of the main clause 'clean**ang** *blackboard*'. The former is made up of the English verb stem –*clean-* + –**ang** (Setswana suffix) which denotes plural. *Blackboard* is an example of borrowing proper (Kamwangamalu, 2000).The word is used in its original form and shows no sign of linguistic adaptation to Setswana because it denotes a concept foreign to Setswana culture. It has also become fully integrated into Setswana vocabulary. Alternatively **bolekeboroto** may be used, which is also an example of borrowing proper but with its origin from both English and Afrikaans (**boleke** meaning *black*, **boroto** from Afrikaans *bord*. As 'school fees', the word *blackboard* is associated with formal schooling that was acquired after the arrival of the Europeans. When the formal part of the lesson began, the teacher switched back to English, but engaged minimal CS during the development stage of the lesson. Discourse closure was in English only. Once the lesson ended, the learners immediately conversed among themselves in either Setswana or Ikalanga.

In all three the excerpts above (Extracts 1, 2, and 3), each teacher initiates the discourse in the form of greetings conducted in Setswana. In response, the learners also use Setswana. Furthermore, in excerpts two and three, each teacher uses Setswana to discuss house-keeping matters before moving onto the formal part of the lesson, which is the introduction. The data, therefore, show that teachers consider the exchange of greetings and the discussion of house-keeping matters as the informal part of the lesson, hence the use of Setswana. CS in this way is used pragmatically to perform a phatic function. In addition, Setswana is used to call the class to order before the formal part of the lesson begins.

Similarly, at discourse closure (cf. Extracts 4 and 5 below), the teachers of Biology and Home Economics respectively switch again to Setswana to wind up the lesson and dismiss the class. Likewise, the teachers used CS here pragmatically to perform a phatic function to build a relation with the learners.

Extract 4: Biology (final stage of the lesson)

Te: **Bele e ledile**?
   Has the bell rung?

C: (in chorus) **Ee mma**.
      Yes, madam.

Te: **Go siame**.
   It is okay. (Implies that the lesson has ended and the learners may leave for the next lesson.)

In the extract above, the teacher CS to Setswana at discourse closure (lines 1 and 3) and also uses borrowing proper in the form of the word **bele** (line 1), meaning *bell* (English). The latter is also a foreign concept derived from the English word *bell*. The learners taking a cue (referred to as the *key*) (Hymes, 1974) from the teacher, also respond in Setswana by using emblematic CS **ee mma** (line 2) semantically, to mark agreement.

<u>Extract 5: Home economics (F and F)</u>

Te: **E chaile**?

   Is it time up?

C: **Ee mma**.

   Yes madam.

Te: **Go siame, retla tswelela** *next time.*

   It is okay, we shall continue .…

In the extract above, the teacher closes the discourse by CS to Setswana (lines 1 and 3). In addition, borrowing is also used in the form of **chaile** with its origin in the Zulu language (later explained in section 7.8 Table 7.4) under the discussion of nonce borrowing. As in Extract 4, the learners in the History class also respond to the teacher's question in Setswana through the pragmatic use of **ee mma** (line 2) to show agreement.

In both cases, CS is used pragmatically to perform a phatic function or to signal an informal text. Therefore, Setswana seems to be the language to use when communicating social matters in the classroom. This signifies that the end of the lesson is also considered to be informal, hence the teachers' use of Setswana. The same strategy is, however, not used by the History teacher who winds up his lesson in English (cf. Transcription 3, Addendum C). In fact, this particular lesson was one of the very few among the lessons of the non-language subjects in which the minimal use of CS occurred.

In each class, the learners switched over to Setswana or Ikalanga as soon as the teacher signalled that the lesson had ended. This indicated that the use of English was viewed by the learners as limited to formal use during the course of the lesson, and that their HLs could take over as soon as the speech act had ended.

Because the teachers were aware that English was the expected language to use when delivering their lessons, they switched over to English at the beginning of the formal

part of the lesson (cf. Extracts 1and 2). However, this practice was short-lived as the teachers switched back to Setswana as the lessons progressed. During the course of the lesson, the content of the lesson was delivered in both English and Setswana. Throughout the lesson, the same style of alternating the use of English and Setswana was maintained as illustrated in Extracts 6 and 7 below:

Extract 6: Biology lesson (development stage)

Te: Yes, **ke tlhalositse hela gore** when the blood gets into the kidneys, and especially
   I explained that

around the gonerius, **e e leng gore** … that is a group of capillaries, we expect the
      which is

pressure to be a bit high; especially for the filtration of the liquid parts. **Ga ke re**?
            Isn't it?

C: [SILENCE]

Te: **Ne ka le bolelela sekai sa gore, le gakologelwe gore le wena hela hao lebelela**
the … the hosepipe **ka ha e ntseng ka teng, gore o kgone gore metsi a tswele ko nte**
ale mantsi; *you need to open the tap …*?
I gave you an example that, you should remember that when you look at … how it is made, to be able to pump a lot of water …?

C: **Thatanyana**.
 A bit more.

Te: **Thatanyana, ga ke re**?
 A bit more, isn't it?

C: **Ee**.
 Yes.

In the extract above, both the teacher and the learners are participant, taking turns in the speech event (Hymes, 1974). However, the teacher is the initiator of the discourse and the learners assume the role of the audience. CS is used semantically mainly to deliver the lesson content. The use of CS in this way also signals group identity (Akindele & Letsoela, 2001; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Flowers (2000, in Moodley, 2001; Kamwangamalu, 2000 b; Kieswetter, 1995; Nwoye (1992, in Moodley, 2001; Molosiwa, 2006; Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993a). The teacher uses a language that is common to her and her learners. The identity could either be ethnic or cultural. Within Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model (1988, in Myers-Scotton, 1993a), the use of CS in this way indicates that it is a sequential unmarked choice. The teacher CS to Setswana as the national language and is therefore understood by the majority of the learners in the class, not because she cannot express herself fluently in English. Here the purpose (ends) (Hymes, 1974) of CS is to get the learners to participate in the lesson and to ensure that learning takes place, as well. However, CS is also a marked choice (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, Kamwangamalu, 2000b) in this instance. In a Biology class, there are both citizen and non-citizen learners because it is a compulsory subject. Some of the non-citizen learners understand Setswana and others do not. In this regard, the use of Setswana in this class excludes those learners who may not fully understand Setswana from the linguistic exchange. CS as a marked choice is therefore a "double-edged sword" (Kamwangamalu, 2000). It includes and also excludes. However, the exclusion in this instance seems accidental rather than a deliberate act.

Furthermore, the use of CS to repeat the material already stated through the repetitive use of **thatanyana**, meaning "a bit more'', shows its semantic use to show emphasis (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997, Gila, 1995; Hoffman (1991, in Tshinki, 2002; Kieswetter, 1995; Ncoko (1998, in Moodley, 2001); Moodley, 2001; Tshinki, 2002). The teacher repeats the word **thatanyana** used already as an answer by the class to emphasize the point already made. Similarly, the use of **Ee** signifies the use of CS to show agreement, as previously explained.

Extract 7: **Home Economics** (F and F) lesson

Te: (   ) So, in design elements … eh … because you know we are also Fashion and Fabric students, we are going to be designing certain articles. Eh … eh … or … you

can design **kana ke** table-cloth or what; it all depends on what you want to design. But

… *or it is a* eh … the design elements eh … for you to start designing, you have to

know these design

elements … because as you design, you sit down … you use your what? You use your

… you use your hands. **Ga ke re**? You cannot just design from the air, you have to

                 Isn't it?

down and use your hand to draw … or design whatever you … you want to design. So,

when you look at the handout … the handout that we have, **ga ke re** everyone has

                                        (no direct translation here)

a handout; **ga ke re**?

       Isn't?

Te: So, we are going to use this handout for our discussion, mm? (   ). So, the first

statement **ya re** "design is a selection and arrangement of lines … state of both same

       says

colour and shape." So when you design, it means you have to think of the lines.

Ga ke re?

 Isn't it?

Te: So, if this side where it is, **ha o lebelela jaana, ekare (   ) ga ke re**? So these

lines

                         When you look like this,   *isn't it?*

they will be used for such designs such as maternity dresses, so that they can help to

hide the tummy; **ga ke re**? **Ee**. And also when you look like **ba bua gore** the

                 isn't it?   *Yes*.   *They say that*

"impression of femininity", **ha o apere** these … these … eh … curved lines,

                When you're dressed

 di go dira gore o nne full!

they make you to look

You should look like a real … mm! a real woman, he! **Wa bogologolo**!

                                 From the olden days!

They want you to look full full **gore o bonale gore o mosadi**. Heh? Yes! This attire

                   so that you look like a real woman.

ya bo … ya bo… gatwe bo mang? **Mm … boo … bo Nightingale … gone hoo**.

of the ... of the   What they used to wear, *they're called? Mm ... the ... the*

Nightingale era … thereabout. They would wear full dresses **ba tsenya** what you call

Inserting

fastening gail **mo teng**.

    inside.

A fastening gail was a petticoat of some sort. And this petticoat **e ne e rokiwa e nna**

                it was sewn to appear

full full! **Go ne go dirisiwa le** ( ) **ga ke itse a go dirisiwa le diwaere mo teng**

    They were using   *I don't know if they also used wires inside*

jaana. ( ) so that **ha o apara**, as she walks, **heh! Go bo go bonala gore ke mosadi**

somehow   *When you dress up* (exclamation!) *It must be seen that it is a woman*

yo o full because of these curved lines. Heh! … **Gakere le a itse jaaka Baherero** …

who is   (exclamation) (no translation) *you know how the Baherero ...*

let's give an example, yes, the way they dress, **heh! Ha ba tswa kw**a [TOUCHING

           (exclamation!) *The upper bodice of their dress*

HER UPPER BUST] **go thaete! Ga ke re**? Heh! Then when they get here [TOUCHES

      is tight! Isn't it?

HER WAISTLINE] it flares. **Ga ke re**? **Le tsone di line tse di khevang** (curved lines)

       Isn't it? *Even the curved lines*

tse. So, they really look like ( ), **heh**? **heh**?

 those   (exclamation)

C: (in chorus) **Ee mma**.

    Yes m'am.

In the extract above, like in Extract 6, the teacher is the active participant who is the main speaker, and the learners are passive participants whose main role is that of audience. Their participation is only in a chorus **ee mma** to signal that they are listening. CS is used mainly to deliver the lesson content. The same explanation provided about the use of CS by the Biology teacher above equally applies here. It is both an unmarked choice and a marked choice. On the one hand, the teacher's use of Setswana does not signal an inability to express herself in English, but to show group identity with her learners (unmarked choice). On the other hand, CS may exclude those learners not proficient in Setswana, few as they may be (marked choice). In addition, to CS, the teacher also makes use of CM and borrowing as follows:

Setswana	**English**
Bo Nightingale	Nightingale and company
diwaere	wires
go thaete	it is tight
diline di khevang	lines which are curving or curving lines

The use of **bo** Nightingale to refer to Florence Nightingale (the first professional nurse) and her fellow nurses, is unusual in English. Setswana makes use of the prefix **bo-** to indicate the plural form of names. Therefore, **bo** Nightingale is a result of the teacher's use of CM to refer to Ms Nightingale and the nurses of her time. On the contrary, English does not show the plurality of names in this way (by using a prefix). It uses a suffix **–s** such as, for example, the Crwaford**s,** referring to the Crawford family. In addition, the noun **diwaere** is a borrowed word made up of the Setswana prefix **di-** that denotes the plurality of proper nouns and a borrowed noun **waere,** meaning **wire** (English). Although **diwaere** has a Setswana version, **tshipi e tshesane**, it is the borrowed form that is commonly used and the word has now been assimilated phonologically, morphologically and syntactically (Bokamba, 1988, and Herbert, 1994 in Kieswetter, 1995) from English (the guest language) into Setswana (the host language).

Borrowing has also been used in the phrasal verb **go thaete**, meaning **it is tight**. The preposition **go-** in Setswana precedes verb stems if the subject of the sentence refers to a non- living thing and means **it**; **thaete** is a borrowed form meaning **tight**. Although this phrasal verb is borrowed, it has been assimilated morphologically into Setswana. It is an example of nonce borrowing because its use is not constant in Setswana. The Setswana version **go tshwere thata** or **go gagametse** is commonly used instead. Similarly, the use of **di laene tse di khevang** denotes the application of borrowing. **Di-** is a Setswana prefix as explained above. Here it precedes the noun **laene,** meaning **line** to form a noun in its plural form, **dilaene** (**lines**). This word is an example of borrowing proper because it has been assimilated morphologically, syntactically and lexically into Setswana. It has its Setswana version, **ditselana**, but it is the borrowed form that is commonly used. In addition, **di khevang,** meaning **which are curving** is a relative clause that is an example of nonce borrowing also assimilated morphologically into Setswana. It is much more commonly used than its Setswana

version **tse di matsoketsoke**, so it is also more of an example or a better one of borrowing proper than nonce borrowing.

The two extracts above show that although the LoLT was English, there was heavy use of Setswana during these lessons, mainly to deliver the academic content. In both cases, though the main language of discourse is supposed to be English, it is clear that Setswana is the ML and English is the embedded language consistent with Kamwangamalu's Matrix Language Principle (MLP) (Kamwangamalu, 1999) and Myers-Scottons's Matrix Language Frame (MLF) (Myers-Scotton, 1993a) models. CS patterns show that Setswana syntax remains unchanged but that of English is violated. The inflections used in CM and borrowing explained in the preceding paragraphs are clear indications of the role of Setswana and English in the discourse.

Furthermore, in both extracts, emblematic CS in the form of **ga ke re** has been used pragmatically to establish contact between the teacher and the class. Its use also is a way for the teacher to check if the class understands the lesson material. Because of its frequent use that borders on habit, at times the learners choose to remain silent even if the teacher uses it; or they may respond in the affirmative even if they have not fully comprehended the lesson material. Its use gives the superficial impression that learning is taking place when the reverse may be true. Arthur (2001: 62) also referred to the use of tag switches such as this one as 'a chorus of minimal response'. The teacher also made use of the emblematic CS **kana** (Extract 7, line 3) semantically meaning **or** to denote alternative.

In addition to delivering the lesson content in Setswana, non-educational utterances made during the course of the lesson such as 'asides' or 'admonitions', were also made in Setswana as shown in the extract below:

Extract 8: Biology lesson (example of CS use to make an aside)

Te: **Ke gore gatwe le dirang lebati la lona batho!**
 What is wrong with your door, people! [TEACHER EXPRESSES EXASPERATION]

C: (   )

Te: **Ee, a ko o le tshegetse.**

Yes, please wedge it.

Here the teacher is commenting about the swinging door that is making a disturbing noise; and she orders one of the learners to support it to stop it from swinging back and forth. The teacher uses CS to convey her personal feelings (she is irritated by the noise of the swinging door) and not to deliver the subject content. CS is used pragmatically to perform a phatic function (Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993a)**.** Both the teacher and the learners are respectively participant and audience.

Similarly, in Extract 9 below, the teacher expresses her frustration and impatience with the class for not responding to her question; and she threatens to take punitive measures against them. As in the paragraph above, the teacher used CS not to deliver the subject content but to display her emotions. The Ends of the discourse (Hymes, 1974) is to get the learners to become active participants in the learning process. Similarly, CS is used pragmatically to perform a phatic function (Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993a).

The outcome of the teachers' threat to punish the learners prompted them to participate (cf. Transcription 1).

Extract 9: Biology lesson (example of CS use to admonish a class)

Te: **Ee, nkarabeng! Ke tsaya dustara ke le kobonya menwana yone e!**

Yes, answer me! I will take the duster and hit you on the knuckles!

7.5 CS OCCURRENCE IN THE LANGUAGE SUBJECTS

CS also occurred during the lessons of language subjects. However, as expected, its use was minimal compared to its use in non-language subjects. During English (L and L) lessons, CS occurred from English to Setswana. Conversely, during Setswana lessons, CS occurred from Setswana to English.

During the English Language lessons, there was minimal CS use and often Setswana was limited to the exchange of greetings at discourse initiation stage when the lesson began. Thereafter, the main language of communication was English, including at discourse closure. Where there was CS use, it was limited to intra-sentential CS or, if it was inter-sentential, it was to reiterate a point already made, as, will be demonstrated later in the text.

The minimal use of CS during the English Language lessons signified that acquisition of English as a language, and therefore, language development was the primary target. The form of CS most frequently used was emblematic CS in the form of the tag **ga ke re**; which has no direct English translation, but it is used to ensure that the listener is following what is being said; or is in agreement. CS in such an instance is used to perform a pragmatic function. This tag occurs in the speech of Setswana speakers regardless of which language is in use, hence its frequent occurrence during the lessons of the different subjects.

The amount of CS contained in the transcription of each of the lessons of the two language subjects are summarized below:

7.5.1 Transcription 4: English Language lesson

The lesson was a single period of 40 minutes' duration conducted by a male teacher in a peri-urban school. In analyzing the transcription of this lesson, the following were observed:

The transcription contained 110 sentences comprising a total of 1 395 words. These were actual utterances of the teacher and the learners while the parts that were read from the comprehension passage were not transcribed. There were only four instances of CS in the form of single words and / or phrases in the entire transcription. Therefore, there was minimal CS which accounted for only 0.6% of the text. It was not possible to express the amount of CS within a sentence as it was almost non-existent.

7.5.2 Transcription 5: Setswana lesson

The lesson was a single period of 35 minutes' duration conducted by a male teacher in a peri-urban school. The amount of CS contained in this lesson is summarized as follows:

The transcription contained 263 sentences with a total of 2 535 words. Two thousand three hundred and eighty six (2 386) words were in Setswana while 154 were in English. There were 113 instances of CS; which is 6.45% of the text. The longest sentence contained 73 words; with only three switches in the form of borrowing proper and CM. Therefore, only 4% of the words were in the form of switches. Consequently, the ratio of the absence of CS and its presence within the sentence was 96: 4.

In addition, the following extracts illustrate the act sequence (Hymes, 1974) of the English Language lesson and the Setswana lesson. The act sequence also shows the stage at which CS is used in each lesson.

Extract 10: English Language (discourse initiation)

The topic of the lesson was a comprehension exercize entitled *Man and Animals*. The discourse initiation was in the form of greetings, then housekeeping matters and the lesson introduction.

Te: **Dumelang**.
   Good morning.

C: Good morning sir.

Te: Okay, I asked you to read this paper over the weekend and I believe you did. Remember (…..) and I want us to look at the questions particularly the vocabulary section in question number eight, and after that we are going to look at the summary question and identify the summary points. Basically, we are going to identify the summary points after we have looked at the vocabulary exercize. Are you sure we are together?

C: (in chorus) Yes.

In Extract 10 above, at discourse initiation stage, greetings were exchanged in Setswana even though the LoLT was supposed to be English. Like in the other similar instances above (cf. Extracts 1-3), CS is used here to perform a phatic function. The teacher uses it to establish relation with the class. Instead of responding in Setswana, the class uses English. It seemed the unwritten rule was well understood among the learners that communication was in English only because the lesson was the English Language lesson. Then the teacher reverted to English to discuss housekeeping matters such as getting the class's attention in preparation for the lesson delivery (line 3). This signified that the teacher was mindful of the importance of using English for language development purposes. Similarly, when the formal part of the lesson began, its introduction was also presented in English (lines 4-7). English was used semantically to present the lesson material. Thereafter, the discourse was in English only, including the delivery of the lesson content as well as using English for phatic function (line 7):

Te: …Are you sure we are together?

Through the use of the question above, the teacher is checking if the class clearly understands the activity of the day.

The rest of the lesson was conducted in English with minimal CS during the development stage (cf. Extract 11 and 12 below).

Extract 11: English Language lesson (the development stage)

Example of the use of intra- sentential CS and inter-sentential CS

(Lines 36-39)

Te: Alright, (   ) it could be attacked or destroyed **jaaka eng**? Despite this, there was
Like what?

a great disadvantage (…) disadvantage, sorry, in being a totem. **Bane ba bua nnete.**
They were telling the truth.

"Grave" disadvantage. What other words can we … can we … give … that means the same or is the same as the word 'grave'?

In extract 11 above, **jaaka eng?** meaning 'like what', is a form of intra-sentential CS in the form of a question. It is used to complete an English sentence. The teacher used CS in order to probe the learner as a follow-up to the discussion of the comprehension exercize. He is trying to get more information from the learners. CS is used, therefore, to draw information from the learners. By so doing, the teacher is encouraging the learners to participate in the lesson. Here CS use is due to the nature of the topic being discussed (Blom & Gumperz in Gumperz and Hymes, 1986, Eldrigde (1996, in Kamwangamalu, 2000); Gxlishe (1992, in Moodley, 2001); Hoffman (1991, in Tshinki, 2002); Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Tshinki, 2002).

As the topic of the comprehension is based on the Tswana culture, the teacher found it fit to CS to Setswana. **Bane ba bua nnete**, meaning 'they were telling the truth', is an example of inter-sentential CS used to show emphasis (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Gila, 1995; Hoffman (1991, in Tshinki, 2002); Kieswetter, 1995; Ncoko (1998, in Moodley, 2001; Moodley, 2001; Tshinki, 2002). The teacher CS to Setswana to emphasise a point already made in English. Here CS is used pragmatically to show emphasis. The CS form is in the form of a complete sentence that follows another sentence constructed in English only. In the same lesson, the teacher uses emblematic CS in the form of the tag **ga ke re** as illustrated in Extract 12 below.

Extract 12: English Language lesson (development stage continues)

Example of emblematic CS use

(Lines 81-89)

Te: Aha! … she says were 'introduced'! No, it's not, it's not aaa …, what is that word? … It's not 'displayed' not 'displayed, ha? Did you say the … the circus? … Okay, would you say the circus' acts were 'displayed' in which the strength of animals were ( ) dominated? Aah, it's not the most appropriate word in this case … mmh? You

talked of devised, what did you talk of devising things in … thee … from our …
what's this? Science what?

Ln 9*: In the science lessons*

T: Science lessons, **ga ke re**?
> *Isn't it*?

C: [IN CHORUS] **Ee..**!
> *Yes*!

In Extract 12 above, **ga ke re** (line 88) is an example of emblematic CS used by the
teacher to seek confirmation from the class that they agree with what he is saying or to
ensure understanding (Adendorff, 1993). Similarly, **Ee** is also an example of
emblematic CS used to confirm that the class is following what the teacher said.
Arthur (2001) referred to both forms of CS as 'tag-switches' used by the teacher to
prompt the learners to respond to the teacher's monologue in the form of a chorus of
minimal responses (Arthur, 2001: 62). In both cases, CS is used to perform a
pragmatic function.

In Extracts 11 and 12, English was used mainly by both the teacher and the learners.
CS was hardly used. The learners never engaged in CS and only answered in English
whenever they were called upon to contribute to the class discourse. Only the teacher
had the prerogative to CS to Setswana during the lesson but, even then, the use of CS
was minimal. As in the previous extracts, the teacher is the active participant who
initiates the discourse; the learners are the audience and only participate at the
invitation of the teacher. At discourse closure, when the lesson ended, winding up was
done in English only (cf. Extract 13 below).

Extract 13: English Language lesson (discourse closure and housekeeing matters)

(Lines 124-129)
Te: 'Despite'? … heh! … 'Conscious of', 'despite their limitations'? … No. It has got
a different meaning altogether, but we can use it in … in that (   ) alternative (   ) of

that part. Mmh? … conscious … conscious, what does that word mean, 'conscious'? … When you are conscious, you are…? The word begins with an 'A'.

[BELL RINGS TO SIGNAL THE END OF THE LESSON.]

Te: Okay, it is time up so we shall finish next time. A … a … a! Don't go yet boys and girls. How many boys are in this class? And how many girls? [LEARNERS REMAIN SEATED AS THE TEACHER COUNTS THE LEARNERS TO CONFIRM THE NUMBER OF THE LEARNERS IN THE CLASS BY GENDER.]

Te: Thank you very much, boys and girls. [LEARNERS LEAVE THE CLASS FOR ANOTHER LESSON.]

Extract 13 above represents the utterances made by the teacher at the end of the lesson. After the bell rang, the teacher wrapped up the lesson by attending to some housekeeping matters before he dismissed the class. This was done in English only and, as in Extract 10 above, no CS was used. This showed that in an English Language lesson, English was clearly understood as the LoLT with the prime objective of assisting learners to acquire proficiency in English. The act sequence showed that the discourse initiation was done in Setswana, then the teacher CS to English and maintained the use of English almost entirely throughout the duration of the lesson, including at discourse-closure stage, except for two instances of CS at the lesson-development stage. The almost exclusive use of English during the English Language lesson was contrary to the practice observed during the lessons of content subjects. In the latter, if a teacher used Setswana in class, the learners, in response, also used Setswana. They seemed to assume that if a teacher addressed them in Setswana, they also had to respond in Setswana.

CS was not confined to the lessons that officially were taught in English only. It was used even during Setswana lessons, be it in grammar or literature lessons. However, its use was minimal. The speech sequence was as follows: At discourse initiation, greetings were always exchanged in Setswana; and the introduction of the lesson was also in Setswana, with occasional use of borrowing (Extract 14 below). During the development stage, minimal CS was used. Instead, the Setswana teachers used more borrowing (nonce borrowing and borrowing proper) as well as CM than CS. The use

of borrowing during Setswana lessons will be illustrated and discussed later in section 7.8. At the end of the lesson, discourse closure was in Setswana only (Extract 15). No CS was used during the two stages as shown in the two extracts below.

Extract 14: Setswana lesson (discourse initiation)

The topic of the lesson was *Debate* (***Ngangisano***)

Te: Dumelang.
  Good day.

C: Dumela morutabana.
  Good day teacher.

Te: Ee, a re bue ka kgang ya **school fees;** la reng ka yone?
  Yes, let's talk about the issue of school fees; what do you say about it?

In Extract 14 above, the discourse initiation is in the form of greetings, followed by the lesson introduction. Due to the nature of the topic that was introduced, borrowing was utilized immediately, signalled by the phrasal noun **school fees**. The teacher chose to use the borrowed expression instead of using a Setswana alternative **lekgetho la sekole** or **tuelo ya sekole** because the borrowed version is used much more commonly than the Setswana version. Although this phrasal noun shows no sign of adaptation to the linguistic system of Setswana, in the view of the researcher it is an example of borrowing proper instead of nonce borrowing (Kamwangamalu, 2000) because of its frequent use in utterances made in Setswana. In addition, the concepts of formal schooling and payment of school fees are foreign in the Setswana culture. Therefore, an original Setswana word for school fees is non-existent, hence the use of the phrasal nouns above. During the development stage, the teacher continually engaged the different forms of borrowing (cf. Transcription 5 in Addendum C). As in the other lessons conducted in English, the teacher is the active participant and initiates the discourse. The learners initially assume the role of the audience; but later are active participants while the teacher assumes the role of the listener (audience). At the end of the lesson, discourse closure was in Setswana only as shown in Extract 15 below.

Extract 15: Setswana lesson (discourse closure)

Te: O ka re nako ya rona e fedile. Go siame.

   I think it is time up. It is okay.

[THE TEACHER PREPARES TO LEAVE THE CLASS WHILE THE LEARNERS
PREPARE FOR THE NEXT LESSON.]

The data thus far has revealed that CS is used in the classroom, irrespective of the
nature of the subject, but the extent of use varies according to the nature of the subject.
During the lessons of content subjects, CS was used throughout the lesson to
communicate formal (educational) and informal (social) matters. However, during the
English Language lessons, it was limited to greetings at the initial stage of the lesson
and was used minimally for lesson content delivery. On the other hand, during
Setswana lessons, CS was not used for discourse initiation and closure; its use was
minimal during the development stage of the lesson to communicate both formal and
informal issues. It was the use of the different forms of borrowing that was more
significant than the use of CS as alluded to earlier and discussed in detail in the
subsequent sections. Because the setting (classroom) is formal, the norms (Hymes,
1974) governing the speech act (lesson) and the participants (teacher and learners) and
the genre (Hymes, 1974) used were equally formal, hence the use of turn-taking as
seen in the extracts of the different lessons. However, the degree of formality is
decided by the teacher as the director of the events in the classroom.

7.6 THE FORM (NATURE) OF CS USED IN THE CLASSROOM

Evidence from the classroom shows that the different forms of CS are used in both the
content and the language subjects. These are inter-sentential CS, intra-sentential CS
and emblematic CS (Kamwangamalu, 2000), already explained in Chapter Two,
Section 2.3.1 a-c. The following extracts illustrate the use of each form of CS in both
content and language classes:

7.6.1 Content subjects

(i) Inter-sentential CS

Extracts 16, 17, and 18 illustrate the use of inter-sentential CS during the lessons of content subjects**.**

Extract 16: Biology lesson

Te: Why iron (name)? **Kana nna ke rile o ne o mpha lebaka la gore ke eng o rialo!**

… ……………. *said you must give me a reason why you say so*!

Why why why take in a lot of iron? … **E go thusa jang?**

 …………………………………….*How does it help you*?

In Extract 16 above, the speaker (teacher) makes use of inter-sentential CS by switching between sentences. The discourse is initiated in English, followed by alternating sentences of Setswana and English, and finally switching again to Setswana in the last sentence. In each case, she makes use of complete sentences such that the discourse comprises two English and two Setswana sentences. The first instance of CS is person (subject)-related as the teacher addresses the learner directly; the second instance of CS is topic-related as the teacher specifically refers to the subject of discussion. In both cases, inter-sentential CS is used to perform a pragmatic function. In the first instance, the teacher explains to the learner that she expects him to provide a reason for his answer (line 1). In the second instance, CS is used to pose a question to the learner (line 2) to get him to substantiate his point. In both cases, the ends of the speech event are geared towards getting the learners to participate.

Extract 17: Home Economics (F and F) lesson

Te: So, they combine both the vertical and the horizontal lines. So, they … they can therefore, either increase or decrease an illusion of height or slimness. **Ee** depending

 ………………………………………………………………….... *Yes*

…………………

on the degree of slant. So, let's look at the first picture there … the first picture [REFERS TO PICTURE IN THE HANDOUT]. **Akere o bona gore e a *slanta*, ga ke re**?

…………………………………… *Isn't that* y*ou see that it is slanting, isn't it*?

 … but it doesn't slant much; so this person on the … on the first picture appears … appears what? **Eh**?

 ……………*Yes*?

C: (silence)

In the extract above, the speaker initiates the discourse in English before switching to Setswana to utter another sentence; and then switches back to English. In all instances, CS is used to perform a pragmatic function. Emblematic CS (line 2) is used to show agreement. In line 4, inter-sentential CS and emblematic CS are used to respectively provide information and to give assurance. In line 6, emblematic CS is used to prompt a response from the class.

Extract 18: History lesson

Te: Okay, the other problem was that the people who had been living with Jan van Riebeek, whom we shall refer to as the Company servants, were not happy because the conditions in which they lived were bad.
Ke bo mang ba ba nang le dikgomo ko ga bone?
Who (amongst you) have cattle at your home villages?

In Extract 18 above, the teacher CS in line 4. Inter-sentential CS is used pragmatically by way of asking a question. As in Extract 16 above, the ends are to get the learners to participate in the lesson and to respond to the teacher's question.

In all three the extracts above, the speakers (teachers) initiate the discourse in English before switching to Setswana. This shows that the teachers are mindful of the fact that English is the official LoLT even though they also CS to Setswana.

(ii) Intra-sentential CS

The following extracts (6, 19, and 20) illustrate the use of intra-sentential CS during the lessons of content subjects. In each extract, each speaker makes use of intra-sentential CS within the same sentence to complete a sentence initiated in English and then switching to Setswana to complete it. As in inter-sentential CS, the speakers seem to be mindful that Setswana is playing a supporting role while English is the expected LoLT.

Extract 6 (earlier presented in this chapter) (lines 10-13): Biology lesson

Te: Yes, **ke tlhalositse hela gore**/ when the blood gets into the kidney, and especially
Yes I explained that

around the gonerius, **e e leng gore/** that is a group of capillaries, we expect the pressure
which is

to be a bit high; specifically for the filtration of the liquid parts. **Ga ke re?**
Isn't it?

In the extract above, intra-sentential CS is used to perform a semantic function. In lines 1and 2, the teacher explains (semantic function) to the class what takes place during the process of filtration. In line 3, emblematic CS (**ga ke re**) is used pragmatically to seek assurance from the class that they are following the lesson, hence it is performing a phatic function.

Extract 19: Home Economics (F and F)

Te: Straight lines, **ee** … parallel, **e bidiwa go tweng**? … vertical. Then you can have
which is ...., what is it called?

horizontal lines, you can have … slanted curves, and the like. So we have a variety of lines which we use in … in designing. **Ga ke re**? And also we have … the shapes …
Isn't it?

we have shapes; any other shape?

C: (silence)

In the extract above, intra-sentential CS is used pragmatically in the form of a main clause **e bidiwa go tweng?** (line 1) to complete discourse initiated in English. As in Extract 18, by using a question, the ends are to get the participation of the learners in the lesson so that the teacher and the learners can continually take turns as speaker(s) and listener(s). Similarly, the emblematic CS **ee…** is used to show agreement (the phatic function) and to seek assurance from the class that they are following the lesson.

Extract 20: History lesson

Te: **Ee**…that's why **batho ba bo** road transport … they advise people to have some
Yes…that's why people of road transport

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eh … points where they may rest, just relax for maybe, thirty minutes and then you continue (pause) with your journey.

In the first line of Extract 20 above, intra-sentential CS **batho ba bo** and emblematic CS **Ee …** are used semantically to respectively provide information to the class and to initiate the discourse in the form of an agreement.

(iii) Emblematic CS

Emblematic CS is the most frequently used form of CS in the form the emblematic tag **ga ke re** (cf. Extract 17, line 4; Extract 19, line 3; and Extract 21 below, lines 3, 5 and 7). Emblematic tags usually appear finally in a discourse, depending on what message the speaker wants to transmit. In all three the extracts cited above, emblematic CS **ga ke re** is used finally in a discourse to perform a phatic function.

Extract 21: Home Economics (F and F) lesson

T: So, we are going to use this handout for our discussion, mm? (   ). So, the first statement **ya re** "design is a selection and arrangement of lines … state of both same colour and shape." So when you design, it means you have to think of the lines. **Gakere**?

C: (some) Yes.

T: Think of the lines, **gakere**?

C: (some) Yes.

T: The lines can either be straight, they can either be… be curves. **Gakere**?

C: (some) Yes.

The examples cited above (cf. Extracts 16-21) demonstrate that the teachers of content subjects make use of all three the forms of CS. Furthermore, it was observed that even though the official LoLT is English, CS use is prevalent during their lessons.

7.6.2 Language subjects

The language teachers also make use of all three the forms of CS during their utterances as previously demonstrated and explained in Extract 11 (intra-sentential and inter-sentential CS) and Extract 12 (emblematic CS) above.

However, during Setswana lessons, only two of the three forms of CS are used. These are intra-sentential CS and inter-sentential CS as illustrated in Extracts 22 and 23 below. Emblematic CS appears in Setswana in the form of **ga ke re** (cf. Addendum C, Transcription 5).

Extract 22: Setswana lesson

Examples of intra-sentential CS

Te: Ee … kana mme e a bereka '**gender issue**', ga ke re? Ha gongwe ka puisanyo re kgona gore ha re bua go hanwa gore bo mme ba ha kae jalo jalo. Nte re re 'bong.' Jaanong ha re lebeletse bong gantsi, batho ba ba neng ba re bana ba seka ba setwa ko morago ke ba lesika la ga **Efa; and there is a reason for that**. Ga ke re?

Translated as:

Te: *Yes … but it does work* '**gender issue**', *isn't it so*? … *Now when often looking at gender, people who were saying pupils should not be lashed on the backside were the descendants of Eve* **and there is a reason for that**. *Isn't it so*?

Ln 3: Nna ke tseela … ke tseela gore **goromente** o dirile sente hela. Ke raya gore re ntse re tsena hela go sena madi. Jaanong a ba a ntsha … a ntsha … nnetane, … ke bokae? … Ke **five** gakere? A madi a ne re tshwanetse gore re a duele; a re utwela bothoko **so**, o dira sente; haa re re duele … ha a re re duele.

Translated as:

I take it … I take it that **government** *did well. I mean that we were attending school without paying any money. Now he took …he took… how much?... It's* **five** *(   )? The*

money that we were supposed to pay; he felt sorry for us **so***, he is fine; when he says …
says we should pay.*

In the extract above, the teacher uses intra-sentential CS through the use of the phrasal
noun **gender issue** (line 1) and the dependent clause **and there is a reason for that**
(line 4). **Gender** is a technical term now widely used to refer to either male or female.
The two examples of CS are used pragmatically to show prestige (Kieswetter, 1995;
Tshinki, 2002). The teacher CS as he presents the lesson material, but there is no
reason why he cannot use Setswana equivalents of the expressions used since they are
available. **Gender issue** translated to Setswana is **kgang ya bong**. **And there is a
reason for that** translated to Setswana is **lebaka la teng le teng**.

Furthermore, the teacher makes use of borrowing (Kamwangamalu, 2000). For
instance, the nouns **Efa (**Eve**)** and **goromente** exemplify borrowing or what
Kamwangamalu (2000: 89) refers to as borrowing proper. The former is a Biblical
name for the first female on Earth borrowed from English, and it has been adapted and
become accepted as a Setswana version of Eve. The latter (**goromente)** meaning
'government', is also a borrowed word from English that has now been assimilated
phonologically, morphologically, syntactically and lexically into Setswana language.
The concept of government as understood in Western culture did not exist in an
African setting such as in the then Bechuanaland (the country is known now as
Botswana since it attained its independence from Britain in 1966). Therefore, when
the system of a Western government was introduced in Botswana, the concept was
likewise borrowed and the word **goromente** is now widely used even though its
synonym **puso** exists. **Goromente** is used more as a personal noun, whilst **puso** is
used more as an abstract noun.

Borrowing proper is also used in the form of the counting noun **five** (line 5) here used
to refer to value in money. Instead of using its Setswana equivalent, **botlhano**, the
learner used the English version. The use of borrowing in this way is common in
Setswana as already explained in Chapter Two. The same learner makes use of a
transition word, *so* (intra-sentential CS) in line 7. Although this word has its Setswana
equivalent, **ka jalo**, the speaker chose to use the English version, and there was no
objection from the teacher.

Extract 23: Setswana lesson

Example of inter-sentential CS)

Te: **That's very good!** Go nale leina la mmega dikgang.

…………………! *There is a name for a news reporter.*

Te: Malatsing a go nale lefoko gatwe 'ke a **sua**'. '**Talk to my lawyer**'. Gape go nale eng?

These days there is a saying that 'I sue.'…………….. Again what else?

In the extract above, CS has been used inter-sententially as alternate sentences are 'formulated' in English and Setswana. The teacher has used CS pragmatically to show his level of education (Gibbons, 1983; Kieswetter, 1995; Moodley, 2001; Tshinki, 2002) and to show prestige (Kieswetter, 1995; Tshinki, 2002). In a Setswana class, the LoLT is Setswana, and all the learners in this class are proficient in Setswana, as explained previously in Chapter Four. Therefore, there is no reason why a teacher should switch to English in a Setswana class as language barrier is not the issue. The teacher CS to English to display that, like his colleagues who teach subjects taught in English, he too can speak English, the prestigious language. In addition, the teacher uses borrowing proper **ke a sua**, meaning, '**I sue**'. The concept of suing is foreign to Setswana culture, hence it does not have a Setswana equivalent. Therefore, the word **sue** has been adapted phonologically, morphologically, syntactically and lexically into Setswana and it is used widely. Its use therefore, is more out of necessity than prestige.

It was noted hat while there was an effort by the majority of the English teachers not to CS and also to discourage the learners from CS to Setswana in class, the same attitude was not observed in almost all the classes of the non-language subjects. For instance, one of the English Language teachers explicitly stated that he does not condone the use of any other language in class besides English (cf. Extract 24 below). Ironically, this was the teacher who, on entering the classroom, greeted the learners in the local language, Ikalanga. By initiating the discourse in the form of greetings by using Ikalanga, his HL, and the HL for the majority of the learners (46%), the teacher used CS pragmatically to establish group (ethnic) identity and to perform a phatic function. The functions of CS in the classroom are discussed under Section 7.7 below.

Extract 24: English Language lesson

Te: I told you that although I am Kalanga, the only language that I understand in academic work is English. So if you are using any other language, you're being unfair to me.

The teacher implied that during the English Language lesson, he did not condone the use of either Setswana or any other local language in class besides English. Therefore, both the teacher and the learners were expected to communicate in English only. The situation was slightly different during Setswana lessons. While some teachers CS or engaged in CM and the different forms of borrowing, they ironically discouraged the learners from doing the same. Evidence of this will be shown later Section 7.7.3 (below) when the functions of CS in a Setswana lesson are discussed.

7.7 FUNCTIONS OF CS IN THE CLASSROOM

The extent of CS use also revealed the functions (already discussed) for which it was used. Observation revealed that during the lessons of content subjects, CS was used mainly to impart knowledge and, to some extent, for social functions such as to obtain cooperation from the learners, to seek their participation, and to encourage turn-taking. During the lessons of the language subjects, CS was also used, although minimal, to impart the content of the subject, but mainly for social functions (such as to seek class cooperation and to encourage class participation in the learning process). Social functions also positively contribute to learning.

Some of the functions of CS during the lessons of content subjects are discussed below.

7.7.1 Content subjects

(i). Educational functions of CS

Extract 6 above illustrates the use of CS by both the teacher and learners in the teaching and learning process. The extract shows a continuation of a lesson initially

presented in English, but as the lesson progresses, the teacher switches to Setswana. Thereafter, the alternate use of the two languages continues throughout the lesson. In CS, the teacher may initiate the discourse in English and close it in Setswana. Because of the teacher's CS to Setswana, the learners understood this to mean that they, too, could respond in Setswana. The teacher did not show any objection. CS was used by the teacher and learners throughout the lesson. The same use of CS is observed in Extract 7 above, as well. Similarly, the extract below also demonstrates the use of CS in teaching and learning:

Extract 25: Home Economics (Fand F)

Te: And then expose those that are good, **Ee! Ke a utlwala sentle**?
                                        Yes! Am I being understood well?

C: (in chorus) **Ee.**
            Yes.

Te: **Ee**! Let's not … let's not just dress for the sake of it; let's dress knowing that …
    Yes!
gore rona we are fashion and design students. **Re a itse jaaka go aparwa**. (   ) And
that us   *We know how to dress well*.
then we get to the horizontal lines. The horizontal lines … they create a side to side
movement. [DEMONSTRATES WITH HER HEAD AND EYES.] So, the horizontal
(   ) **ga ke re**   (   ) so it means **gore** (   ) **ga ke re**
    isn't it?   *that*   *isn't it*?
[STILL DEMONSTRATING SIDE TO SIDE MOVEMENT OF EYES.]
go raya gore matlho a gago a tsamaya jaana [IMITATES] side by side. And then **go**
it means that your eyes move like this
raya gore tsone they create what?
it means that

In the extract above, CS is used pragmatically to present the lesson content. In the first line, the CS form **Ke a utlwala sentle?** CS is used pragmatically to perform a phatic function; as well as **Ee** (in the next two lines) and **ga ke re** (in the seventh line). The teacher is checking if the learners are following the progress of the lesson. The CS

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forms **go raya gore matlho a gago a tsamaya jaana**, and **go raya gore tsone** (in the eighth and nineth lines respectively) are used pragmatically to explain the content of the lesson. Although the CS form **Re a itse jaaka go aparwa** (line 4) shows the pragmatic use of CS to perform the phatic function (to inspire learners when the teacher says as Fashion and Fabric students they know how to dress well), nonetheless its use is important in that the teacher is giving an analogy that is relevant to the subject of the lesson so as to improve lesson understanding.

The prevalent use of CS during the lessons of content subjects implied that CS was used mainly as a teaching strategy. The teachers employed CS on realizing that the learners did not fully understand the lesson content or did not fully participate in the lesson. It seemed that the primary concern of the teachers of these subjects was to ensure that the learners understand the lesson content. In the view of the researcher, ensuring that the learners attain proficiency in the official language of instruction (LoI) seemed to be of secondary concern. Therefore, the teachers used CS and, by extension, also allowed the learners to do the same.

(ii) Social functions of CS in the classroom

CS was also used to perform a number of social functions within the class, as outlined below:

a. To exchange greetings at the beginning of the lesson (discourse-initiation stage) as well as closing the lesson (discourse-closure stage), including dismissing the class at the end of the lesson (cf. Extracts 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 10 above).

The use of CS in this way was to establish a relation between the teacher and the learners as explained earlier.

b. To perform housekeeping matters at the beginning of the lesson (cf. Extract 2, 3 and 13 above).

This was also meant to establish a relation between the teacher and the class.

c. To encourage class participation (cf. Extract 9).
d. To check the learners' participation in the lesson (cf. Extract 6 above as well as Extract 26 below).

Extract 26: Home Economics (Fand F)

Te: If I put this colour, what effect will this colour have on …on what I want to design?

Ke a utlwala sentle ga ke re?

Am I well understood?

e. To amuse the learners (cf. Extract 27, nineth line below):

Extract 27: History lesson

Te: What problems did you encounter on the way?

Ln 8: Hunger.

Te: Hah? … hah?

Ln 8: Hunger.

Te: Hunger? … What about you? (Name) …What about you? … Ha? Or were you just okay from here up to Maun? [ADDRESSING Ln 8 AGAIN.] … Hah? … Any other? What problems did you encounter in the longest journey that you have ever taken?

Ln 9: [MUMBLES] Hunger.

Te: Hah! … Hunger? **Le tshwerwe ke tala le ha go ntse jalo**.

You must be very hungry. [THE TEACHER THINKS THAT LEARNERS CONSTANTLY MENTION HUNGER BECAUSE THEY ARE HUNGRY.]
C: [LAUGHTER.]

The use of the CS form **le tshwerwe ke tala le ha go ntse jalo** (line 9) is used to amuse the learners and the outcome intended also is to get them to participate in the lesson when the teacher realized that they were not responding to his question.

f. CS to display linguistic versatility (Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Kamwangamalu, 2000) (cf. Extract 22 above).

To overcome communication barrier caused by the learners' lack of fluency in English (cf. Extract 28 below).

Extract 28: History Lesson

Te: You're saying they were to establish a fort from which soldiers would defend the settlement at the Cape; … and also for it to be used as a hospital… now, what purpose do you think that the hospital was to serve?

C: [SILENCE]

Te: **Se ne se dirisediwa eng sepatela? Kana** the answer is very obvious! Heh? Yes?
   For w*hat was the hospital used*? *But*
[to Learner 15]

Ln 15: (   ) [MUMBLES]

Te: A … a…. a! Raise your voice!

Ln 15: It was meant to attend to those people sailing to India.

Usually, the teacher initiates the discourse, be it an explanation or a question in English, on recognizing that what he is saying may not be readily understood by the learners, he / she then switches to Setswana, the language that the majority of the learners understand, and repeats the same utterance.

In the extract above, the teacher posed his question in English, but due to lack of participation by the learners, he decided to repeat the same question in Setswana to ensure that the question is well understood. One learner responded to the question in English even though the teacher had repeated the question in Setswana. It appears that the question had been well understood. This form of response was an exception rather than a norm. Often, if the teacher had asked a question in Setswana, the learners would respond in Setswana. However, in this instance, the learner's response was directed at the lesson content and he seemed to have understood that English was the appropriate language of communication during this lesson. From observation, this teacher CS less

compared to the other teachers of the other content subjects. Consequently, the learners also did not CS.

g. CS to show emphasis

The same example in Extract 28 can serve as an example of the use of CS to show emphasis. The teacher CS to Setswana to repeat a question asked initially in English to ensure that it is well understood by the learners.

h. CS as a strategy for neutrality

CS as a strategy for neutrality refers to when the speaker employs two codes at the same time because he / she realizes that the use of each of the two codes has its own value in terms of the costs and rewards that accrue with its use (Myers-Scotton, 1993). That is, there are advantages and disadvantages for using both codes at the same time. The speaker does not want to commit to only one code, but uses any of the two codes whenever it is suitable.

Depending on the usage, CS as a strategy for neutrality can perform both educational and social functions. This form of CS is common in the classroom especially during the lessons of content subjects as illustrated in Extract 29 below.

Extract 29: Home Economics (F and F)

Te: Still **tsone** the rounded lines … **e bua gore** [REFERRING TO HANDOUT] what
they   *it states that*
will … will happen **ba tlaa bo ba apara tsone di** fastening gayles … **tsone di**
they will wear those   *they the*
fastening gayles **tseo** and give a complete curve. **Ke gore** they will be gathered **jaana**
those   *That is*   *like this*
[DEMONSTRATES] and then **kwano go tshwara**.
it is tight over here.
So that **ha a tsamaya go bo go bona mongwe le mongwe.**
When she walks everyone can notice.

So, the rounded … eh … [READS FROM HANDOUT]

Te: So, imagine if I'm wearing rounded lines, how will I look like? **Ke tla bo ke nna tlougadi jaanong**.
I would look like a she-elephant.

C: [LAUGHTER.]

In the extract above, the teacher CS back and forth between English and Setswana to exploit the advantages that accrue when using each language to make her explanation clearer. She is aware that if she can commit herself to one code, such as English, some of the learners may not fully understand the lesson. Similarly, by using Setswana only, she may not only be excluding the few learners who did not fully understand Setswana, but she would also be violating the policy of using English as the LoLT in a subject such as this one. The use of CS in this way can also be regarded as a display of the teacher's comfortable use of both languages.

The teacher also makes use of CM when she used the expression *di fastening gayles* (line 2), referring to some dresses with tight-fitting, bodice-like tops worn by women of the Victorian era. This phrasal noun is formed using a Setswana prefix **di-** followed by the English adjective *fastening* to qualify the English noun *gayles.* As explained earlier, English does not indicate plurality by using a prefix, rather the suffix **-s** as in *gayles* marks the plural form. Therefore, it is not only CM that was used, but what Kamwangamalu (2000) refers to as double-plural marking. However, the researcher regards this as *borrowing* (explained earlier in Chapter Two, section 2.3.3). In addition, even though the speech act (the lesson) is formal and, therefore, calling for formal norms, the teacher also makes use of informal norms to raise the learners' interest in the lesson as illustrated in lines 7-8 reproduced below:

Te: So, imagine if I'm wearing rounded lines, how will I look like?
Ke tla bo ke nna tlougadi jaanong.
 I would look like a she-elephant.

7.7.2 Language subjects (English L and L classes)

Although CS was used minimally during the lessons of language subjects, nonetheless, where it was used, it served a number of functions. The following were identified as functions of CS during English L and L lessons:

(i) Educational functions of CS

    a. CS was used for teaching and learning (cf. Extract 11 above)

In Extract 11 above, CS is used to facilitate learning. In line 1, intra-sentential CS (**jaaka eng**) completes a sentence that contains the lesson content. Because CS is used to repeat the material already stated, its use is pragmatic. Similarly, in line 2 inter-sentential CS (**bane ba bua nnete**) is used pragmatically to emphasize the message presented previously in the form of a complete English sentence. The two sentences are used to deliver the content of the lesson. During the lesson, the learners' utterances are limited to brief answers in English, or responses denoting agreement or negation through the use of either 'yes' or 'no' in a chorus. It appears that during the English (L and L) lessons, the rule is well understood that participation on the part of the learners is in English only. Once again, only the teachers have the prerogative to minimally CS or even to employ other forms of speaking such as CM, or any form of borrowing. The same dispensation is not extended to the learners. For instance, in one of the English Language classes, a learner begged his teacher to allow him to relate his story in Setswana instead of in English. According to the learner, he could not relate the story well in English, and as a result its humorous side would be lost. The story was culturally based, so the learner was of the view that he would not use the right English words to relate it well. Regrettably, the learner's request was not granted. The learner therefore had to struggle to relate the story in English.

    a. CS to repeat material already presented to facilitate learning

The extract below presents an example of the use of CS to repeat the lesson material presented initially in English:

Extract 30: Literature in *English*

The lesson was presented by a female teacher in a F 5 class at a peri-urban school. The class was discussing a poem.

Te: It is also a couplet; couplet **ga ke re ke** two

It is two (English)

It has a couplet; two; **di pedi.**

they are two (English)

In the extract above (line 2), the teacher CS to provide the meaning of a *couplet* by repeating what a *couplet* refers to in Setswana. By CS, she is assisting the learners who may not know the meaning of *couplet* to understand. Here CS is used to facilitate understanding that will promote learning.

(ii) Social functions of CS during English L and L

Besides the use of CS to facilitate teaching and learning, it is used also to serve social functions in class. For instance, in Extract 31 below, CS is used humorously. The lesson was for a Form 5 English Language class conducted by a male teacher in an urban school.

    a.   Humorous use of CS:

Extract 31: English Language lesson

Te: I had asked you to finish your work; have you finished?

C: [SILENCE]

Te: Heh? [DEMANDING A RESPONSE FROM THE CLASS]

C: [SOME] We are finished.

Te: Are you finished or have you finished?

   Ha o re 'you are finished' **oraya gore o hedile**.

   When you say   you mean that you are no more (English).

C: [LAUGHTER]

In the extract above, the teacher corrects the grammatically incorrect sentence that the learner uttered; but he corrects it in a humorous way, prompting the rest of the class to burst into laughter.

Because of the limited use of CS during English L and L classes, its functions are also limited. However, the few examples cited above illustrate that minimal CS use served both educational and social functions. The explanation for this situation could be that the teachers of English were required to be exemplary in assisting the learners to acquire a proficiency in English. This included teaching in English and also encouraging their learners to speak English. The use of CS during their classes was viewed as contrary to their mandate.

   a. CS to exchange greetings

This point already has been explained (cf. Extract 10 above).

7.7.3 Functions of CS in a Setswana class

As alluded to already, CS in the classroom is not only confined to the lessons taught in English. Evidence from the lessons observed also indicated that there was a minimal use of CS during Setswana lessons, that is to say, the teachers often CS from Setswana to English. However, its use occurred during the formal part of the lesson, as was the case during the lessons of the subjects taught in English. None of the teachers observed initiated the discourse in English when exchanging greetings or discussing housekeeping matters with their classes. Similarly, at the end of the lesson, discourse closure, including class dismissal, was in Setswana (cf. Extract 15 above). The use of Setswana at the discourse initiation stage shows that the teacher was identifying with the class, and signalling that they share the same linguistic system (group identity). Furthermore, Setswana is seen as the appropriate language to establish contact with as well as indicate the relation between the teacher and learners. The use of Setswana for discourse closure also reminded the class that Setswana was the main LoLT.

As is the case during the lessons of subjects taught in English, CS during Setswana lessons was used to present the lesson content as well as to perform social functions of educational value as demonstrated below.

(i) Educational functions of CS during Setswana lessons

The educational functions of CS during Setswana lessons were mainly to:

a. present educational material

CS during Setswana lessons was used to present the content of the lesson as previously demonstrated in Extract 22 above. Similarly, in Extract 32 below, the teacher CS between English and Setswana to present the lesson material.

Extract 32: Setswana lesson

Te: **So**, ke solohela gore mo **debeiting** le a itse **set up** ya teng. E nale melawana …
It's formal mme puisanyo **can be informal**. Ha gongwe le go ntsha **topic** ya teng …
ke ntsha **topic** ke re 'a re ngange'. Jaanong ngangisano yone e **formal**. Go ka twe
'**four** kana yo o buang lantha **five minutes**'. Go nale mmaditsela (chairperson); le
tisetswa sethogo "**paying school fees, discuss**". Ne ke bata le buisanya ka **debate**. A
re a utwana?

Te: So*, I hope you know the set-up in a debate. It has a number of rules … It's formal
but a dialogue / discussion can be informal. Sometimes even suggesting a topic … I
can suggest a topic and say 'let's debate'. Therefore, a debate is formal. It can be
suggested that a speaker may speak for 'four or the first speaker may speak for five
minutes'. There is a Chairperson; you can be given a topic. "…". I wanted you to
speak about a debate. Do you understand?*

C: **Ee**.
   Yes.

Te: **Debate** e nale mo go tweng **rebuttal** … **rebuttal, it gets more points than the
introduction**. **Rebuttal** e tsaya matshwao a mantsi ka gore e supa gore o ne o

reeditse. **It is very important** go reetsa mo **debating**. **That's why in a debate it's very important** gore go nne le **rebuttal**. Go supa gore o ne o reeditse. A re thalogantse?

A debate has what is called rebuttal … rebuttal, it gets more points than the introduction. Rebuttal is awarded a lot of marks because it shows that you have been listening. It is very important to pay attention during a debate. That is why in a debate it is very important that there should be a rebuttal. It shows that you have been listening. Do you understand?

C: **Ee rra**.
   Yes sir.

Te: **O kare nako ya rona e fedile. Go siame.**
   It seems our time is up. Okay.

In Extract 32 above, the teacher is expected to use Setswana only, but he chooses to CS back and forth between Setswana and English. However, while by doing so he may be of the view that he is promoting lesson comprehension, the researcher is of the view that CS in this instance is more of a barrier than a facilitator to learning. Not all the learners may fully understand the meaning of *rebuttal* unless they are in a debating club. CS here is used pragmatically to explain what the word *rebuttal* entails. In addition, the nature of the topic being discussed also gave rise to the use of CS (Blom & Gumperz, 1972, in Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Eldridge (1996, in Kamwangamalu, 2000); Gxilishe (1992, in Moodley, 2001); Hoffman (1991, in Tshinki, 2002); Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Tshinki, 2002). Perhaps the English terms were better known than the Setswana ones. Even though *rebuttal* has its Setswana equivalent **kganetso ka mabaka**, the teacher chose to use the English version. In that regard, CS performs a number of social functions in the same extract, as well. These will be discussed below (cf. Section 7.7.3 ii) (to follow). Similarly, other CS forms below were used:

It is formal (lines 1-2), **can be formal** (line 2), **rebuttal, it gets more points than the introduction** (lines 7-8), **it is very important** (line 9), **that's why in debate it is very important** (line 9).

All these dependent and independent clauses can be expressed in Setswana. In addition, the teacher makes use of CM and the different forms of borrowing. These will be discussed in detail in a separate section (cf. Section 7.8) (to follow).

　　b. CS as a strategy for neutrality

Extract 32 above also serves as an example of the use of CS as a strategy for neutrality. As explained previously, there are costs and rewards of using two languages. Therefore, by CS between the two languages, the teacher is reaping the benefits but at the same time he runs the risk of creating miscommunication in the process.

(ii) The social functions of CS during Setswana lessons

CS also performs a number of social functions in a Setswana class, viz:
　a. To reinforce positively good response in the form of a praise to the participant (cf. Extract 33, line 1 below).

Extract 33: Setswana lesson

Te: **That's it!** Re ne re sa reetsane. **That's very good!** A re re ne re sa reetsane.
We were not listening to each other.　　　　　　　*He says we were not listening to each other.*

 Ke kgalemile ga kae?...
How many times did I call you to order?...

Extract 33 above illustrates the social use of CS as a positive reinforcement. The learner gave a correct answer, and in response, the teacher made use of **That's it** and **That's very good** (line 1) as expressions which signify that he was happy with the response that he got**.** The praise is meant to encourage and reward the participatory behaviour of the participant.

b. CS used to show the teacher's level of education / to display linguistic versatility

Because all the learners in a Setswana class understand Setswana fairly well, there is no need for the Setswana teacher to switch to English during the lesson. However, it seemed from the evidence from the classroom that Setswana teachers CS to English, not because the learners could not understand, but perhaps to display their educational level and to display linguistic versatility. By CS to English, the teacher seemed to be reminding the learners that teaching Setswana did not mean that he / she could not speak English. By the same token, the use of English in a Setswana lesson appeared to be more of a demonstration of the teacher's knowledge of the prestigious language, English than to enhance understanding of the lesson content among the learners. Extract 33 above is an example of the use of CS to display the teacher's level of education and his knowledge of English more than to simplify the material for the learners. The teacher is displaying that he can speak English fluently as much as he speaks Setswana fluently. The teacher uses CS to explain the difference between a *debate* and a *public address*. These three concepts -- debate (**ngangisano**), public address (**puiso phatlalatso**), and rebuttal (**kganetso ka mabaka**) -- all have Setswana equivalents which could have been used. Therefore, the issue is not because his learners cannot follow the explanation fully of what 'a debate' involves if it was made in Setswana, but a subtle demonstration that teaching Setswana does not mean that one cannot speak English fluently.

Extract 34 below contains a comment made by one of the Setswana teachers which confirms the view that at times Setswana teachers use English in class, not because it reinforces learning, but because the teacher wants to display his / her level of education as well as his ability to speak the prestigious language.

Extract 34: Setswana lesson

Te: [TEACHER INTERRUPTS] **A re bue ka Setswana. Ke itse sekgowa go go heta**.

> *Let's speak in Setswana. I know English more than you do.*

.

Ironically, in the same lesson, the same teacher further said:

Te: **He..? Le thola le re chaela mo le re "oaii, mo go ruta Setswana mo!" O kare lona le ruta sekgowa.**
You always scorn us saying, "oaii, (no translation) *this one teaches Setswana!" As if you, you teach English.*

C: [LAUGHTER]

In the first utterance, the teacher orders the learner not to CS to English and instead to use Setswana only because, according to the teacher, there is no need for the learner to use English in a Setswana class as the teacher is more fluent in English than the learner. The second utterance implies that the learners look down upon those teachers who teach Setswana. Therefore, it appears the teacher's use of English during a Setswana class is a demonstration of his fluency in speaking English, like other teachers who teach subjects taught in English. This implies that the Setswana teacher somehow feels inferior in status to his colleagues whose subjects are taught officially in English. Therefore, the teacher feels compelled to constantly remind his learners that he too can speak English by CS during his lessons. What arises from this scenario is that if the teacher of Setswana suffers from an inferiority complex due to the subject he teaches, what effect does it have on the learners' attitude towards his subject? This issue will be revisited in Chapter Eight in the discussion of the study results.

   c.   CS used to show annoyance

In Extract 35 below, the teacher CS to English, the language of authority (Adendorff, 1993; Gila, 1995; Gxilishe (1992, in Moodley, 2001); Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Kembo-Sure & Webb, 2000; Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Tshinki, 2002) to show her annoyance at the learner who appeared not to be paying attention in class.

Extract 35: Setswana lesson

Te: This is the second time **o sa concentrate mo classing**.
   This is the second time *you are not concentrating in class*.

In the extract above, the teacher was delivering the lesson in Setswana. She then realized that one of the learners was not paying attention. She posed a question to him and when he failed to answer correctly, she then scolded him for not paying attention during the lesson. Instead of using Setswana to express her displeasure at the learner's behaviour, she CS to English (in a raised tone) to initiate the discourse in order to sound authoritative, and then CS back to Setswana in discourse closure. In addition, she uses nonce borrowing and borrowing proper in the form of **concentrate** and **classing** respectively. The first expression is a verb stem and its Setswana version is **reetsa**. Therefore, the verb complement **o sa concentrate** is in the negative and its translation is **o sa reetse** meaning *not listening*. **Classing** is an adverb of place meaning **in the classroom**; and its formation is the English noun **class** + Setswana suffix **-ing.** Therefore, **classing** is a result of borrowing proper. **Class** has a Setswana version **ntlo ya borutelo**. However, it is the borrowed form which is commonly used and the word has come to be grammatically integrated into Setswana although it is restricted to spoken communication which is considered informal. Consequently, instead of using the Setswana versions **o sa reetse** and **mo ntlong ya borutelo**, the teacher chose to use nonce borrowing and borrowing proper respectively to convey the same meaning; that the learner is not paying attention during the lesson.

7.8 USE OF BORROWING AND CM FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES

In this section, the use of borrowing (borrowing proper and nonce borrowing) and CM during Setswana lessons are discussed.

7.8.1 Borrowing proper

Borrowing proper (cf. Chapter Two, section 2.3.3) refers to words which have been borrowed from another language assimilated phonologically, morphologically, syntactically and lexically into Setswana and have now come to be accepted as Setswana words. The following are examples of words borrowed from English / Afrikaans and have now been adapted into Setswana such that they are accepted as Setswana words. These words appear in the transcription of a Setswana lesson (cf. Transcription 5 in Addendum C):

Table 7.1: Examples of borrowing proper (English origin)

Borrowing proper	Original word (English / Afrikaans)
Khansele	Council
Goromente	Government
Pase	Pass
Disekerese	Cigarettes
Pherehere	Pepper
Nnoto	Naught
Kopa	Copy
Fila	Feel

The qualitative analysis of the data from lesson observations revealed that during Setswana lessons, there was more use of the different forms of borrowing and CM than CS. At discourse initiation and closure stages, Setswana was used to establish the relation between the teacher and the class and to affirm that it was the LoLT; but CS or borrowing or CM occurred as soon as the formal part of the lesson began. For instance, in Extract 14, line 3, the teacher immediately used a phrasal noun **school fees** which is an example of borrowing proper instead of the Setswana version **lekgetho la sekole** or **tuelo ya sekole**. The English version is widely used and has come to be an accepted term when reference is made to 'tuition fee' in oral communication. Its use cuts across the different educational levels of the speakers. The Setswana version is restricted to written communication.

Smieja (2003: 89) refers to words, such as 'school fees' and other words contained in Table 7.2 below borrowed from one language and used in another language without undergoing any morphological change as 'loan words'. According to Longman's Dictionary of Contemporary English (1995: 841), a loanword is a word taken into one language from another. However, the researcher is of the view that because of the regularity in which they are used, these words are more of examples of borrowing proper than of 'loaning'.

The following are also borrowed words (**borrowing proper)** used throughout the Setswana lesson (cf. Transcription 5):

Table 7.2: Examples of borrowing proper used during the Setswana lesson

Numbers or amount in currency	Period	Technology	Other terms
Four hundred and fifty	Half-time	Cell phone	Debate
Seventy	Weekend	Phone	High Court
Five	five minutes		Fish and chips
Four	Term		Bacon
Five hundred Pula			circle
One thousand Pula			Sorry
Six hundred Pula			Very good
Three Pula			

From the examples in the table above, it is evident that the teacher prefers to use the English words in their original form instead of using their Setswana alternatives even though many of them have direct translations in Setswana or even have well-known Setswana equivalents. The English words used are deemed to be more precise and are better known than their Setswana alternatives which are usually phrasal in form and longer. Many of these words refer to numbers, period or duration, and even concepts originally unavailable in Setswana, such as reference to amount in currency (money) and technology (cf. Kamwangamalu, 2000). The exception with units of currency is that, even though they resist adaptation to the borrowing language (in this case Setswana), they have come to be used in a way that they are more of borrowing proper than nonce borrowing. Borrowing is a normal occurrence in situations of language contact. Throughout the rest of the transcription, there was more use of borrowing proper than nonce borrowing or even CS. Borrowing was not unique to this lesson only; other teachers of Setswana also used it as illustrated in Extract 36 below:

Extract 36: Setswana lesson:

The lesson was conducted by a female teacher in a F 5 class in a peri-urban school. She was introducing the topic of the lesson which was **puiso-batho** (public address).

Te: Ke eng puisanyo? Ha gotwe **speech** sa gagwe se ne se le monate; go a bo go tewa jang?

What is **public address**? *When it is said his/her…was good; what is meant by that*?

The teacher chose to use the word **speech** (borrowing proper), which is commonly used in order to assist the learners to understand what **puisanyo** entailed.

Furthermore, as previously explained in Chapter Two, (cf. 2.3.3 and 2.3.4), although Kamwangamalu (1997: 48) talks of double-plural marking or what Herbert, (1994, in Kieswetter, 1995) call re-borrowing, in this study this concept was not used as it was regarded to be the same form of borrowing proper. The words referred to as examples of re-borrowing are in fact, borrowed words which have acquired a prefix that denotes plural in Setswana as illustrated in the sentence below (obtained from the lesson of the teacher referred to in Extract 36 above):

Te: … o tla bo o kwala **dinotes.**

   *… you will be writing **notes***

The noun **dinotes** is made up of Setswana prefix **di-** that denotes plural form and the English noun **notes**; **–s** is an English suffix that denotes plural if affixed to a noun. The word **dinotes** is commonly used in Setswana and has come to be accepted as part of Setswana vocabulary due to a lack of an original Setswana word to refer to the same thing. The reason for this being that note-taking, like reading and writing are concepts synonymous with formal schooling which was acquired after the arrival of the Europeans. Therefore **dinotes** is an example of borrowing proper in plural form consistent with Setswana formation of plurals. The qualitative analysis of the data showed that this form of borrowing is common in Setswana as indicated in the following examples:

Di-classroom: **Di-** (Tswana prefix signifying plural for a noun) +**classroom**

                = diclassroom (classrooms): noun

Topik-ing: **Topik** + Tswana suffix **–ing =** topiking

Laen-eng: **Line** + Tswana suffix **–eng =** laeneng

Class-ing: **Class** + Tswana suffix **–ing** = classing

Tafol-eng: **Tafel** + Tswana suffix **–ing** = tafoleng (Afrikaans)

Debating: **Debate** + Tswana suffix **–ing** = debating

The formation of the examples above involved affixing either a Setswana prefix or suffix to a verb stem or to a borrowed noun (either from English or Afrikaans); and the

resultant new word could be a Setswana verb or noun or an adverb, yet the origin of such a word is still recognizable.

7.8.2 Nonce borrowing

Nonce borrowing was used also during Setswana lessons but not as much as borrowing proper as illustrated in the table below:

Table 7.3: Examples of nonce borrowing

Nouns	Adjectives / Adverb	Other concepts
Order	In circles	Prioritization
Small house	Whether	Communication
Topic, set up	Broad	Facilitation
	Non-stop	Discussion
		Rebuttal

Borrowing was not from English or Afrikaans only; in other instances the teacher used words which can also be considered examples of borrowing proper, but originating from different Bantu languages as shown in Table 7.4 below:

Table 7.4: Examples of borrowed words from other southern African languages

Borrowed words	Meaning	Language of origin	Form of borrowing
Chaela (bad-mouthing)	Talking to / about someone without respect	Zulu	Nonce borrowing / Borrowing proper
Chaisa (knocking-off)		Zulu	Borrowing proper
Ditaba (news)		Sepedi (Northern Sotho)	Nonce borrowing

Chaela is a corrupted version of a word originating from Zulu but have come to be associated with Tsotsitaal. The Zulu word is **chela**, meaning 'to tell'. This word can be an example of either borrowing proper or nonce borrowing depending on who is using it. If it is used by members of a specific group, then it is an example of borrowing proper, but if it is used as a once off occurrence then it is an example of nonce borrowing. Its Setswana version is **bolelela**. **Chaisa** is a Fanakalo word used to mean 'knocking off'. The word was coined by mine workers to describe a concept of knocking off from a shift; it originates from the Zulu language **shaya** meaning "to hit a gong" at the end of the shift. A concept of reporting for work and knocking off at a set time did not exist in the African culture; hence mine workers came up with a word by

borrowing from Zulu to describe this new concept. Because of its frequent use in oral communication, it has come to be accepted as a term meaning 'knocking off' and is an example of borrowing proper. Its Setswana version is **go ya lwapeng** which is rarely used. **Ditaba** is a Sepedi version for 'news' known as **dikgang** in Setswana. It is an example of nonce borrowing because it is rarely used by Setswana speakers.

In all the instances indicated above, borrowing proper and nonce borrowing, and to a limited extent CM, were used during the presentation of the lesson content. Their abundant use not only signifies the supporting role that English plays during Setswana lessons; but also signifies language contact (Kamwangamalu: 2000). In the classroom, because English and Setswana are the main languages used, the instances of CS, CM and the two types of borrowing described above mainly involve these two languages.

As has been demonstrated above and also in Tables 7.1-7.4 above, the majority of the words used were borrowed largely from English and Afrikaans, except for a few borrowed from Bantu languages like Zulu and Pedi. Therefore, the lists in the tables above give credence to the assertion that there was extensive use of the different forms of borrowing, especially borrowing proper and to some extent, nonce borrowing but less of CS. This is evidence of the effect of English (and to some extent, Afrikaans) on Setswana.

7.8.3 CM

CM, already discussed in Chapter Two (cf. Section 2.3.2), was used to a limited extent as illustrated in the example below. The word **Magomora** is not a Setswana word and it is specific to a particular social group, so its meaning would be understood only by those within the said social group or familiar with the variety used by the social group.

*Magomora: **Ma-** (Tswana prefix signifying plural + **Gomora**

*'**Magomora**' refers to people from the Biblical town of Gomorrah, but used here to refer to a self-named social group of youngsters.

7.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the qualitative data have been analyzed based on the concepts discussed in Chapter Two (cf. Section 2.3); namely, CS and its different forms (inter-sentential, intra-sentential and emblematic CS), CM, and the different forms of borrowing (borrowing proper and nonce borrowing). The analysis revealed the extent of the occurrence of CS during the lessons of both the content and the language subjects. The role of CS in a teaching and learning situation, such as the classroom, was investigated - both its educational and social role in the classroom. Furthermore, as expected, it was revealed that CS was more prevalent in the content subjects than in the language subjects; the teachers of English L and L employed CS the least; and that CM or any form of borrowing were almost non-existent in their classes.

In addition, the analysis revealed that the use of borrowing proper and nonce borrowing was prevalent in the classroom, and they have a role to play to fulfil educational as well as social functions which are also of educational value. Their use was more prevalent during Setswana lessons than in the lessons of other subjects.

In the next chapter, the main research questions will be addressed using both the quantitative data (cf. Chapters Four, Five and Six) and qualitative data in the present chapter. The two sets of data will be used to establish whether they are in harmony with each other and therefore complement one another or whether they contradict one another. The answers obtained to the research questions will then be used to answer the main research question; "the role of CS in a teaching and learning situation in selected senior secondary schools in Botswana".

CHAPTER EIGHT

INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous three chapters dealt with the analysis and presentation of the results derived from both the quantitative and qualitative research methods. The presentation included the selection of the data that provide answers to the research questions outlined in Chapter One of the study. In the present chapter, the research questions will be dealt with in their chronological order by using the data from both the quantitative (Chapters Five and Six) and qualitative (Chapter Seven) analysis commonly known as qual-quan, (cf. Chapter three, Section 3.2, paragraph 4). By so doing, the researcher will reveal whether the data complement or contradict one another. Below each research question, the data used from Chapters Five and Six will be referred to in terms of the applicable table number but they will not be reproduced. Each research question will be dealt with through the views of the teachers and the learners presented separately, followed by a summary that will demonstrate whether the views of the two groups of respondents concur or diverge. The research questions will be answered in chronological order, but the data from Chapters Five and Six, mainly presented in tabular form, will not necessarily be used in chronological order. Rather, the relevance of the data to the research question being answered will dictate which data to use at which stage.

Consequently, there will be cross-references between tables and within tables. The answers to the research questions will cumulatively address the main problem under investigation, namely *The role of* CS *in teaching and learning in selected senior secondary schools in Botswana.*

In this chapter the researcher will also review the literature discussed in Chapter Two in an attempt to provide some answers to some questions that emanated from the review. Because of the inter-relatedness of the research questions, some of the responses were found to be relevant to more than one research question. However, such responses were not repeated – the researcher only referred to them.

The main research questions that directed the collection of data for the study are as follows:

1. *What are the defining characteristics of the phenomenon of* CS*?*
2. *To what extent is CS used in educational settings in Botswana?*
3. *Can the phenomena in the classrooms of Botswana be called* CS*?*
4. *Question Four was divided into four parts, as follows:*
   - *What are the didactic consequences of* CS *in the schools?*
   - *Is* CS *educationally beneficial?*
   - *Does the use of CS in a classroom situation slow down the pace of teaching and learning to the extent that it is detrimental to content coverage within the prescribed time?*
   - *Is the practice of* CS *from English to Setswana in a classroom situation discriminatory to non-Setswana speakers?*
5. *Question Five was also divided into three parts as follows:*
   - *Does the use of* CS *in a classroom situation violate the LiEP in Botswana?*
   - *Is the LiEP in harmony with the practical realities of the classroom situation?*
   - *If this were the case, should the LiEP be revised to ensure that the LoLT promotes maximum delivery and acquisition of knowledge and skills development?*
6. *Does the current LiEP and practice promote negative perceptions about Setswana and other local languages?*

8.2 RESEARCH QUESTION ONE: WHAT ARE THE DEFINING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PHENOMENON OF CS?

This question was answered mainly through information from the literature review pertaining to what the other scholars said about what CS is. First, the MLF model (Myers-Scotton, 1993a) and the MLP (Kamwangamalu, 1989a, 1990, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 267) used as conceptual framework in the present study will be applied to the data drawn from the qualitative data collected through classroom observations to determine whether the phenomenon that transpires in the classroom is

CS as universally defined or not. If that is not the case, an attempt will be made to describe how the phenomenon that occurs in the classrooms of Botswana violates what constitutes CS according to various authors consulted in the literature review (Auer, 1984; Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Kieswetter, 1995; Milroy & Muysken, 1995; Kamwangamalu, 1996, 2000; Heredia & Altarriba, 2001; Li, 2002; Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004). Second, in attempting to establish the function of this phenomenon in a teaching and learning situation, Hymes' SPEAKING mnemonic will be applied.

Several scholars (cf. Chapter Two, Section 2.3.1) essentially agree on the following as the defining characteristics of CS:

- In CS there must be at least two languages: the ML (dominant language) that plays the dominant role in CS and, as such, its syntactic structure is preserved or remains unchanged; and the EL (guest language), which takes the morphological and phonological structure of the ML and, as such, its syntactic structure is violated. Consequently, the internal constituent structure of the EL items conforms to the constituent structure of the host language.
- The speaker(s) who engage(s) in the two languages must be fluent in both.
- CS takes place when a speaker or speakers use(s) the two languages in the same conversation in conversational turns or within the same sentence of a turn.
- There is a difference between CS, CM, and borrowing: Whilst CS involves using two or more languages within the same conversational turn (inter-sentential CS) or within the same sentence of that turn (intra-sentential CS), CM refers to the use of linguistic units that contain morphemes from both languages (host and guest languages) within single words that have not been phonologically and morphologically integrated into the host language (Kieswetter, 1955: 22).
- Borrowing involves the use of borrowed words or phrases that are assimilated phonologically, morphologically, syntactically and lexically into the host language (Bokamba, 1988 and Herbert, 1994, in Kieswetter, 1995, 13-14 and 18-19 respectively).

Focusing on the classroom situation in Botswana, the main languages used are English and Setswana. In CS, English plays a lesser role and therefore, it is the EL; Setswana plays a major role in CS, and is the ML as its syntactic structure licenses the use of linguistic units from the EL. English is the official LoLT in the teaching of all school subjects except in the teaching of Setswana as a subject. Consequently, it is expected that the teaching of all subjects be done in English only, except in the teaching of Setswana, which is expected to be done in Setswana only. Yet, from the quantitative and the qualitative data collected through respectively questionnaires and lesson observations, it has been observed that CS between English and Setswana takes place in the classroom irrespective of the subject taught. However, there is more CS during lessons of content subjects than during lessons of language subjects. To some extent, CS also takes place in a Setswana class from Setswana to English, but not at the same rate as the use of Setswana during lessons of subjects taught in English, particularly content subjects.

Examining the data from the classroom, the researcher will seek to establish if the phenomenon that occurs in the classrooms in Botswana conforms to the characteristics of CS outlined above. The examples will be drawn from several lessons in the subjects observed in the study, and, more specifically, from those that have been transcribed (cf. Addendum C).

As already demonstrated from the presentation of the qualitative data in the previous chapter, the data collected from the classroom reveal several incidents of CS involving mainly English and Setswana (cf. Extracts 11, 12, 16 – 21 for CS to Setswana; and Extracts 22 and 23 for CS to English). Extract 37 below provides an example of CS in the classroom during a Biology lesson.

Extract 37: Biology lesson

Te: …We mentioned that the globule molecules **tse e leng gore di dule le** the

Which were removed with

filtrates, remember **ha re <u>expecta</u> go bona** a filtrate to the tissue fluid. **Gakere**?

here we expect to see   *isn't it so*?

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C: **Ee**.

    Yes.

Te: **Ee! Ke rile** that is equivalent or similar to the tissues fluid.

    Yes, I said……………………………………………..

    Now **ke yone e e leng gore re a go e bitsa re re ke the** filtrate.

    it is the one which we are going to call …………………..

The extract above shows that CS mainly takes place between English and Setswana. The teacher can choose to initiate the discourse either in English and then switch over to Setswana (cf. line 1 above); or vice versa (cf. line 4 above) within the same sentence or from one sentence to the other. This flexible use of English and Setswana demonstrates the teacher's fluency in both languages. The example also shows that the ML is Setswana and the EL is English as the verb used in the extract **expecta** (line 2) is a result of nonce borrowing. An English verb *expect*, which has been affixed with the Setswana suffix **–a** so that it assumes the morphological structure of Setswana. Therefore, the syntactic structure of Setswana remains unchanged while that of English is violated because English does not form verbs by using **–a** as suffixes. The result is that the internal constituent structure of English conforms to the constituent structure of Setswana. Extract 38 below from Transcription 1 (Biology lesson) demonstrates the use of English verbs that have taken the morphological and phonological structure of Setswana to conform to its syntactic structure when used in a sentence.

Extract 38: Biology lesson

(Lines 98 -102)

Te: **Ga tweng**?

  What are you saying?

 Ln 6: (   ) further explains in Setswana

Te: **Ee**.

    Yes.

Ln 6: (   ) **… go <u>patchiwa</u>.**

… to patch.

Te: Go **patchiwa** ha kae?

   Where do we patch?

(Lines 134 - 135)

Te: **Ga le itse**? Le teng la high blood! **Ee, ka re jaanong motho yoo o ka advisiwa**

   You don't know? It is there of...! Yes, I am saying that person can be advised

   gore a je eng thata, **a seka a ja eng thata**? **Ke yone potso yame**.

   that he / she should eat more of what, and less of what? That is my question.

(Lines 142 - 146)

Te: **Go raya gore** instead of getting … **go raya gore** in other words, water can be

   It means that……………….….... it means that……………………………

   diverted … instead of the person urinating frequently, the person can remove faeces

   frequently.

C: [LAUGHTER, SOME SHOWING SURPRISE.]

T: **Nnyaya, mme ke botse potso ele nngwe hela hela**. Ha motho a tsenywe ke mala

   No, let me ask one question only. If a person has diarrhoea

   go a diragala gore a urineite kgapetsa?

   Does it happen that he / she should urinate frequently?

   (Lines 169 - 173)

Te: **Ee**! So **batho ba** (   ) will always be advised not to take in a lot of proteins, but

   Yes! ... these people ………………………………………………………………….

   to take in a lot of roughage **jaaka a ne a bua … Ka goreng**? **Ka gore mpa e ta a**

   ……………………….like he was saying...why? Because the stomach will be

   tala … **e tala ee…**what can be removed very fast but **go sa forme** a lot of toxic

   full ... it will be full yes……………………………. but without forming ………

   material **eleng** the urea; **ke a utwala**?

      which is .....; Am I understood?

C: **Ee**.

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Yes.

The following English verbs, which appear in the extract above and have already been presented in Chapter Seven, have assumed Setswana suffixes as a result of nonce borrowing so that they conform to Setswana morphological structure in the sentences in which they have been used:

1. Go patch-**iwa** (lines 101 - 102)
   To be patched
2. Advis-**iwa** (line 134)
   To be advised
3. Urene**ite** (line 146)
   Urinate
4. Form-e (line 171)
   Form

The use of English verbs in this manner was not unique to the Biology class. Other teachers also used them in the teaching of other subjects, as exemplified by the following:

1. **o appear –a** (Home Economics)
   she appears
2. **a chusa** (Home Economics)
   when choosing
3. **go prioritaez-a** (Setswana)
   to prioritize
4. **Clean-ang** (History)
   You (plural) clean

CS is also classified as either inter-sentential, or intra-sentential, or emblematic (tag-like). All these forms of CS were used during the lessons as illustrated and explained in the previous chapter (cf. Extracts 11, 12, 16 - 20, 22 and 23). Both the teachers of content and language subjects employed all three the forms of CS. Contrary to the observation made by Moyo (1996) that more competent bilinguals tended to use intra-

sentential CS, while less competent bilinguals tended to use inter-sentential CS in the form of emblematic switches, this was not the case in the present study. It was observed that the teachers employed all three the forms of CS, yet none displayed a lack of proficiency in English.

The data from the classroom therefore shows that CS was used by the teachers across the different subjects as defined in Chapter Two (cf. Section 2.3.1). The data generally conformed to all the characteristics of CS in that CS essentially involved English and Setswana. Although in the classroom English is supposed to be the main language and therefore the dominant language in CS, in actual fact the reverse is true; it is mainly Setswana that licences how CS should take place. English is the EL as previously explained (cf. Section 8.2 above). The teachers were generally fluent in both Setswana and English, and the two languages were used mainly in the same conversation inter-sententially or intra-sententially. Furthermore, Setswana as the ML had its syntactic structure preserved, while that of English, the guest language, was violated such that the morphosyntactic structure of English was affected. The end result was that the English constituent structure conformed to the morphosyntactic structure of Setswana. However, in some cases, especially during the lessons of the content subjects, there was extensive use of Setswana in lieu of English, the official LoLT. It was this excessive use of Setswana during the lessons of the subjects that were supposedly taught in 'English' that the researcher found problematic. In a CS situation, the language of the event should be easily identified. However, in many of the classes in the content subjects, it was not so easy to identify English as the LoLT because of the simultaneous use of both English and Setswana throughout the duration of the lesson. This issue will be further dealt with under Research Question Three that addresses whether the phenomenon that occurs in the Botswana classrooms can rightly be referred to as CS.

Moyo (1996) further asserted that CS constituted a register that could be described as a third variety of a given profession or vocation. The researcher, however, does not share this notion as already described in Chapter Two (Section 2.5). Instead, she shares the view of Akindele and Letsoela (2001) that CS is used as a teaching strategy. What emerged from the present study is that, what may be regarded as new vocabulary is, in fact, words that are a result of nonce-borrowing or borrowing proper. However,

Moyo qualified his observation by stating that often such words are used in informal conversations. The present study focuses on CS in a formal environment such as the classroom, so the use of such vocabulary would only be limited to spoken communication; but not be used in written communication. Furthermore, what Moyo described as the speaker's affiliation to dual cultures as a result of CS is, in fact, the use of CS to show one's educational level, as was the case during Setswana lessons when teachers CS.

8.3 RESEARCH QUESTION TWO: TO WHAT EXTENT IS CS USED IN EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS IN BOTSWANA?

This research question was answered by analyzing the teachers' responses to the questions contained in Tables 5.5, 5.7, 5.8, 5.9, 5.19, and 5.20 (cf. Chapter Five); and the learners' responses to the questions contained in Tables 6.4, 6.14, 6.15, 6.18, and 6.19 (cf. Chapter Six). The questions were mainly on CS between English and Setswana. The teachers were asked about:

- their attitude towards CS in general;
- the extent to which they CS in the classroom;
- instances when they allowed their learners to CS;
- when the learners CS without being sanctioned by the teacher; and
- the teachers' CS to a local language.

8.3.1. Teachers' responses

a. Attitude towards CS

The results showed that there were more teachers than not, irrespective of the subject they taught, who did not approve of the learners' CS in class. However, the extent of disapproval varied between teachers of content subjects and teachers of language subjects. This was indicated by 54% of the teachers of subjects taught in 'English', 64% of Setswana teachers, and 69% of all the teachers in the study (irrespective of the subject taught) who disapproved of CS to a local language, such as Ikalanga (cf. Table 5.5). The results suggest that although CS is used, some teachers, irrespective of the subject they teach, do not support its use by the learners. The results also showed that

Setswana teachers strongly disapproved of the learners' CS to English, more than the teachers of subjects taught in English disapproved of CS to Setswana. In fact, none of the Setswana teachers said CS use during Setswana lessons did not bother them. Only a few teachers of the subjects taught in English (3%), indicated that the practice did not bother them. The results further revealed that the majority of the teachers objected more to CS from English to a local language than to Setswana, and even than from Setswana to English. This suggests that CS to a local language was more unlikely to take place than CS to either Setswana or to English. Again the results suggest that CS was more likely to occur during classes taught in English than during Setswana classes.

b. CS from English to Setswana

The results also showed that there were more teachers (53%) who said they do not CS from English to Setswana in a class taught in English, and from Setswana to English during a Setswana lesson than those who said they do (47%). One teacher further stated that he CS between English and a local language (cf. Table 5.7). The results suggest that although CS is used in the classroom, not all the teachers are in support of its use. The results also showed that there were more teachers who allowed their learners to CS to Setswana or to English in their classes (58%). However, 42% of the teachers said they never allowed their learners to CS during their lessons. Twenty-five percent of these were teachers of Setswana; and 17% were teachers of subjects taught in English. The results imply that Setswana is used as an alternative LoLT in the classroom even though there is no official pronouncement on this practice. This practice signals the presence of CS in teaching and learning.

Furthermore, the results showed that CS was limited to oral communication as stated by 58% of the teachers of the subjects taught in 'English' (cf. Table 5.9). This seemed to suggest that CS was strictly a strategy for facilitating spoken communication in class essentially where there was a problem of communication in the official language of instruction. The other 42% were Setswana teachers who stated that learners were allowed to use Setswana in both speaking and writing as was expected.

c. CS from Setswana to English (during a Setswana lesson)

The results (cf. Table 5.13) showed that the majority of the teachers of Setswana (84%) CS to English during their lessons to clarify a particular point that seemed unclear when explained in Setswana. However, 64% of them said that they did not allow their learners to CS to English even if they had difficulty explaining themselves in Setswana. The results showed that CS also took place in Setswana classes; and that the teachers freely CS, as and whenever they needed to during the lesson. However, the same dispensation was not extended to the learners, as shown by only 36% of teachers who admitted that they allowed the learners to CS to English in their classes. However, some Setswana teachers, even though they were in the minority, recognized the value of CS in class, namely that it served to facilitate teaching and learning by either the teacher or the learner where the LoLT (English for subjects taught in English and Setswana during Setswana lessons) in use was not effective.

d. CS to a local language

CS to a local language minimally occurred as stated by the 63% of the teachers (cf. Table 5.19). Ikalanga was given as the main local language to which CS took place, as stated by 96% of the 78 teachers who responded (cf. Table 5.20). This was expected, given that Ikalanga is the language of the area in which the research was based, spoken by over 50% of the teachers. This suggests that in rare cases, CS also involved a local language.

8.3.2. Learners' responses

Learners were also asked about their attitude towards CS in general; the extent of their own CS in class; the extent of the teachers' CS, be it from English to Setswana or vice versa; and the extent of the teachers' CS to a local language. Their responses were as follows:

- The results showed that, generally, the learners' opinion about the teachers' CS was positive (Table 6.4).
- Thirty-nine percent of the learners said they had no objection to the teachers' CS from English to Setswana, but 23% objected. Similarly, 42% of the

learners stated that they did not object to the teachers' CS to a local language; but only 27% objected. However, there were more learners who stated that they did not support CS from Setswana to English in a Setswana class than those who said they had no objection (36% vs. 34%).

- The results suggest that the majority of the learners did not object to CS to either Setswana or to a local language, but they seemed to have a problem with CS to English in a Setswana class.
- Furthermore, the majority of the learners indicated that they supported the teacher's CS for the promotion of learning.

The results (cf. Table 6.14) showed that the number of learners who stated that they sometimes CS from Setswana to English in a Setswana class and those who said they never do was almost the same (55: 56). The results suggest that CS occurs in a Setswana class and that both the teachers and learners used it. However, the teachers were reluctant to extend the same dispensation to learners (cf. Table 6.15), as indicated by 58% and 62% respectively. CS to a local language also took place, as stated by 53% of the learners. However, this form of CS was not as common as CS to Setswana or to English as evidenced by 47% who said it did not occur (cf. Table 6.18). Ninety percent of the learners named Ikalanga as the local language to which some teachers normally CS in class (cf. Table 6.19). This is not unexpected, given the fact that Ikalanga is the home language of the majority of the learners (over 46%) and is further spoken by 70% of the learners, including those for whom it was not a HL. The other local languages were hardly used in class.

The results suggest that although CS in the classroom was mainly between English and Setswana, at times it also involved a local language, Ikalanga.

8.3.3 Summary of teachers' and learners' attitudes towards CS

The results showed that generally the teachers CS and also allowed the learners to CS, and that CS takes place during the lessons of subjects taught in "English" as well as during Setswana lessons. Where CS was allowed, it was restricted to spoken communication only. Generally, the teachers' and the learners' attitudes towards CS were positive even though the former (teachers) expressed concern about its use by the

learners. This was contrary to the findings by Lawson and Sachdev (2000) from their study of CS in a university environment in Tunisia. They found that the general attitudes towards CS in a formal learning environment, like the classroom, were negative. In the present study, both the teachers and learners viewed it as educationally beneficial. However, Setswana teachers felt more strongly about its use by the learners than the teachers of the other subjects. In fact, most of the Setswana teachers said that CS during Setswana lessons bothered them, while very few of the other teachers, indicated that the practice did not bother them (64% vs. 3%). The results also suggest that CS also involved a local language, such as Ikalanga. This shows that although no other local language besides Setswana is taught or used officially in the school system, the usefulness of these languages in education cannot be denied.

The results further revealed that, on the one hand, the majority of the teachers objected more to CS from English to a local language than from English and Setswana. On the other hand, the majority of the learners did not object to CS to either Setswana or a local language, but they seemed to have a problem with CS to English in a Setswana class.

The results also showed that both the teachers and the learners agreed that there was CS during Setswana lessons even though some of the teachers said that they did not allow it. The same view was confirmed by the learners, namely that the majority of the teachers of Setswana did not allow their learners to CS. This was ironic; if teachers CS, they should allow their learners to do likewise.

8.3.4 The qualitative data

The data from the observations of the lessons also confirmed the teachers' and the learners' responses that there is CS irrespective of the subject taught, the school setting (urban or peri-urban), the teachers' gender, and the class level (grade) taught. A similar observation was made by Akindele and Letsoela (2001). The data revealed that even though CS was used across the different subjects, its prevalent use was found more during the lessons of the content subjects than during the lessons of the language subjects (cf. Addendum C). The reason for this could be that CS in a lesson on a

language subject would be contrary to the objective of language development that is primary in such lessons. However, during lessons of content subjects, the primary objective is to ensure the comprehension of the contents of the lessons among learners.

The LiEP of Botswana states that all subjects, apart from Setswana, should be taught in English. Despite this formal policy, CS to Setswana was found to be a common occurrence in the classroom. It mainly occurred during the lessons of content subjects (Biology, Home Economics, and History) than during the lessons of language subjects (English and Setswana). Apart from being used to greet the learners and to convey housekeeping matters at the beginning of the lesson, CS was also used to present the lesson material, as illustrated in Chapter Seven: Extract 6: Biology, Extract 7: Home Economics, Extracts 18 and 20-21: History. CS in an English (L and L) lesson occurred at discourse initiation stage to greet the learners, but during the course of the lesson its use was minimal (cf. Extracts 11-13 and Extract 30 respectively). Conversely, during Setswana lessons, CS occurred from Setswana to English as demonstrated in Extracts 22-23 and 32-36, also referred to in Chapter Seven.

a. CS during the lessons of content subjects

Evidence from classroom observations showed that CS was more prevalent during the lessons of the content subjects. For instance, during the Biology class, the teacher initiated the discourse by greeting the class in Setswana, and called them to order in preparation for the formal part of the lesson (cf. Extract 1). As soon as the formal part of the lesson began, she switched to English; and as the lesson progressed, she CS to Setswana but still delivering the academic content of the lesson (Extract 6). Throughout the lesson, the teacher maintained the same style of alternating between the use of English and Setswana. The extract (and Extract 7, as well) shows that although the lesson was supposed to be conducted in English, CS was used throughout the duration of the lesson. At discourse finalization stage, the teacher switched back to Setswana (cf. Extract 4).

The use of Setswana at discourse initiation stage to exchange greetings, to perform housekeeping matters, to call the class to order, and also at discourse finalization stage to communicate non-academic issues, suggests that Setswana is the language to use

when communicating socio-educational matters in the classroom. However, the teacher was aware that English was the expected language to use when delivering the lesson, hence he / she switched from Setswana to English as soon as the formal segment of the lesson began. This practice was short-lived as the teacher switched back to Setswana during the course of the lesson (Extract 6). In addition, social utterances, such as 'asides' (Extract 8) or admonitions (Extract 9) were made in Setswana as previously presented in Chapter Seven.

The same pattern of CS use was also observed during the lessons of other content subjects as already demonstrated in the previous chapter (cf. Extracts 2, 5 and 7 for Home Economics and Extract 3 for History). However, it is worth noting that there was minimal use of CS and other related concepts such as borrowing or CM during this particular History lesson compared to other lessons of content subjects. This was an exception but not the norm as evidenced during the other History lessons observed.

b. CS during English (L and L) lessons

The situation was different during English (L and L) lessons. There was minimal CS and often Setswana was limited to the exchange of greetings at discourse initiation stage (Extract 10). The teacher greeted the class in Setswana, but instead of responding in Setswana, the learners responded in English. Thereafter, the main language of communication was English. Evidence shows that the learners had understood the rule, namely that communication was in English only, even though the teacher would CS to Setswana. If any CS was employed, it was during the development stage of the lesson. The most frequently used form of CS was emblematic CS (Extract 12) in the form of a tag **ga ke re**, which has no English translation but is used to imply that the listener is following what is being said, or is in agreement. It has a phatic function and its use is not in any way linked to the speaker's proficiency in English or the lack of it. Rather, it occurs in the speech of Setswana speakers regardless of what language is being used. The discourse finalization was done in English, and no CS was used (cf. Extract 13).

c. CS during Setswana lessons

CS during Setswana lessons, be it grammar or literature, was minimal. Greetings were always exchanged in Setswana; and the introduction of the lesson was also made in Setswana with a gradual infusion of borrowing (Extract 14). During the development stage of the lesson, minimal CS was employed (cf. Extracts 22 and 23). Evidence from the classroom showed that Setswana teachers engaged borrowing (nonce borrowing and borrowing proper) more than CS (cf. Extracts 32, 33-36 and 42). At the end, the lesson was concluded in Setswana (Extract 15).

The data therefore revealed that, during the lessons of the content subjects, CS was used throughout; whilst during English (L and L) lessons, it was limited to greetings at discourse initiation stage and was used minimally thereafter. Contrarily, during Setswana lessons, CS was not used at discourse initiation and finalization stages: its use was during the development stage of the lesson. However, the use of borrowing was more significant than the use of CS.

8.3.5 Functions of CS in the classroom

(a) CS to deliver the lesson content

The extent of CS use also revealed its functions. Observation revealed that CS was used to deliver the lesson content, as well as for social functions. These functions are further explained below.

CS use for delievering the lesson content was prevalent during the lessons of content subjects than during the lessons of language subjects. Often the teacher initiated the discourse in English, be it an explanation or a question. Recognizing that what he / she is saying may not be readily comprehensible to the learners, he / she then switched to Setswana as the lesson progressed. Thereafter, the alternate use of the two languages continued throughout the lesson (cf. Chapter Seven, Extract 6 for a Biology lesson and Extract 25 for a Home Economics lesson). Owing to the teacher's switching to Setswana, the learners understood this to mean that they, too, could respond in Setswana. The teacher did not object to the learners' use of Setswana, and the lesson progressed through the use of the two languages. All three the forms of CS -- intra-

sentential CS, inter-sentential CS, and emblematic CS -- were employed during the discourse. The prevalent use of CS in this way implied that it was used mainly as a teaching strategy (Adendorff, 1993; Akindele & Letsoela, 2001). The primary concern for the teachers of these subjects was to promote understanding of the lesson content among learners because they knew that the learners' English language proficiency was inadequate.

During English (L and L) lessons, CS was also used to facilitate teaching, even though minimally so (cf. Chapter Seven Extract 11). Both intra-sentential and inter-sentential CS were used in the discourse. The former (intra-sentential CS) is used to complete a sentence that is used to explain the content of the lesson, and the latter (inter-sentential CS) is used to emphasise the message presented in the previous sentence uttered in English. During the lesson, the learners' utterances are limited to brief answers in English, or responses denoting agreement or disagreement through the use of either 'yes' or 'no' in a chorus (Arthur, 2001). It appears that during the lessons of English (L and L), the rule is well understood that participation on the part of the learners is in English only. Once again, only the teachers have the prerogative to minimally CS or even to employ borrowing. The same freedom is not extended to the learners. CS was also used to repeat in Setswana for clarification purposes, the lesson material already presented in the LoLT (cf. Chapter Seven, Extract 30). This way CS is used instructionally.

During Setswana lessons, CS use was very minimal; rather it was the different forms of borrowing -- nonce borrowing and borrowing proper, as well as CM as demonstrated in the previous chapter (cf. section 7.8) that were used more (for instructional purposes). The use of CS or any of its related concepts was during the formal part of the lesson (cf. Extract 22 and 23). None of the teachers observed used English at discourse-initiation stage to greet the class or to discuss housekeeping matters with their classes. Similarly, at discourse-closure stage, the teacher wound up the lesson in Setswana, including dismissing the class. In some instances of CS use or borrowing or CM, it seemed the teacher compensated for some deficiency in Setswana terminology to name or explain a particular concept, especially where reference was being made to a concept or situation originally foreign to Setswana culture. A similar observation was made by Hussein (1999) from his study on the use of CS in a university

environment in Jordan. He observed that, because his informants were studying Arabic, they switched to English where English terms had no Arabic equivalents, especially for scientific concepts. In the researcher's view, this is not CS, but nonce borrowing. This also confirms the observation made by Kembo-Sure and Webb (2000: 123) that words that refer to technology often prompt the use of nonce borrowing or even borrowing proper. In this way, CS was used as a deferential strategy (Appel & Muysken, 1987), when the speaker realizes that he / she lacks knowledge of the language being used or lacks facility in that language on a certain topic being discussed. This practice occurred in the Setswana lessons as soon as the formal part of the lesson had begun until the lesson had ended. The teascher reverted to Setswana in order to conclude the lesson.

b. CS is used to perform social functions

CS was used to perform the following social functions in the classroom:

- To exchange greetings at the initial stage of the lesson and to dismiss the class at the final stage of the lesson (cf. Extract 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 10, 13 in Chapter 5). This was observed during the lessons of subjects taught in English. This is similar to CS use for closure (Blommaert (1992, in Kamwangamalu, 2000); Nwoye (1992, in Moodley, 2001); Martin-Jones, 1994);
- to perform housekeeping matters at the beginning of the lesson (cf. Extract 2 and 3);
- to signal exasperation (cf. Extract 8 above): this is an expressive function of CS (Myers-Scotton, 1993a);
- to show impatience and to admonish the class (cf. Extract 9 above): a phatic function (Myers-Scotton, 1993a);
- to check if learners are following the lesson (cf. Extract 26): (Arthur, 2001; Adendorff, 1993; Akindele & Letsoela, 2001); and
- to amuse the class (cf. Extract 27).
- To communicate in a sarcastic way (Extract 31, lines 5-6).
- to show one of the phatic functions, namely group identification or group membership / solidarity (Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Nwoye (1992, in

Moodley, 2001; Kieswetter, 1995; Flowers (2000, in Moodley, 2001; Akindele & Letsoela, 2001; Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Moodley, 2001): This was the most common form of CS and was used mainly when teachers initiated the discourse in Setswana to greet their classes. This is a marker of group identification -- to show group membership or group solidarity -- by the teachers with their learners; namely, that they were members of the same linguistic community. Setswana as a national language is spoken by almost all learners even though it is not a MT for a significant proportion of them, as previously explained in Chapter Six. When CS is used in this way, it is said to be a *sequential unmarked choice* within Myers-Scotton's MM (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 114; Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Molosiwa, 2006). However, because it occurs in a class that is supposed to be taught in English, CS becomes a marked choice.

- to demonstrate ethnic identity (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Myers-Scotton, 1993a): This form of CS use was very rare, except in an instance in which one English Language teacher opted to use the local language (Ikalanga) to greet his class. Although 18% of the teachers and 46% of the learners said Ikalanga was their HL, it was generally not used during the lessons observed.

- to serve as a positive reinforcement in the form of a praise after a learner had given a correct answer (cf. Extract 33) -- CS use this way serves a phatic function;

- to show the teacher's level of education (cf. Extract 32). In the latter instance, Moyo (1996: 27) observed that CS use in this way may mark 'some ambivalent ethnic identity, which usually indicates the speakers' dual affiliation to the two cultures'. However, the researcher concurs with Gibbons (1983), Kieswetter (1995), Moodley (2001), and Tshinki (2002) that the speakers (and teachers) used CS as a sign of their educational level or social identity or even prestige (Tshinki, 2002) rather than as a sign of 'ethnic identity'.

- to show authority and / or annoyance (cf. Extract 35);

- CS as a strategy for neutrality (cf. Extract 32);

- and owing to the topic discussed (Blom & Gumperz, 1972, in Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Hoffman (1991, in Tshinki, 2002; Gxilishe, 1992 and

Elridge, 1996, in Moodley, 2001; Moodley, 2001; Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Tshinki, 2002) (cf. Extracts 32 and 36).

In addition to the above social functions, CS can also be used as follows:

- CS as a deferential strategy: this is when the addressee responds to the first speaker in the language he / she deems appropriate for the occasion instead of the language used by the first speaker (Myers-Scotton, 1993). This form of CS was used minimally, such as when the teacher initiated his question in English, but did not get any response from the learners. Therefore, he decided to repeat the same question in Setswana. One learner responded to the question in English even though the teacher had repeated the question in Setswana (cf. Extract 30). This form of response was an exception rather than a rule. The learner seemed to have understood that English was the appropriate language of communication during this lesson. This form of CS use was observed during a History lesson as well as during an English (L and L) lesson.

- to show emphasis (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Hoffman (1991, in Tshinki, 2002); Gila, 1995; Kieswetter, 1995; Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Ncoko (1998, in Moodley, 2001; Moodley, 2001; Tshinki, 2002): The same example in Extract 30 can serve as an illustration of the use of CS to show emphasis. The teacher CS to Setswana to repeat a question asked initially in English.

   - CS as a strategy for neutrality (Myers-Scotton, 1993a): this form of CS is used when the speaker employs two codes at the same time because he / she realizes that the use of each of the two codes has its own value in terms of the costs and rewards which accrue with its use. The speaker avoids speaking only one code so as not to commit himself / herself to a single Rights and Obligations Sets (RO Sets) (Myers-Scotton, 1993a). While the use of CS in this way gives the speaker a dual identity, it also serves as a strategy for neutrality. In a class that is taught in English, the use of Setswana gives the speaker the benefits of using both languages. This form of CS is common in the classroom, especially during the lessons of content subjects (cf. Chapter Seven, Extract 29). Setswana teachers also employed

this form of CS as well as borrowing (cf. Extracts 32). The teacher CS back and forth between English and Setswana or vice versa. This form of CS is not only a strategy for neutrality but is also a display of linguistic versatility. In addition, the use of CS in this way is meant to encourage the learners to participate in the learning process (Adendorff, 1993; Arthur, 2001).

Consequently, CS can either be from English to Setswana during the classes of subjects taught in 'English'; or it can be from Setswana to English in a Setswana class. The former was more prevalent during the teaching of content subjects (History, Home Economics and Biology) than during the teaching of English (L and L). It should also be noted that during English (L and L) classes, CS was used minimally both for educational and social functions. The explanation for this scenario was that the teachers of English were required to be exemplary in assisting the learners to acquire proficiency in English. This included teaching in English and also encouraging their learners to speak English. CS during their classes was viewed as behaviour that was contrary to the objectives of English (L and L) teaching.

Although the respondents stated that there was limited CS to a local language, the qualitative data did not support this. None of the teachers used the local language to present the lesson content or even asked a learner to respond in Ikalanga, except for two isolated incidents. One teacher greeted his class in the local language (Ikalanga) to show ethnic identity or to show solidarity (Molosiwa, 2006) as already mentioned above; and another teacher of Setswana asked a learner if he wanted to respond to the teacher's question in Ikalanga. However, the offer was declined and the learner responded in Setswana.

The teachers used both discourse-related CS and participant-related CS (Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2004). The former organizes conversation by contributing to the interactional meaning of a particular utterance and, in the latter, switches correspond to the preferences of the individual who performs the switching or those of co-participants in the conversation (Auer, 1984, 1998, in Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004: 502). Teachers used *discourse-related* CS as the lesson progressed to make asides (Extract 8), to quote, or even to move in and out of the lesson. They used

participant-related CS when they anticipated that the learners would not readily understand what was being said in English, and therefore CS to the language which the majority of the learners understood. While Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain also observed that the learners used these two patterns of CS, as well, the researcher however observed that, in the present study, it was mainly *participant-related* CS that the learners used to respond to the teacher's questions during the lessons of the subjects taught in 'English'. This was largely because there was minimal active learner participation in the learning process. Participant-related CS suggested that both the teachers and the learners appreciate the importance of communicating in the language in which they were fluent.

The qualitative data also confirmed the quantitative data that during Setswana lessons, it was the different forms of borrowing that were mainly used and less of CS. This scenario is due to a number of factors, among them the teachers' level of education, a lack of Setswana words which could precisely describe a particular concept due to its origin and as a result of language contact. Furthermore, like during lessons taught in English, both the teachers and learners used both discourse-related CS and participant-related CS during Setswana lessons because of their fluency in Setswana. Discourse-related CS is used to mark the content of a meta-linguistic comment (or to set off an aside) or to mark a topic shift (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004).

The question to address, therefore, is whether language use during the lessons of the subjects that were taught in 'English' can rightly be referred to as CS as espoused by different scholars and also reiterated earlier in Chapter Two. This question is answered in detail in the next research question.

8.4 RESEARCH QUESTION THREE: CAN THE PHENOMENON IN BOTSWANA CLASSROOMS BE CALLED CS?

This research question can be dealt with on the basis of the teachers' and learners' responses to the questions contained in Table 5.10 and Table 6.8 respectively (cf. Chapters Five and Six). Both questions probed whether the use of Setswana by teachers and learners in class was due to an inability to express themselves well in English or not.

The majority of the teachers (65%) were of the view that their CS to Setswana during the lessons of subjects taught in English did not signal a lack of proficiency in English. In the teachers' view, they CS to Setswana in class to assist the learners who have difficulty following a lesson presented in English, not because they themselves have problems with self-expression in English. While 41% of the learners attributed the teachers' CS to a lack of fluency in English, 36% did not think so. In addition, nearly a quarter of the learners (23%) did not provide a definite view on why teachers CS to Setswana in class. On the learners' CS to Setswana, the majority of both the teachers (77%) and the learners (63%) shared the view that this signalled a lack of proficiency in English. While the learners' opinion regarding their CS to Setswana in class was very clear (that the learners CS to overcome a language problem), it was not so clear regarding that of the teachers.

The results suggest that the learners CS in class mainly because they were unable to express themselves well in English. Therefore, they switch over to Setswana to overcome this difficulty. Consequently, the teachers' CS in class is mainly to accommodate the learners' English language deficiency. The use of CS in this way is regarded as an accommodation strategy (Finlayson & Slabbert, 1997; Kamwangamalu, 2000). The views of the learners about the teachers' CS somehow confirm this notion even though a sizeable proportion of the learners (41%) thought otherwise. Examples from lesson observations also confirm this assertion as demonstrated already in the previous chapter (cf. Extracts 6, 7 and 29).

Evidence from classroom observations shows that the phenomenon that occurs during the lessons of language subjects -- English (L and L) and Setswana could be called CS, even though it has been demonstrated in answering the previous question that, during Setswana lessons, there was more borrowing than CS. However, regarding lessons of content subjects (Biology, History, and Home Economics), the phenomenon that occurs in those classes can, in most cases, not be regarded as CS. Looking at the way in which English and Setswana was used in the classroom in which this study was situated, and by applying the standard definition of CS, it is evident that in the majority of the cases, the data were more than merely the simultaneous use of the two languages as and when the need arose, than CS as defined in Chapter Two. The use of the two languages in this way was guided more by the need to remove the communication

barrier caused by a lack of proficiency in English among learners than an unconscious use of the two languages driven by fluency in them, which is often the case in many situations in which CS takes place. A similar observation was made by Molosiwa (2006) that CS use in this context was influenced by the need to compensate for some (language) difficulty. Webb (2002: 58) observed that '… sociolinguists call the use of two languages in the same context with the same function code-switching.' This could be either in the case when discourse is initiated in one language and the same information is repeated in another language without adding any new meaning, such as in the dual instruction approach (Martin-Jones and Saxena, 2001); or it could be when one language (such as Setswana) is used where the authorized LoLT (English) is failing due to the learners' lack of proficiency in it. However, during Setswana lessons, where CS was used, it was more due to the teachers' display of their fluency in English than due to a lack of understanding of Setswana among the learners. In answering Research Question Three, the nature of the phenomenon that occurs in the classroom will be further examined through the respondents' views, and also according to the analysis of the qualitative data obtained by means of lesson observations.

Using the transcribed lessons as specific references, it is evident that the teachers of English (L and L) make use of all three the forms of CS during their utterances as already demonstrated in Extracts 11 and 12 in the previous chapter. In Extract 11, there is the use of both *intra-sentential* **jaaka eng**? (line1), meaning '*like what*?' and *inter-sentential* CS **Ba ne ba bua nnete** (line 2 meaning '*they were telling the truth*'). The former is a dependent clause used to complete a sentence initially coined in English, and the latter is in the form of an independent clause or a sentence that follows another sentence constructed in English only. In Extract 12, the teacher uses emblematic CS in the form of the tags **ga ke re** (line 8), implying '*is that so?*' and **Ee**, (line 9) meaning *yes*.

In Extract 22 (Setswana), Intra-sentential CS in the form of the phrase **there is a reason for that** (line 4) a joining word **so** (line 7) n -- used to join two independent clauses to form one sentence -- are examples of intra-sentential CS used to complete a sentence constructed initially in Setswana. Furthermore, in Extract 23 (line 1), inter-sentential CS has been used as alternate sentences are expressed in English and Setswana.

Looking at the examples from the transcriptions of the content subjects, while there is the use of all three the forms of CS cited above, generally there is more use of Setswana than English (by the teachers) even though the requirement is that these subjects be taught in English. There is a tendency for these teachers to utter an entire sentence or sentences in Setswana even though English is the prescribed language of instruction. This form of CS led Akindele and Letsoela (2001) to observe that although teachers CS at any point in the lesson, they tended to CS inter-sententially rather than intra-sententially. The researcher concurs with the first observation, but does not share the view of the latter because from the present study it emerged that what these two scholars refer to as inter-sentential CS is, as already explained above, a presentation of the lesson material in Setswana during lessons of subjects that were taught in 'English' to help the learners to understand the lesson content. This form of language use is not CS *per se*; rather it is simply the use of another language where the prescribed language is failing to achieve the intended objective. Similarly, the learners, taking a cue from the teacher, also respond in Setswana. The teacher does not object to the learners' use of Setswana, and their exchange continues in Setswana as illustrated in the previous chapter (cf. Chapter Seven, Extract 6, lines 5-6 and Extract 39 in the present chapter).

Furthermore, looking at the transcribed lessons for content subjects, notably Biology and Home Economics (cf. Chapter Seven, Section 7.4) and using the sentence as a unit of calculation, it was found that these lessons contained more Setswana than English words, yet the LoLT was supposedly English. The discourses contained more instances of intra-sentential CS than other forms of CS.

Furthermore, while there was some effort by the majority of the English (L and L) teachers to discourage the learners from CS to Setswana in class, the same attitude was not observed in almost all the classes of the content subjects. As already explained in the previous chapter, one English Language teacher explicitly stated that he does not condone the use of any other language in class besides English (cf. Extract 24), even though on entering the classroom, he greeted the learners in their local language, Ikalanga. This could be interpreted to imply that informal exchanges, such as greetings, can be exchanged in either Setswana or Ikalanga, but the formal lesson content should be presented in English only. However, in the view of the researcher,

this is not CS, but the teacher using either of the two languages to establish rapport with his class. During Setswana lessons, while the majority of the teachers discouraged the learners from CS to English, they themselves freely CS and also engaged borrowing as demonstrated in the previous chapter.

Furthermore, looking specifically at the amount of CS use during the transcribed lessons for each of the subjects (cf. Addendum C), the data show that there was more use of Setswana than English in the lessons of content subjects than in the lessons of language subjects. The details of each transcribed lesson have already been presented in the previous chapter (cf. Sections 7.4.1 - 7.4.3 for content subjects and 7.5.1 - 7.5.2 for language subjects).

In analyzing a sentence as a unit of calculation, the following was evident:

- Biology (cf. Transcription 1): Even though, overall, there were more English sentences used than Setswana sentences, nonetheless the use of Setswana was significant during the lesson. The discourse initiation (introduction) and finalization (conclusion) were mainly in Setswana. During the formal / development stage of the lesson, CS was used. The transcription contained instances of CS and borrowing in the form of clauses, phrases or single words, and CS was more intra-sentential and emblematic than inter-sentential.
- Home Economics (F and F) (cf. Transcription 2): At discourse-initiation stage that included greetings and housekeeping matters, only Setswana was used. The lesson introduction was also in Setswana but the teacher CS to English during the formal / development part of the lesson and also engaged borrowing. As in the Biology lesson, overall, there was more use of English than Setswana, but there were more instances of intra-sentential CS and emblematic CS than inter-sentential CS. Discourse closure also took place in Setswana only.
- History (Transcription 3): At discourse initiation, greetings were exchanged in Setswana. Borrowing was used in the discussion of housekeeping matters. When the lesson delivery began, the teacher switched back to English, but engaged minimal CS as the lesson progressed. At discourse closure, the teacher wound up the lesson in English. During this lesson, there were more instances of inter-sentential CS than intra-sentential CS or even emblematic CS.

This signifies that a teacher who CS less, engages in inter-sentential CS, but one who CS frequently, engages more in intra-sentential CS and emblematic CS than in inter-sentential CS. As previously mentioned, this was one of the few content lessons observed in which CS was used minimally; so the instance of minimal CS during a lesson of a content subject was an exception rather than the norm.

- English Language (Transcription 4): The lesson was conducted almost entirely in English. Discourse initiation and discourse closure were in English. During the formal part of the lesson, CS was minimal and it was inter-sentential rather than intra-sentential. In addition, emblematic CS in the form of **ga ke re** meaning *isn't it* was used to ensure that the listener is following what is being said or is in agreement. **Ee**, meaning *yes*, is yet another example of emblematic CS used to denote that the speaker or the listener is in agreement.

- Setswana (Transcription 5): At discourse initiation stage, greetings were exchanged entirely in Setswana; and discourse closure took place in Setswana as the lesson was wound up. However, borrowing occurred immediately when the formal part of the lesson began. During the course of the formal part of the lesson, nonce borrowing and borrowing proper were employed while the use of CS was minimal.

The evidence above shows that there was CS especially during the lessons of the content subjects. The use of CS by the teachers did not imply that they were not fluent in English. During lesson observations, there was no display on the part of the teachers that they were not able to express themselves well in English. Instead, CS was used as a teaching strategy to assist the learners to follow the lesson material (Akindele & Letsoela, 2001; Bissoonauth & Offord, 2001). The lessons were generally teacher-centred; the teacher was the main speaker while the learners were passive participants. There was minimal learner participation in the development of the lesson even when the teacher tried to engage the class through questions. Evidence also shows that speakers who code-switch more tend to use more intra-sentential CS than inter-sentential CS (for example, teachers of Biology and Home Economics in this study); but speakers who code-switch less tend to use inter-sentential CS than intra-sentential CS (for example, teachers of English L and L, Setswana and History). Further, inter-sentential CS is used to repeat material previously presented in the language of the

event without adding any new meaning. Similarly, the former (teachers who CS more) used emblematic CS more frequently than the latter (teachers who CS less). Furthermore, the teachers of content subjects who CS frequently also used borrowing more often than the teachers who CS minimally. The use of the different forms of borrowing was also evident during Setswana lessons and this will be discussed in detail in answering the next question.

From the findings, it is evident that what is perceived to be CS in the classroom is not CS per se; rather it is the use of the learner's language or a language that the majority of the learners speak and understand in order to overcome the communication barrier caused by the use of English, a language both the teachers and the learners agree the latter have a problem with regarding self-expression and comprehension. The results confirm what has already been stated above. Using examples of CS excerpts presented in the previous chapter and also in the present chapter, it is evident that what is termed CS in the classroom is somehow in contrast with what is generally understood to be CS in a social setting or as defined earlier in Chapter Two. In the latter, CS implies that the speaker who CS is proficient in the languages at his / her disposal; whereas in the case of the classroom, as demonstrated by excerpts from several lessons and supported by the views of the respondents above, CS signals that the learners are not proficient in English. CS is used as a communication strategy to ensure that the knowledge that the teacher imparts is received and understood by the learners. Also CS is used by the learners in order to be able to participate in the learning process (Akindele & Letsoela, 2001). The teachers were mindful of the fact that they were required to teach in English but faced with the learning difficulty caused by a lack of competence in English among the learners, they resorted to CS to overcome the language barrier. The incidence, earlier referred to in this chapter, of the learner who begged his teacher to allow him to relate his story (which was culturally-based) in Setswana instead of using English, brought the problem to the fore. However, the teacher did not accede to the request.

It appears therefore that what occurred in the classrooms of the settings investigated supports what van der Walt (2004) inferred when she said that there should be 'tolerance for the use of non-standard varieties of English and for other languages' in the classroom.

The researcher does not support the former view because the use of non-standard varieties of English in the classroom would be against the objective of improving English proficiency among learners. While the researcher recognizes that it is not practically possible to eliminate the use of CS totally in the classroom, its use, which essentially implies using other languages in class should be controlled; because its extensive use is also detrimental to English proficiency among learners. Therefore, CS should not be an impediment to language development. This point will be further discussed in the next question when the didactic and educational effects of CS are discussed.

8.5 RESEARCH QUESTION FOUR: THIS QUESTION WAS DIVIDED INTO FOUR PARTS AS FOLLOWS:

- *What are the didactic consequences of CS in the schools?*
- *Is CS educationally beneficial?*
- *Does the use of CS in a classroom situation slow down the pace of teaching and learning to the extent that it is detrimental to content coverage within the prescribed time?*
- *Is the practice of CS from English to Setswana in a classroom situation discriminatory to non-Setswana speakers?*

8.5.1 What are the didactic consequences of CS in the schools?

This research question was answered by the analysis of the teachers' responses to the questions contained in Table 5.15 and the learners' responses to the questions contained in Tables 6.9 and 6.13. The questions sought the respondents' views on CS use in the classroom, its didactic consequences in general, and specifically in lessons taught in English as a subject, and in Setswana lessons.

(a) The teachers' views

The results showed that, as indicated earlier, the teachers generally held positive views about CS in the classroom, be it CS to Setswana or to English. There were more teachers who did not support the view that CS negatively affected the attainment of a proficiency in English among the learners than those who did (40% vs. 37%).

Furthermore, 64% of the teachers of subjects taught in English were of the view that CS to Setswana enhanced understanding content among the learners. The results suggest that teachers who approved of CS were more concerned about the educational benefits of CS than about the learners' attainment of language proficiency in English. Those who were apprehensive about its use were concerned about its effect on English Language development. If learners were allowed to use Setswana in class, there would be less practice in speaking English. They would fail to acquire fluency in speaking English. Consequently, CS would have a negative effect on the learners' attainment of proficiency in English.

(b) The learners' views

As with the teachers, the learners' views were positive about CS use in teaching and learning. For instance, the majority of the learners (67%) agreed that CS to Setswana enhanced the learning of new concepts and also increased class participation, including group discussions (74%). Furthermore, 49% did not believe that the use of CS negatively impacted on acquiring a proficiency in English. On CS to English in a Setswana class, the learners' views were divided on whether or not it should be permitted. Forty two percent were in agreement, while 43% disagreed -- the latter with a marginal majority of only 1%. Despite this split response, the results also indicated that the majority of the learners did not object to the teachers' use of CS during a Setswana lesson as long as it was educationally beneficial, but they objected to the learners' CS, as indicated by 65% and 76% respectively.

The results suggest that in the learners' view, CS in a Setswana class has an educational role as much as it has in other lessons taught in English. However, the majority of the learners did not find it problematic for the teachers to CS to English during the lesson but objected if the learners did the same. From the results, both the teachers and the learners shared the view that the use of CS has positive didactic consequences irrespective of whether it is CS to Setswana or CS to English. It promotes lesson understanding among learners. While the teachers of the content subjects were of the view that CS does not prevent learners from attaining a proficiency in English, the teachers of language subjects, notably English (L and L) did not share this view. While learners shared the above-stated positive views about CS,

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they were also of the opinion that the use of Setswana in general promotes learner participation in the learning process in class or group discussions.

(c) <u>Qualitative data</u>

The qualitative data also showed that CS had some positive as well as some negative didactic consequences in the schools.

i. *Positive didactic consequences of CS*

First CS contributes to the expansion of the vocabulary of a language by allowing the creation of new words. This was more evident during Setswana lessons when words that refer to concepts considered 'new' in the host language, or considered to be 'foreign' to the culture of the speakers of the host language were used, as observed by Kembo-Sure and Webb (2000). Such concepts may not have equivalent words in the host language. Even if they do, such words are hardly used in spoken communication but are evident in written communication. For instance, a number of borrowed words of English origin were used either with a Setswana prefix or suffix in class. Some examples are as follows:

Table 8.1: Examples of Setswana nouns and verbs borrowed from English

Nouns		Verbs	
Setswana	**English**	**Setswana**	**English**
Dustar-**a** (Extract 9, Bio.)	duster	Analaes-**a** Extract 40, HE)	Analyse
Bel-**e** (Extract 4, Bio.)	bell	Fit-**a** (Extract H.E.)	Fit
Di-classroom	classrooms	Fil-**a**	Feel
Di-waere (Extract 7, HE)	wires		

What takes place in the examples above is not CS *per se*, but borrowing. It is borrowing (nonce or proper) and CM that are credited for expanding the vocabulary of Setswana and not CS. Other examples of borrowing used during lessons appeared in the previous chapter (cf. Section 7.8.1, Tables 7.1 and 7.2).

Second, CS facilitates communication in the classroom because if it is used during a lesson that requires the use of English, Setswana plays a supporting role. Because almost all the learners understand Setswana, explaining some parts of the lesson or

repeating a question in Setswana, to some extent, prompted some response from the learners. This suggests that CS promotes understanding among the learners (Adendorff, 1993; Akindele & Letsoela, 2001). Extract 28 (cf. Chapter Seven) from a History lesson is an example of an instance whereby the teacher first asked a question in English, but on realizing that there was no response, he CS to Setswana. The same strategy was also used during Setswana lessons. Setswana was the main language of instruction, and English played a supporting role. The teacher often used a borrowed word from the guest language (English) in order to express an idea or concept that did not have a Setswana form, or if it had, it was often in a form of a long phrase. Such concepts are expressions of numbers, amount in currency, time, a period, or other concepts that originally were foreign to the host language (cf. Section 7.8 in the previous chapter). Some of the examples of borrowing are as follows:

- Five (number)
- Six hundred Pula (amount in currency)
- Four o'clock (time)
- School term (period)
- *Khansele* (Council) -- borrowing proper
- That's very good (praise or positive reinforcement)

Third, as discussed above, CS increased learner participation. When the teacher spoke in English or even asked a question in English, the learners did not readily respond. But as soon as he / she CS to Setswana, some learners responded by commenting or answering in Setswana (cf. Chapter Seven, Extract 6). This implied that the learners were more comfortable to respond in Setswana than in English. This was the tendency during the lessons that were taught in English.

ii. Negative didactic consequences of CS

However, some of the didactic consequences of CS were negative. CS stifled learner participation as illustrated during a Home Economics lesson (cf. Extract 39 below). Learners had been used to participating in Setswana during lessons taught in English, so much so that participation rate was low if a teacher addressed learners in English, but participation improved as soon as a teacher CS to Setswana. For instance, even when learners knew the answer to the teacher's question or when they were called

upon to contribute to the lesson, they were reluctant to participate when they were addressed in English. However, as soon as the teacher CS to Setswana, they also responded in Setswana. This indicated that the learners had no confidence in speaking English.

Extract 39: Home Economics (F and F)

Te: A silhouette **go tewa** our body … **go tewa** our body. … and now we look at the
               it is meant   *it is meant*
shape…. So this is our body **so mongwe le mongwe a itse gore figara ya gagwe**
                        everyone must know how her / his figure
  entse jang. So, from now on **re ya go nna le mmirra** (mirror) we should know
  looks like.   *we are going to have a mirror*
gore re ntse jang. **Mongwe le mongwe a itse** ….**ka ha mmele wa gagwe o ntseng**
how we look like. Everyone must know how her / his body profile

ka teng.
is like.
One of my lecturers **wa** Fashion and Fabrics **ko universiting** used to tell us **gore** we
should talk to us.   *Of*   *at university*   *that*
You know, you look at the mirror and **o bo o re** "mirror mirror talk to me, talk to me";
                         You say
o apara.
when you are dressing up
C: [GIGGLES.]

Te: You just wear your underwear **hela**, **heh**! …you just wear your underwear; **o bo o**
                    Only, heh!   *then you*
ipolelela gore, "hei I have a protruding tummy, I have a puffed face." **Nna** I know
tell yourself that, "hei   *Me*
myself. So you look at yourself so that you choose the right clothes;
heh! Re a utlwana?
hei! Do we understand each other?

C: (some) **Ee mma**.

Yes ma'm.

Te: So, **go raya gore** after this lesson **mongwe le mongwe ha a boa kwa,**
  It means that   each one of you when you return from outside,

a bo a analaesa (analyze) **mmele wa gagwe**. So that you choose
 must analyze   her / his body.

[CLASS INTERRUPTS.]

C: (in chorus) **Ga re na diipone**.
     We have no mirrors.

Te: **Mma**?
 What?

C: (in chorus) **Ga re na diipone**.
     We have no mirrors

Te: **Gakere re nale mirror ke o** [POINTING AT THE CLASS MIRROR.], **heh**? **Ee**.
 Isn't that we have a mirror there   heh? Yes.

C: **Aa! Re bo re apolela kae?**
 What! Where do we remove our clothes?

Te: **O tsena hela ka kwa**, you just come here, **nnyaa re bo re tswala** the curtains;
You just get in there,   no we just close

ga gona mathata.
there are no problems.

C: [LAUGHTER.]

There was minimal learner participation during this Home Economics lesson; but as soon as the teacher CS by using long utterances in Setswana -- as illustrated in the extract above -- the learners immediately responded in Setswana. The learners were not keen to participate in English but only waited for the right opportunity when the teacher CS to Setswana. They also took a cue from the teacher and responded in Setswana.

Because of the prevalent use of CS during the lessons, the learners developed an apprehension to speak English in class or they became accustomed to using Setswana

in class. For instance, the extract below demonstrates a learner's reluctance to contribute during the lesson because he was being addressed in English.

Extract 40: History lesson

Te: Some actually … or let me just say 'tiredness' is obviously a … one of the problems that these people may have encountered. Amh … what longest trip have you ever travelled? [NAME.] ... Have you ever travelled?

Ln7: No.

Te: What about you? [NAME.] **A mme o bua nnete**? [REFERRING TO LEARNER 7.]
                    Is he really telling the truth?

T: **Ee**?
  Yes?

In the extract above, the teacher asks the learner if he has ever undertaken a long journey, but the learner answers with a simple 'No'. The teacher then asked the class if the learner was telling the truth because he could sense that the learner was reluctant to participate, perhaps for fear of being expected to use English. This was a lesson in which the teacher did not CS as much as the other teachers of content subjects.

CS further affected negatively proficiency development in either English or Setswana as also observed by Akindele and Letsoela (2001) in their study. However, this was denied by the teachers of content subjects as well as by the learners (cf. Chapter 6, Table 6.9). During the lessons of content subjects, CS was a common occurrence, so much so that its use was considered normal. While its use did not seem to reflect the teachers' lack of fluency in English, it had a negative effect on fluency in English among the learners. For instance, during English lessons, when the learners were called upon to contribute, some attempted to use Setswana but had to use English when the teacher objected. This implied that the learners had no confidence in speaking English. By the same token, proficiency in Setswana was affected as well in that it was common for Setswana teachers to CS or use borrowing even where it was unnecessary to do so. As a result, the learners also took a cue from their teachers to CS or to use borrowing, but this was not entertained by the teachers. While CS facilitates

communication in the classroom, it affects the acquisition of a proficiency in English as the target language. To some extent, fluency in Setswana as the national language is affected, too. Consequently, the learners are neither fluent in any of the languages, or become accustomed to what is often colloquially referred to as *Tswenglish*, which refers to CM forms of Setswana and English, borrowing from Chris Patten (the former and last Governor of Hong Kong when it was under the British rule)'s reference to CM forms of Chinese and English as *Chenglish* (Lin, 1996: 49, in Ferguson, 2003: 38).

Although CS use facilitated spoken communication in the classroom, it did not enhance written communication because it was limited to spoken communication (Akindele & Letsoela, 2001). A similar observation was made by Letsebe (2002), namely that the use of CS during the lesson was limited in that during written work, such as tests, assignments, and examinations, CS was not permissible. During written communication the learners were expected to use the Standard English or the Standard variety of Setswana. Therefore, even though CS may assist the learners to understand the lesson content, they may not necessarily articulate themselves in written communication (Akindele & Letsoela, 2001). Consequently, their academic achievement may be compromised. Hence there is a need to link CS with the learners' academic achievement. Furthermore, in other situations where spoken communication is essential, such as a formal interview for a job, or for a scholarship for further studies, CS may not be a useful communication strategy since a candidate is expected strictly to use formal English.

However, as the present study was limited to only oral communication and the researcher did not have access to the learners' written work, it was not possible to establish the extent of the effect of CS on learners' written work.

The majority of the teachers, irrespective of the subject they taught, shared the view that CS improved learner understanding of the lessons. However, the proportion of the English teachers (50%) followed by Home Economics (57%) who shared this view was not as high as for the teachers of the other subjects (History: 71%; Biology: 79%). This is an indication that, although the English teachers appreciated the instructional benefit of CS, they had reservations about its use as it was contrary to their primary objective. Furthermore, the majority of the teachers of Biology (50%), History (57%),

and Setswana (55%) did not share the view that the use of CS affected negatively the learners' attainment of proficiency in English. However, the majority of the English teachers (62%) were of the view that CS prevented the learners from attaining a proficiency in spoken English as already alluded to above. Therefore, the nature of the subject that one taught had an effect on the teacher's view about CS in the classroom (except those of the Home Economics teachers as the proportion of those who agreed and those who disagreed were equal (40%).

In summary, both the quantitative and qualitative data complemented each other, showing that CS had both positive and negative didactic consequences.

On a positive note, CS allowed for effective communication flow between the teacher and the class. This resulted in the enhancement of learning through increased learner participation in the development of the lesson and in group discussions. The qualitative data confirmed this point partially because sometimes the learners participated if the teacher CS. At other times, CS did not yield any positive results, that is, it did not increase learner participation in the lesson. This indicates that the learners' participation in the learning process is not solely determined by their ability or inability to use the official language. This analysis was, however, beyond the scope of this study, but further research can address it. Furthermore, both the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that new concepts were better understood if explained in Setswana. The qualitative data also revealed that the creation of new vocabulary was made possible by the use of CM, borrowing proper, and nonce borrowing. However, quantitative data did not confirm that it was the case.

On a negative note, CS to Setswana stifled learner participation and also created a 'fear' among the learners to speak English in class, as already explained above (cf. Section 8.4.1 *ii*). This bordered on lack of confidence in expressing oneself in English, caused by a lack of competence in speaking English. This was revealed by qualitative data, contrary to what the respondents said, namely that they did not think CS affected negatively the attainment of a proficiency in English among learners. Once again, the present study could not support this fact, and future research in this regard would be helpful.

The results have shown that even though CS constitutes a violation of the LiEP of Botswana, it serves an educational role as far as classroom instruction is concerned. As pointed out earlier (cf. Section 8.4.1 *i*), if the learners understood the lesson content better when presented in Setswana, is it really necessary to continue to use English? In the researcher's view, Setswana is already being used in the teaching of these subjects through CS. Therefore, the argument that it is easier to learn new concepts in English or the implication that these subjects are better learnt in English than in Setswana is flawed. What is lacking is written material for these subjects in Setswana. The results of this study call for a serious examination of the LiEP and its implementation to see if it does not stifle learning. The teaching of English so that it becomes an effective LoLT also needs to be revisited, not only at the level of senior secondary school, but as early as at primary school.

8.5.2 Is CS educationally beneficial?

This research question was answered through the teachers' responses that appeared in Tables 5.11, 5.12, 5.13 and 5.16, and the learners' responses that appeared in Tables 6.11 and 6.12. The questions probed if there were any educational benefits of using CS in the classroom. The majority of the teachers (54%) were of the view that CS (especially between English and Setswana) had educational benefits in that it facilitated teaching and learning. The teachers' views were confirmed by the results in Table 5.11 (cf. Chapter 5) that outlined the different reasons that the teachers gave for using CS in the classroom, the most popular being that CS promoted lesson understanding among the learners (indicated by 51% of the teachers). The promotion of Setswana as a national language was not the primary aim of CS as only 4% of the teachers (three teachers) confirmed that they valued it. The researcher is however, of the opinion that even though CS to Setswana was not primarily meant to promote Setswana as a national language, indirectly, this was the case.

Learners too were allowed to use CS in class to perform different tasks (cf. Table 6.11). They were allowed to CS to Setswana to ask a question, answer the teacher's question, and to discuss class tasks. The least popular task was to summarize a lesson, as indicated by only 3% of the respondents (two teachers). The different reasons that the teachers gave for using CS and for allowing the learners to CS in the classroom

confirm what has been noted earlier, namely that CS was perceived as being educationally beneficial. Although there was evidence of CS in the classroom, more than 51% of the teachers indicated that they did not allow their learners to CS, implying that 49% of the teachers allowed CS. The results, therefore, suggest that just more than half the teachers did not object to CS.

The learners reiterated the teachers' view that CS in the classroom had educational benefits, be it CS to Setswana in a non-Setswana class or to English in a Setswana class. Learning became easier when a teacher CS to Setswana and also increased learner participation in the lesson, as indicated by 84% and 53% of the learners respectively. CS in a Setswana class also made learning easier if certain Setswana concepts not clearly understood were explained in English, as indicated by 58% of the learners (an example is the use of borrowing). Consequently, the learners were allowed to CS in class to perform different educational tasks, but to varying degrees. The most common task was to ask a question; as indicated by 42% of the learners. As was the case with teachers, the least performed task was to summarize a lesson. The learners, therefore, confirmed the views of the teachers that they, too were allowed to CS. However, 40% of the learners denied the use of CS in class, while the majority (60%) admitted that it was used because it was perceived as educationally beneficial.

The learners were allowed to CS from time to time during a lesson even though not all the teachers allowed it during their lessons, and that there was more CS among the teachers than among the learners.

The qualitative data showed that CS in the classroom is a double-edged sword. On the one hand, it is educationally beneficial; and on the other, it hampers language development. During lessons of content subjects, teachers were concerned more about ensuring that their learners understood the content of the lesson, and less about assisting the learners to improve their proficiency in English as the LoLT, hence more CS to Setswana took place. They saw the latter as the role of the teachers of English. However, during English (L and L) lessons, teachers were very much aware that their role was to promote English language proficiency among learners, so less CS to Setswana took place.

(a) <u>Positive educational effects of CS</u>

The use of CS points to the fact that Setswana and other indigenous languages can be used effectively for educational purposes, as illustrated in Extract 41 below. It also promotes the creation of terminology through a related concept, namely borrowing; and helps to keep Setswana (for instance, the use of idiomatic expressions in Setswana), and proverbs during lessons taught in 'English' alive.

<u>Extract 41: Biology lesson</u>

Te: **Ha o nale** minor kidney failure, you can correct that by keeping to a strict diet.
    If you have
So,the strict diet **e re buang ka yone ke gore motho wa teng o ta a … o ka advisiwa gore a seka a ja eng se le sentsi, kana a je eng mo go ntsi?**

       that we are talking about is that the concerned person can be advised of what not to eat in abundance or to eat in abundance? ...

What would be the other? Because that is the one **e re reng** 'stick to the diet';
                Which we say
ga ke re?
isn't it?

In the extract above, through CS, the teacher explains what 'sticking to a strict diet' entails.

Because the use of the standard variety of Setswana is mandatory in Setswana classes, and at times the use of certain words or expressions may not be readily understood, even by way of any form of borrowing, the teacher is able to use familiar English words to promote understanding among the learners or to clarify a point as illustrated in Extract 38 (cf. Chapter Seven). The teacher uses a familiar word, 'speech', in the form of nonce borrowing to give a clue to her class as to what **puisobatho** (public address) entails. Borrowing in a Setswana class is helpful educationally because much Setswana terminology is not standardized, to such an extent that different authors may

refer to the same concepts by using different names or words in their writings (Molosiwa, 2006). To help learners to understand, the teacher may use a borrowed word (often from English) that many learners may readily understand.

Notwithstanding the above, the effect of CS in a Setswana lesson did not fulfil the same role. Setswana teachers generally discouraged CS or the use of any of its related forms, even though they themselves used them. In Extract 42 below, the teacher disapproves of CM:

Extract 42: Setswana lesson

Ln1: Bolwetse jwa **AIDS** bo ne bo setse bo tsene (   )

 AIDS disease was already prevalent (   )

Ln1: Bo tsene mo **fashioneng**.

 It (AIDS) was fashionable.

Te: Wa re mo **fashioning**?

 You are saying fashionable?

In the extract above, when the learner used borrowing to come up with the word **fashioneng** (fashionable) made of the noun *fashion* and the Setswana suffix –**eng** to denote adverb of manner, the teacher quickly responded by repeating the word of which she disapproved to signal to the learner that she disliked its use (line 3), and that she expected him to use the standard variety of Setswana. From the qualitative data, it was evident that Setswana teachers felt that their use of CS was justified in that usually they used it to clarify concepts that appeared ambiguous to the learners, but they did not find it justifiable for the learners to use CS or CM or even borrowing. No objection was raised when the learners used the acronym **AIDS,** the use of which is accepted due to a lack of an equivalent term in Setswana to refer to the same condition.

(b) Negative educational effects of CS

From the perspective of language development, constant use of CS creates a permanent habit of using Setswana in a lesson that is supposed to be taught in English. While learners have acquired BICS in English that is necessary in social settings, such as

speaking to a friend, a relative or on the telephone, it is CALP that is compromised by the constant use of CS in a teaching and learning situation. In that regard, CS in the classroom appears to be a legitimate LoLT, albeit unofficially. During the lessons of the content subjects, CS has created complacency among learners to practise using English in class. As earlier explained, the tendency among the learners was to remain silent even if they knew the answer to the teacher's question, and knowing that their silence would be interpreted to mean that they either did not understand the question or that they were unable to express themselves in English. As a result, the teacher would rescue the situation by CS to Setswana, and the learners would then seize the opportunity to respond in Setswana. The result, therefore, is a lack of proficiency in English among the majority of the learners. The situation is, however, different in Setswana classes as teachers actively discourage CS to English.

Therefore, CS does not promote fluency in the target language that the students need as the language for school-leaving examinations (Letsebe, 2002); for further studies and training; and eventually for work -- nationally as well as internationally. It may also result in a lack of fluency in either English or Setswana as the learners may become accustomed to the interchangeable use of at least two languages in one speech event.

CS in the classroom has been legitimized by default even though it is against the LiEP. Its constant use affects negatively the proficiency in English among the learners. While the teachers are of the opinion that the use of CS helps in addressing an educational problem, they are in the process creating another problem -- a language-development problem. Similarly, during Setswana lessons, CS does not promote fluency in Setswana, especially among the learners for whom Setswana is a second language.

In the view of the researcher, CS in the classroom is initiated by the teachers. They use it more than the learners do. If they were not to use it and did not allow its use, the learners would not use it. This is especially the case with the teachers whose HL is Setswana. However, its use is not without merit. Teachers CS and allow learners to CS to help the latter to counteract communication problems caused by a lack of competence in English, which is the prescribed LoLT.

Similarly, concerning Setswana lessons, the question is whether it is really necessary to teach one language in another language, especially in a language in which the majority of the learners are not fluent?

In conclusion, the results above have revealed that CS use in the classroom has positive and negative educational effects. This is the thrust of this study, it addresses a point raised by Webb (2002: 58) that '… the educational effects of CS have not been researched'. The results have shown that the use of CS is positive during the lesson of a subject taught in 'English' as it facilitates the explanation of content in the language understood by the majority of the learners. Similarly, the use of CS in a Setswana lesson allows for the explanation of certain concepts in English. Therefore, its use appears to have positive results, as well.

8.5.3 Does the use of CS in a classroom situation slow down the pace of teaching and learning (through the repetition of learning material to the extent that it is detrimental to content coverage within the prescribed time)?

This research question was answered after analyzing the teachers' and learners' responses to the questions contained in Table 5.14 and Table 6.16 respectively. The results show that the majority of both the teachers (69%) and learners (78%) did not find CS use a waste of teaching time. It did not affect the pace of the lesson because it was not mere repetition of the lesson material presented originally in English. Therefore, teaching and learning were not compromised. Consequently, CS use is seen as having no adverse effect on curriculum coverage.

The qualitative data also confirmed the views of the questionnaire respondents and showed that CS use in the classroom did not slow down the pace of teaching and learning and had no negative consequences on content coverage. CS did not involve presentation of the lesson material first in one language; and then in the other language. Rather, it was a systematic alternative use of the two languages as the lesson progressed. Where there was repetition, it was minimal and inconsequential as it served only to clarify a point made earlier (Akindele & Letsoela, 2001). Such practice was used as a questioning technique during lessons of subjects taught in 'English'; especially content subjects. The teacher often repeated in Setswana a question asked

earlier in English when there was no response from the class (cf. Chapter 7, Extract 28). The minimal use of repetition was observed also during Setswana lessons. Often the teacher made an utterance in Setswana and then repeated it in English to use a familiar term that learners readily understood, as shown in the two extracts below:

Extract 43: Setswana lesson

Te: Le fa go nale bo Tautona ba mafatshe a sele, fa o emelela, pele o dumedisa, o tshwanetse go leboga motsamaisa tiro pele e be e le gone o ka dumedisang bo Tautona. Motsamaisa tiro ke ene a tle a bidiwe **Master of Ceremony**, **Director of Ceremony**. [English]

Te: *Even if Presidents of other countries are present, when you stand up (to speak) before you greet (them) you must thank the Master of Ceremony first; and then you can greet the Presidents. The Master of the Ceremony is the one usually referred to as* (English).

Extract 44: Setswana lesson

Te: Mmele wa puisobatho o ne o tshwanetse go nna le eng?
   The body of a public address is supposed to have what?

Ln: O tshwanetse go bo o itse gore o a go bua ka ga eng**.**
   You are supposed to know what you are going to talk about.

Te: Ka sekgowa ke mo go tweng **knowledgeable**.
   In English that is referred to as knowledgeable.

In the two examples above, the teacher uses a related concept, nonce borrowing, in the form of English words or expressions -- **Master of Ceremony / Director of Ceremony** and **knowledgeable** -- that she feels the learners are familiar with and will readily understand. Therefore, the form of repetition used is to provide clarification only where it is deemed necessary, instead of repeating the entire sentence.

Therefore, in the present study, the researcher found that there was no deliberate effort to repeat an entire lesson or part of it in Setswana as was the case in the research done by Martin-Jones and Saxena (2001). Further, unlike in the study of Akindele and Letsoela (2001) in Lesotho, where Sesotho was used to repeat the lesson material presented initially in English, in this study there was no repetition in Setswana of the lesson material initially presented in English or part of it, except for the teacher's question. This research is, however, similar to that of the Mauritian study undertaken by Bissoonauth and Offord (2001), in which the teacher CS from English to either French or Creole to accommodate the learner's deficient linguistic system and to facilitate comprehension. CS in this way is referred to as an exploratory choice within the MM of Myers-Scotton (Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Finlayson and Slabbert, 1997; and Kamwangamalu, 2000: 62). In the present study, CS during the lessons of subjects taught in 'English' was used for the same purpose. Therefore, it could not be considered to be a waste of time. It had no detrimental effect on curriculum coverage.

8.5.4 Is the practice of CS from English to Setswana in a classroom situation discriminatory to non-Setswana speakers?

This research question was answered through the learners' responses to the question contained in Table 6.10 (cf. Chapter 6). The question was posed directly to the learners as the direct recipients of classroom instruction. The aim was to solicit the views of the learners who did not speak Setswana on the effect of CS in the classroom. The majority of the learners (65%) were of the view that it was not fair to use Setswana in a class that contained non-Setswana speakers. The responses to this question are interesting, given that nearly all the learners in the study were citizens of Botswana (99.3%) or 2 239 learners, while non-citizens accounted for only 0.67% or 15 learners. The latter were usually learners whose parents were from other parts of Africa or elsewhere, and had come to Botswana for employment purposes. Hence they had little or no understanding of Setswana. Despite what the respondents (both teachers and learners) stated about CS, the majority of the learners were mindful of the fact that the educational benefits they reap from CS use may be disadvantageous to their other classmates who did not fully understand Setswana.

The results from the quantitative analysis are contradictory to what the qualitative data revealed. During lesson observations, the researcher noted that the teachers CS freely

but none of the few non-Batswana learners objected to CS use or signalled that they were being disadvantaged by its use. Even where the lesson material was partially repeated in Setswana, for instance, in the form of a question posed earlier in English and then repeated in Setswana, the assumption was that the non-Batswana learners had benefited from the presentation made earlier in English. Therefore, from the qualitative data, there was no visible evidence to suggest that non-Batswana learners were being discriminated against by the use of CS. Because there was a minute proportion of the learners who were not Batswana (0.67%), the benefits of CS use seemed to outweigh its non-usage. Furthermore, the data from the quantitative analysis showed that only one learner could not understand Setswana, thereby suggesting that 14 learners who were not citizens of Botswana understood Setswana. In addition, 0.45% of the learners (ten learners) could not speak Setswana, suggesting that five learners who were not citizens of Botswana could speak it. It is, however, the degree to which they spoke or understood Setswana that varied from learner to learner.

In summary, both the teachers and learners agreed that there were positive didactic consequences of CS use in the classroom, irrespective of the subject taught. However, in a Setswana lesson, the learners had no objection to the use of CS by the teachers but they objected to its use by the learners. The qualitative data also confirmed the view above even though there were some negative consequences, too. Furthermore, both the teachers and learners agreed that educationally, CS use was beneficial and that it was used more by the teachers than by the learners. As CS use did not involve repetition in Setswana of the lesson content previously presented in English, it was not viewed as affecting negatively the pace of teaching and learning. However, the learners concurred that CS use (especially from English to Setswana) could disadvantage a few learners who were not Setswana speakers. It appears that this setback was overlooked because of the insignificant number of the non-citizen learners involved, namely -- 15 (0.67%).

8.6 RESEARCH QUESTION FIVE

This question was divided into three sections as follows:

- *Does the use of CS in a classroom situation violate the LiEP of Botswana?*
- *Is the LiEP consistent with the practical realities of the classroom situation?*
- *If this is the case, should the LiEP be revised to ensure that the LoLT promotes maximum delivery and acquisition of knowledge and skills development?*

8.6.1 Does the use of CS in a classroom situation violate the LiEP of Botswana?

This research question was addressed partly through the teachers' responses contained in Tables 5.3, 5.17 (cf. Chapter Five), as well as through the learners' responses contained in Table 6.4 (cf. Chapter Six).

According to the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) of 1994 (Botswana Government White Paper No. 2, 1994), English is the LoLT throughout the school system from Standard Two of primary-school level. This is because of its status as an international language for education and for work as indicated by 67% of the teachers (cf. Chapter Five, Table 5.3). Notwithstanding the above, evidence from the responses given by the teachers and learners indicate that there is a prevalent use of Setswana and, to some extent, the local language of the area (Ikalanga) in class during teaching and learning. The following responses confirm this view:

The number of teachers who had no problem regarding CS was almost the same as for those who found CS problematic (45% vs. 47%). Eight percent of the teachers did not give their view. This suggests that they either did not CS or that they were not sure about its effect on teaching. CS was, therefore, used to address the language problem confronting the teachers and learners in the classroom. Consequently, the LiEP of Botswana is violated in the classroom.

The qualitative data also confirmed that there was a prevalence of CS in the classroom, irrespective of the subject taught. This constitutes a violation of the LiEP of Botswana. It was observed that because there was more CS use during the lessons of the content

subjects than during the lessons of the language subjects, there was more "contravention" of the LiEP during lessons of Biology, History and Home Economics than during lessons of English (L and L), and those of Setswana. The researcher did not witness any use of the local language (Ikalanga) for educational purposes. Although there was less CS use during Setswana lessons and more use of CM and the different forms of borrowing (even where there was an alternative Setswana word), nonetheless, this was also a violation of the LiEP. Teaching and learning of Setswana were to be done exclusively in Setswana. This was contrary to what the objectives of the Setswana syllabus states (Botswana General Certificate of Secondary Education and Teaching Syllabus for Setswana, 2000). Because Setswana as the national language is comprehensible to all the learners taking Setswana as a subject, there was no need to CS to English to enhance understanding.

The results have shown that the use of CS in the classroom is considered to be a contravention of the LiEP. However, in terms of the subjects taught in 'English', this violation may not be deliberate. Rather, it is meant to address the learners' lack of proficiency in English. This implies that the LiEP either does not adequately address the problem of English language acquisition or, if it does, the problem lies in the implementation thereof. The pronouncement of the LiEP that English should be used as LoLT from the second year of schooling onwards (Botswana Government White Paper No. 2, 1994) implies that the learners who enter senior-secondary school have had nine years of instruction in English. This comprises the learning of English as a subject and also learning other school subjects in English, except Setswana and French. The LiEP was meant to address the problem of the late introduction of English as LoLT after four years of primary schooling, which was regarded as too late to do so, and has hence contributed towards poor English proficiency among the learners (NCE 2, 1993: 113). If the current LiEP or the teaching of English was effective, then CS in the classroom should not have been an issue among the learners in the present study because they entered primary school after the revision of the LiEP in 1994. (The F 5 and F 4 classes entered primary school in 1995 and 1996 respectively.) However, the results have shown that CS continues to be viewed as a viable teaching strategy owing to communication problems in the classroom. This suggests that the learners have not acquired an adequate proficiency in English. Therefore the current LiEP has not achieved its intended objective.

Although minimal, the use of CS during Setswana lessons appears to be unwarranted. Because Setswana is intelligible to all the learners studying it as a subject, CS to English does not enhance the teaching of Setswana. If the aim is to ensure that the learners develop their proficiency skills in Setswana, the use of English is counter-productive. Although evidence from both quantitative and qualitative data has shown that the teachers of Setswana discouraged learners from CS in a Setswana class (even though they themselves CS), the practice of CS "pollutes" Setswana as a language. A similar observation was made by Hussein (1999) that CS from Arabic to English was viewed as a pollutant of the Arabic language. Similarly, it was reported that in Hong Kong, students found CS 'irritating' (Gibbons, 1987, in Lawson & Sachdev, 2000: 1345), and that there have been repeated official calls for teachers to refrain from what is called 'mixed code' teaching or what the last governor of Hong Kong, Chris Patten referred to as 'Chinglish', referring to a mix of Chinese and English when he said (Lin, 1996: 49 quoting from the *South China Morning Post Rep*ort of 13 May 1994, in Ferguson, 2003: 38):

> What we don't want is for young people to be taught in Chinglish, rather than in either English or Chinese, and that's what we are trying to avoid at the moment.

8.6.2 Is the LiEP consistent with the practical realities of the classroom situation?

This research question was answered through the teachers' and learners' responses contained in the following teachers' tables: Tables 5.2 and 5.6 (cf. Chapter Five); and the learners' tables: Tables 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.5, 6.6 and 6.17 (cf. Chapter Six). The objective was mainly to investigate the teachers' and learners' proficiency in English and, to some extent, in Setswana in the classroom. It also investigated the use of CS by both groups of respondents.

a. <u>Teachers' views on the proficiency of the learners in English</u>

The teachers' self-reports on fluency in English and Setswana were excluded here because, officially, the teachers could teach either in English or Setswana, depending on the nature of the subject they taught. Furthermore, such self-reports have already

been presented in Chapter Four (cf. Table 4. 6). The focus, therefore, was on the teachers' evaluation of their learners' proficiency in English and how they CS between English and Setswana in the classroom.

The results pertaining to proficiency in English showed that the learners experienced problems with writing, understanding and interpreting (test or examination questions) domains. The speaking domain was problematic but not as problematic as the other two mentioned. The results on English proficiency here refer to CALP rather than to BICS. At this level, learners have acquired sufficient BICS to be able to interact socially because according to Cummins (1979), a conversational fluency to a functional level in a second language such as English in Botswana is possible within approximately two years of initial exposure, whereas CALP takes between five to seven years to acquire. The results on learners' competence rate in speaking and understanding are significant in that they suggest that CS was likely to occur in the classroom to facilitate communication between teachers and learners.

b. <u>Teachers' views of learners' language use in class</u>

With respect to the learners' CS use in the classroom, the majority of the teachers (57%) -- both language and content teachers -- confirmed that learners CS between English and Setswana from time to time. In addition, the majority of the teachers (66%) said that the learners hardly speak without CS. Furthermore, the majority of the teachers of Setswana indicated that the learners use both the standard variety of Setswana and vernacular Setswana with more use of the latter than the former as indicated by 64% and 70% respectively. Although the central focus of this study is not on Setswana *per se*, it nonetheless has an effect on CS as CS is used mainly between English and Setswana. The results, therefore, suggest that there is a prevalence of CS in the classroom, more specifically CS between English and Setswana.

The results also showed that both boys and girls CS to Setswana, but more boys than girls CS in class as indicated by 79% of the teachers. In addition, more girls than boys expressed themselves well in both spoken and written English, as indicated by 51% and 50% respectively. Nonetheless, the difference in the number of teachers who said both boys and girls expressed themselves well in spoken and written English was significant at 41% and 49% respectively. The researcher can only surmise that

proficiency among girls could be due to the girls' desire to master English as a prestigious language. A similar observation was made by Bissoonauth and Offord (2001).

The results suggest that the learners, irrespective of their gender, CS in class. While CS by girls may not necessarily be due to a difficulty in self-expression in English, it is likely to be the case with boys.

c. Learners' self-reports on proficiency in English and Setswana

The results now presented are based on the learners' self-reports on their proficiency in English as the target language. The results also present the teachers' proficiency rate in English as evaluated by their learners. The evaluation also included the teachers' English proficiency by gender and by subject taught.

The results (cf. Table 6.1 in Chapter Six) indicated that the learners showed competence in reading. However, they experienced problems with writing (be it in class work or during examination) as well with understanding and speaking English. The latter two suggest that CS was likely to occur in the classroom to aid both the speaking and comprehension of English among the learners.

As previously explained it was not possible for the researcher to confirm or refute the learners' assertion about their writing skills in class work or during an examination as the study was limited to spoken communication only.   However, the data from the qualitative analysis would assist in confirming or refute the learners' assertion about their spoken English as well as their understanding of the language. Furthermore, because of the unavailability of oral examinations in either English or Setswana (Nkosana, 2006), the question on examinations only refer to written examinations. The learners also evaluated their own language use **by gender** and the results (cf. Table 6.17 in Chapter Six) showed that boys and girls CS to Setswana in class, yet both expressed themselves well in spoken English, as indicated by 58% and 47% respectively. However, 37% of the learners said the girls expressed themselves well in spoken English, more so than the boys; confirming what the teachers said above about the learners' proficiency in English.

d. Learners' views on teachers' language use

Regarding the teachers' proficiency in English in class, the results (cf. Chapter Six, Table 6.3) showed that almost all the learners were of the view that their teachers were most proficient in English (even though 41% later said their teachers' CS could be due to a lack of proficiency in English). However, they did not rate their speaking skills as highly as the other language skills. The explanation for this could be that the learners' were more exposed to the teachers' speaking skill than to the other skills.

Evaluating the teachers' language use in class **by gender** (cf. Chapter Six, Table 6.5), showed that during lessons taught in English the majority of the learners (54%) said that both the male and the female teachers CS to Setswana, yet they expressed themselves well in spoken English. However, comparing the two groups of teachers, more learners said that male teachers were more fluent in spoken English yet they CS more than their female colleagues. In a Setswana class, both the male and female teachers CS to English, but male teachers CS more, as indicated by 43% and 49% respectively. This suggests that among the teachers who CS, the majority were male teachers. It is worth noting that numerically, there were more female teachers of Setswana than their male colleagues -- 19 female teachers (76%) and six male teachers (24%).

The learners' views on the teachers' language use in class (by subject) in relation to CS, fluency in spoken English and spoken Setswana were summarized (cf. Chapter Six, Table 6.6). The results show the following about CS in the classroom:
- CS occurs across lessons in all the subjects, but it occurs the least during Setswana lessons.
- Among subjects taught in English, CS occurs the least during English (L and L) lessons.
- Biology teachers CS more than teachers of other subjects taught in English.
- History teachers are the most proficient in English.
- The language teachers (the majority being Setswana teachers) are the most proficient in Setswana when compared to the other teachers.

The results suggest that the situation in the classroom is not consistent with what the LiEP requires. While the LiEP states that the teaching and learning of all subjects except Setswana should be done in English only, the evidence from the quantitative and qualitative data shows that this is not practical, given the low proficiency rate in English among the learners. It appears that currently, the teachers are of the view that if they were to adhere to the stipulations of the LiEP, little or no learning will take place. Hence CS is used mainly in the teaching of subjects taught in 'English' (but less in the English (L and L) classes, as already stated) to assist the learners to follow the lesson. The LiEP, inadvertently, appears to be the problem. The positive and negative implications of this practice have been discussed already in 6.4.2 above. Furthermore, the causes of the low proficiency rates in English among the learners should be investigated and possible remedies suggested. This is, however, beyond the scope of the present study.

While the LiEP calls for the exclusive use of English as the LoLT of all subjects except Setswana, classroom reality shows that there is more use of Setswana in the teaching of almost all the subjects. However, evidence from the classroom also showed that the teachers expressed themselves very well and did not display any deficiency in self-expression, but they CS to Setswana to assist the learners to follow the lesson. In the researcher's view, in some cases the teachers CS out of habit, as displayed by mostly Setswana teachers.

While both the teachers and learners concurred that the former (teachers) were proficient in English, they did not concur on the level of proficiency of the latter (learners). The learners highly rated their English proficiency (Chapter 6, Table 6.1), but the teachers thought otherwise. Evidence from the classroom also confirmed the teachers' views as the learners' participation was seriously hampered by an inability to express themselves as demonstrated already in the discussion of the preceding questions. They participated minimally during the lessons in which English was the LoLT. Often the teacher's question was met with silence unless he / she CS to Setswana, (cf. Chapter Seven, Extracts 6 and 27) for Biology and History lessons respectively). The reality is that the prescription by the LiEP that English is the LoLT is counterproductive in that it stifles class participation as previously demonstrated in Chapter Seven. The learners are not confident enough to express themselves freely in

English in the presence of their peers. At times, they fail to comprehend fully what the teacher is saying unless the teacher CS to Setswana and repeats the same information. This scenario brings into question the appropriateness and effectiveness of the LiEP. It seems as though the LiEP is not what it is intended to be. It acts as a barrier to communication and, consequently, to learning instead of facilitating it. The language of learning should not act as a barrier but should instead facilitate learning because as Webb (2002) rightly observed, language is central to all levels of educational development because it is through it that knowledge is transferred and specialialized skills as well as attitudes are developed through it.

The results further suggest that, if the problem of communication in English is still experienced at senior-secondary school level, it is much worse at the lower levels of education -- at primary and junior secondary school levels, as observed by Arthur (2001) and Letsebe (2002) respectively. Furthermore, the problem is likely to recur at tertiary level unless remedial measures are put in place. To merely allow the status quo to continue, that is, allowing uncontrolled CS during lessons, worsens the situation. Because of its importance educationally and professionally at the national and international levels, it makes educational and professional sense to learn English and be able to acquire competence in its four domains. However, it is not inevitable that it should be used as the only LoLT, excluding a national language like Setswana that evidence has shown, is spoken and understood by the majority of the learners, and is already playing an instructional role in teaching and learning even in classes of subjects taught in 'English'.

8.6.3 Should the LiEP be revised to ensure that the LoLT promotes maximum delivery and acquisition of knowledge and skills development?

This research question was answered through the teachers' responses to questions contained in (Chapter Five, Table 5.4) and the learners' responses to questions contained in (Chapter Six, Table 6.7). The questions probed if it was not necessary to revise the LiEP to include Setswana and other local languages as LoLT's in primary schools or even throughout the education system; and to cease using English as LoLT and instead, teach it as a second / foreign language.

The results showed that the majority of the teachers (53%) and learners (83%) supported the view that the LiEP should be revised to include Setswana as LoLT; with a further 61% of the learners supporting its use at all levels of education alongside English because of its status as a national language. They recognized the important role it plays in education, especially at primary-school level. This is consistent with the observation made by Bamgbose (1991: 66) that the learner's language plays a very important role in knowledge acquisition and skills development because learning through it quickens information processing.

However, just over half the number of the teachers (51%) supported the inclusion of other local languages in education, well over half of the learners (56%) did not support this view. The teachers' view was consistent with an observation made during the NCE 2 (1993: 111) that the learners' local languages were important in the early learning years of their speakers. While the government acknowledges the importance of introducing other local languages in the education system, it nonetheless shows no commitment to effect this implementation. Teaching can only be done if the communities affected request that their local languages be taught as a co-curricular activity (NCE 2: 1993: 115). In the researcher's view, this is not realistic given the rural nature of many Botswana communities. Very few communities would have the courage to make such a request to government. Besides, one wonders why this request should come from the communities when the practice has been that Government takes the final decision on all matters educational on behalf of its citizens. The government should have taken the decision to introduce the teaching of these subjects as a co-curricular activity without resting the decision with the parents, even though the manner of offering these subjects as co-curricular activities smacks of a lack of commitment on the part of government to introduce them. There seems to be a deliberate effort on the part of Government to ignore this important national issue that is being viewed as the marginalization of the other local languages besides Setswana. If the status quo continues, it will eventually lead to a language shift (Kamwangamalu, 2000) and a cultural shift in favour of Setswana and its culture. Consequently, language death (Kamwangamalu, 2000) and cultural death will result as the speakers of these languages will not be able to pass on their languages and cultures from generation to generation. Language and culture are inseparable as it is through

language that one can express one's culture. Therefore, suppression of a language implies suppression of its culture.

Furthermore, the majority of the teachers (78%) and learners (61%) supported the continued use of English as LoLT and objected to the view that it be taught only as a second or foreign language. This implied that they supported the use of the two languages - English and Setswana - as LoLT but not the total replacement of the former (English) with the latter (Setswana). This implies that both the teachers and learners recognize the important role of English in their educational and working lives.

Despite the difficulties that the learners have in acquiring proficiency in English, the majority of the teachers do not want the status quo to change, obviously due to the status of English as a language of educational and career opportunities. As a language associated with power, English can be used either to include or exclude a person from a social group. Consequently, maximum content delivery, and full acquisition of knowledge and skills development will continue to be compromised. The end result is that the learners will continually fail to reach their full potential. The LiEP promotes a language that also happens to be a foreign language to the majority of the teachers and learners.

However, the results suggest that, to address the learners' lack of proficiency in English, the teachers call for the introduction of Mother-Tongue Based Bilingual Education (MTBBE) that will ensure the inclusion of Setswana and other local languages as additional LoLTs. This is not unexpected, given that the results (both quantitative and qualitative) thus far have demonstrated that already Setswana is used in the classroom via CS and, to a limited extent, Ikalanga as a local language is used as well. (The researcher, however, did not observe the use of a local language -- Ikalanga during any of the lessons observed although the results from the quantitative data indicated so). Therefore, the revision of the LiEP to include Setswana as an alternative LoLT and to introduce the other local languages in the education system would be merely formalizing a practice that both the teachers and learners say exists.

The learners' views, it seems, were influenced by the fact that Setswana, through CS, was being used already during the lessons of different subjects, while the local

languages were hardly used or not used at all. Therefore, it was inconceivable to them that educationally, these languages could function fully.

Despite the teachers' positive views about Setswana and other local languages stated above, a significant number of the teachers, although the minority, held an opposing view. Forty percent and almost one third (32%) objected to the use of Setswana and other local languages in education respectively. Seventeen percent of the teachers said that they were not sure about the use of other local languages in education. These were teachers who did not speak the local language or even if they did, could not use it as it was not provided for in the LiEP.

The qualitative data showed that although English is the prescribed LoLT, it is only theoretically the case. Practice suggests otherwise. Setswana as the national language already plays a role in education. Therefore its use as an alternative LoLT needs consideration. Both the teachers and learners are comfortable with using Setswana in class. Teachers use it to simplify the lesson content that may appear ambiguous to the learners, and the learners use it to make a contribution to the lesson. Furthermore, it was evident that the learners were more confident participating in Setswana than in English during the lesson. However, the same cannot be said about the local language (Ikalanga) as its use in class either for an educational or a social purpose was almost non-existent. Although a significant number of the teachers and learners spoke and understood it well, it was hardly used except for the two incidents already referred to under Research Question Two.

The results from both the quantitative and qualitative data have shown that a revision of the LiEP is necessary to accommodate Setswana and the other local languages. Once the LiEP covers the other languages besides English, the education system will respond accordingly by providing the necessary resources to support the new dispensation in the form of the training of the teachers to teach these languages, and the provision of written material in these languages. This will not only create employment but will go a long way towards addressing a malpractice that threatens national unity. Consequently, diversity in unity will be realized. An exclusive LiEP, such as the present one, gives the impression that Batswana can be developed only through the use of the English language. However, this is a fallacy as observed by

Bamgbose (1991), Batibo (2004), Kamwangamalu (2004: 34 quoting Diop, 1999: 6-7), and Shope, Mazwai, and Makgoba (1999: xi, in Kamwangamalu, 2004: 36), as well, that '… you cannot develop a people in a foreign language'. If the African Renaissance is to be realized, and Botswana subscribes to this notion, then a reformulation of an inclusive LiEP will go a long way towards endorsing this notion.

8.7 RESEARCH QUESTION SIX: DOES THE CURRENT LiEP PROMOTE NEGATIVE PERCEPTIONS ABOUT SETSWANA AND OTHER LOCAL LANGUAGES?

This research question, like the previous one, challenges the effect of LiEP on Setswana as a national language, as well as on the other local languages. The question was answered through the responses of the questions contained in Tables 5.18 and 5.21 (cf. Chapter Five) addressed to the teachers, and the responses of the questions contained in Tables 6.20 and 6.21 (cf. Chapter Six) addressed to the learners. The questions solicited the respondents' views on how they perceived the use of Setswana and other local languages in education.

8.7.1 Teachers' perceptions about Setswana in education

The teachers' perceptions about using Setswana in education were somehow positive as already expressed in Research Question Five above (cf. Section 8.6.3). The results showed that there were more teachers (51%) who agreed that Setswana should not only be used in Setswana classes but also in lessons of other subjects (the majority of them being teachers whose HL is Setswana, or teachers whose HL falls under 'Others') than those who were opposed to this practice (the majority of them being teachers whose HL is either Ikalanga or English -- 51% vs. 43%). However, there were more teachers who did not view the use of Setswana in class as a sign of national pride than those who did (44% vs. 33%). The teachers' views by HL were not unexpected. For educational considerations, teachers whose HL is Setswana would support any move that would enhance the status of their language; and teachers whose HL is Ikalanga would oppose any move that further marginalizes their HL. The teachers whose HL is English (two only) would not support any move that reduces the status of their HL that already is seen as prestigious to know. However, the positive views about Setswana held by the majority of the teachers whose HL falls under 'Others', including those

with more than one HL, suggest that these teachers have accepted the status of Setswana as a national language.

8.7.2 Learners' perceptions about Setswana in education

The learners' views about the use of Setswana in education were negative despite their support earlier in the previous question that it be used as LoLT alongside English. For instance, the results showed that the majority of the learners (45%) were of the opinion that it was easier for them to learn new concepts in English than in Setswana. The results also showed that the majority of the learners (51%) did not support the use of Setswana outside Setswana lessons, thereby implying that they did not support its use as LoLT except in Setswana lessons. The majority of the learners shared this view despite their different HLs (Setswana: 52%, Ikalanga: 51%, English: 87.5%, Others: 49% and learners with more than one home language: 48%).

8.7.3 Teachers' perceptions about using local languages (besides Setswana) in education

The teachers' perceptions about using the local language, such as Ikalanga in education, were generally negative and did not support its use in class (even though in the previous question, they stated that other local languages should also be used for teaching and learning). For instance, 75% of the teachers, irrespective of HL, objected to the learners' use of their local language in class. Fifty eight percent said that they did not use the learners' local language in class to enhance learner understanding. The majority of them were teachers whose HL is Setswana, or English or Ikalanga. The latter's view was unexpected as they shared a HL with the majority of the learners. Similarly, 69% shared the view that allowing the learners to use their own local language affected negatively the improvement of their proficiency in spoken English. The teachers shared this view, irrespective of their HL.

Despite the negative perceptions of CS to a local language expressed above, there were some teachers who were of the view that the learners' local language had a role to play in education. For instance, there were more teachers who stated that there was a need to use other local languages in class besides English than those who had reservations about it (47% vs. 32%); and allowing the learners to use their local language in class

increased class participation than those who did not think so (40% vs. 23%). In both instances, the former were teachers whose HL is Setswana, or Ikalanga, or 'Others'; the latter were the two teachers whose HL is English. However, some teachers indicated that they were not sure about the effect of the use of a local language in class. This suggests that these were teachers who either never CS to the learners' local language during their lessons because it was not permissible officially; to do so, or because they did not speak it.

8.7.4 Learners' perceptions about using local languages in education

Similarly, the learners' views about the use of the other local languages in education were also negative. This was consistent with their earlier view on whether or not other local languages should be used for teaching and learning. The results showed that, generally, the majority of the learners did not view the use of a local language as beneficial in education. For instance, 57% of them did not think that it was easier for them to learn in their own language than in English; 52% indicated that they objected to the teachers' use of a local language in class, and also did not see the need for the use of other local languages in class besides English, as 44% of them had indicated. Although the majority of the learners (53%) admitted that sometimes the teachers CS to a local language in class, they did not believe that the use of a local language was educationally beneficial. The learners also did not believe that it influenced positively their acquisition of spoken English, as indicated by 67%.

Notwithstanding these negative views about the use of local languages in education, there were a few positive ones, too. For instance, the majority of the learners (49%) agreed that allowing the learners to use their local language increased class participation (Akindele and Letsoela, 2001). The latter view is puzzling and contradictory in that, if the use of a local language increases class participation, then it implies that learning is taking place. Conversely, if the use of a local language has no positive educational value, that should include its effect on class participation and, eventually, learning. This suggests that the learners' negative views on the role of local languages in education are borne out of a mindset and attitude that local languages can not function effectively in education than reality.

The results also showed that a significant number of the learners, even though in the minority, had positive views on using local languages in education. For instance, 40% did not object to a teacher's use of a local language in class, as opposed to 52% who objected. Forty two percent saw the need to use local languages in class, as opposed to 44% who said there was no need. In the latter case, the difference was so insignificant that it is plausible to say that the learners' view was almost split. Furthermore, 23% were of the view that allowing the learners to use their local language in class did not adversely affect their English proficiency, and more than a quarter of the learners (27%) were of the view that it was easier for them to learn in their own language than in English. This suggest that some learners, although in the minority, recognized the educational benefits of using the local languages for teaching and learning even though it was not officially permissible to use them.

8.7.5 Summary of teachers' and learners' views on using Setswana in education

The results indicate that the teachers, although not that many, were of the view that Setswana, as a national language, has a role to play in education. However, the number of those who were opposed to its use (43%) signifies that some teachers were apprehensive about using Setswana for teaching and learning other subjects apart from Setswana. This could be due to a lack of technical terms to explain abstract concepts foreign to Setswana. Its limited work prospects could be a contributory factor, as well as the fact that it is not as prestigious a language as English.

Again not many teachers regarded the use of Setswana in class as a way of promoting it as a national language as it was outside their mandate. Rather, it was used to overcome a communication problem resulting from the lack of proficiency in English among the learners, as already discussed in the previous questions. Contrarily, the results implied that the learners' perceptions about the use of Setswana were negative as they believed that new concepts were better learnt in English than in Setswana, and they did not support the use of Setswana outside Setswana lessons, either.

8.7.6 Summary of the teachers' and learners' views on using local languages in education

The results showed that generally the majority of the teachers and the learners had negative perceptions about the use of a local language in class for teaching and learning. There were fewer teachers and learners who supported its use and thought that it had a role to play in education than those who objected to its use. A local language is viewed as having a minimal role to play in education, and is therefore regarded as a LFIC language.

The responses revealed that, owing to the promotion of English in Botswana to such an extent that it is the main language that is used in a HFFC, negative perceptions have been created about Setswana and the other local languages. Setswana is viewed as having a minimal role in education. The situation is even worse for a local language; it is viewed as almost of no value educationally. Therefore, a local language such as Ikalanga is viewed as a LFIC language by the majority of the teachers and learners.

The results have, therefore, shown that the current LiEP that promotes English only creates negative perceptions about the use of Setswana and other languages in education. It affects the learners' self-esteem as they are unable to express themselves well in English. It limits their educational and career opportunities as, by lacking a proficiency in English, their performance in school is compromised. It also affects negatively the learners' pride in their national language as well as in their home languages. They regard the former as having limited career opportunities, and the latter as having no educational and career opportunities at all.

8.7.7 Qualitative data

The exclusion of Setswana and other local languages from the LiEP promotes a negative perception about these languages. The use of CS (mainly from English to Setswana) is a demonstration that English as the only language promoted by the LiEP, is not completely effective in promoting teaching and learning. Evidence from the classroom indicates that, although Setswana is not officially recognized as an alternative LoLT at senior-secondary school level, its usefulness in education is

evident through the use of CS. However, Setswana is not fully utilized. The same observation was made by Letsebe (2002) when investigating the role of CS in junior secondary schools. CS is viewed by the teachers as a strategy they use to communicate with the learners because they do not understand English very well. Instead of exploring the areas in which teaching could be more effective in Setswana than in English, the teachers suppress it. For instance, in one of the classes observed, the teacher explicitly told his class not to discuss in Setswana a class task that they had been assigned. Therefore, a negative impression is created about the use of Setswana in education. Instead of allowing the learners to brainstorm in the language they speak well, and then present the task assigned in English, the teacher discouraged the learners from using Setswana and thereby stifled their thinking and contribution, even though research has shown that one's cognitive skills are well developed in one's MT (NCE 2, 1993: 111). Similarly, another teacher remarked that, because they teach Setswana, they are looked down upon by the learners (cf. Chapter Seven, Extract 34).

Evidence from the classroom also showed that other local languages besides Setswana were not used in class except when the learners were speaking informally among themselves, even though the respondents (both teachers and learners) had indicated that a local language like Ikalanga was used. In Extract 23 in the previous chapter, the teacher explicitly ordered his learners *not* to use their local language in class. One of the teachers used the local language sarcastically instead of exploiting its richness in expressing which topic he and his class were discussing.

These two instances demonstrate that a negative impression had been created about the use of other local languages in education. Because they are not used in any sphere except as home languages, and as they are not included in the LiEP, they were viewed as languages not fit to be learnt at school and to use in education.

8.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the quantitative and qualitative data were used to answer the main research questions.   This included the discussion of the characteristics of CS and how it differs from similar concepts such as CM and the two forms of borrowing, namely borrowing proper and nonce borrowing. The extent of CS use in the classroom was

also revealed, including the different functions it performed in the classroom. Furthermore, it was proved that the phenomenon that occurs in classrooms in Botswana could not rightly be referred to as CS. Rather, it is more of the use of Setswana to overcome barriers to communication caused by the learners' lack of proficiency in English. The didactic consequences of the use of CS in the schools and its educational benefits were also discussed -- both the positive and negative ones. The prevalence of CS in the classroom, its effect on the pace of teaching and learning, and curriculum coverage were revealed, as well as its effect on non-citizen learners who may not be fluent in Setswana. The effect of CS use in the classroom on the LiEP of Botswana was also revealed -- whether or not the LiEP was consistent with the practical realities of the classroom situation -- and if there was any suggestion emanating from the use of CS that could warrant the revision of the LiEP to ensure that its inadequacies are addressed.

Finally, both the quantitative and qualitative data indicated that the current LiEP promotes negative perceptions about Setswana and other local languages. The results have shown that the teachers' perceptions about the use of Setswana in education are positive as they support its use in the teaching of other school subjects. However, the learners' perceptions were somehow negative, even though earlier they supported the use of Setswana for teaching and learning. The learners are of the view that unfamiliar Setswana concepts are better learnt in English than in Setswana. They also do not support the use of Setswana as LoLT at secondary-school level. The latter view is not unexpected, given that even at primary-school level, Setswana is not the LoLT. Their view is that Setswana is suitable for use as LoLT at primary school but not at secondary-school level. Therefore, among the learners, the current LiEP has created negative perceptions about the use of Setswana in education.

Furthermore, both the teachers' and the learners' perceptions about the use of the learners' local languages in education were generally negative even though, to some extent, they acknowledged their didactic effect, despite the teachers' earlier support of the use of local languages for teaching and learning. The implication of this scenario is that there is a need to revise the LiEP to introduce these languages in the education system at a very early stage. Should their benefits be appreciated at a very early stage, they will be accepted in education in the subsequent years of schooling. These

negative perceptions are evidence that language planning should be a "from bottom to top" process as espoused by Reagan (2002) and Donna Kerr (1976, in Mesthrie, 2002: 420) as discussed earlier in Chapter Two, section four. However, the revision of the LiEP cannot take place in isolation. The process should start with the revision of the language policy of Botswana in general.

In the next chapter, a summary of the study, conclusions reached, and recommendations made will be presented. It is also in the next chapter that the sub-problems that were identified at the beginning of the study will be revisited to determine whether or not the conclusions reached actually address them. The limitations of the study as well as its implications for further research will also be highlighted.

CHAPTER NINE

Summary, Conclusions, Recommendations, and Limitations

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a summary of the key areas of the study is provided. Conclusions drawn from the study are used to address the sub-problems (cf. Chapter One, Section 1.2.2) that initially were identified in relation to the main problem of the study, namely the role of CS in an educational setting (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 60). The sub-problems are dealt with chronologically, and at each stage it is stated whether or not each sub-problem has been addressed adequately, and whether or not the data confirm or refute each one of them. Consequently, the researcher would have dealt with the main problem of the study. Based on the findings of the study, a list of recommendations is then made. In conclusion, limitations of the study are articulated and implications for further research are suggested.

9.2 SUMMARY

This study investigated the role of CS in teaching and learning in four senior secondary schools in the north-eastern region of Botswana. CS in Botswana schools takes place between English and Setswana, despite the promulgation of the Botswana Government White Paper No. 2 of 1994 that English is the official LoLT from the second year of primary-school education onwards. Although CS is a common phenomenon that occurs in the utterances made by bilingual and multilingual speakers in formal and informal social occasions, such as a public address by a government official or a speech at a wedding, in educational settings it has not gained the same recognition. The reason is that the didactic and educational functions of this phenomenon are not clearly understood. It appears, for instance, that the use of CS in educational settings in Botswana is not, theoretically, viewed as a case of CS. Instead, it is the use of Setswana during lessons of subjects that are taught in 'English' to overcome the problem of a lack of full comprehension of the lesson among the learners caused by lack of a proficiency in English. Furthermore, CS in educational settings in Botswana takes place in contravention of the LiEP.

It was against this background that this study was undertaken: To establish if the phenomenon that occurs in Botswana classrooms really is CS as universally defined, or if it signals an underlying problem that may be due to a lack of proficiency in English on the part of the teachers, or the learners, or even both. In addition, the study sought to investigate whether CS facilitates learning or impedes it; whether its use does not suggest that the LoLT is inappropriate, and whether teaching and learning could not be more effective if Setswana were to be used, that is, the language that both the teachers and learners best speak and understand.

To investigate this phenomenon, the problem under investigation was analyzed in terms of six sub-problems outlined in Chapter One. Several research questions were formulated to address effectively these sub-problems (cf. Chapter 1, Section 1.3). An extensive review of related literature was undertaken to inform this study and to identify the theoretical framework within which the study should be undertaken (cf. Chapter Two). The MLF, associated with Myers-Scotton (1993a) and The MLP conceived by Kamwangamalu (1989a, 1990, in Kamwangamalu, 1999: 267) were identified as the conceptual frameworks which informed the study.

The two models, although independently conceived, are virtually identical. The MLF distinguishes between the ML and the EL. The ML is the main language that plays the dominant role in CS while the EL is the guest language that takes on the morphological and phonological structure of the ML in CS. Theoretically, English is supposed to be the dominant language in the classroom that should determine CS but, in actual practice, it is Setswana that is the ML, with English becoming the EL. Essentially, the ML determines every aspect in CS (Kamwangamalu, 1989a, 1990, in Kamwangamalu, 1999). Similarly, the MLP states that in CS, only the ML determines whether constituents from the EL are acceptable or not.

The MM of Myers-Scotton (1993a) also informed the present study. This model claims that all linguistic choices, including that of CS, are indications of the social negotiation of rights and obligations that exist between participants in a conversational exchange (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 75; Kamwangamalu, 2000: 61; Mandubu, 1999: 8).

The MM allows CS to fulfil three main functions (Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Kamwangamalu, 2000, Mandubu, 1999) namely:

- CS as an unmarked choice: This is when CS is the expected pattern of language choice employed as a communicative strategy in a given linguistic exchange to serve a particular communicative function, usually inclusive in nature. There are two sub-types that fall under this category of CS – CS as a sequence of unmarked choices or CS as an unmarked choice. The former occurs as a result of a change in the situational factors during a conversational exchange   In the latter, situational factors hardly change during a conversational exchange (Myers-Scotton, 1993a: 114).
- CS as a marked choice: This is when CS is the unexpected choice, to indicate the social distance among the participants in a given conversational situation. In such a case, CS is used to exclude deliberately some members present in a conversational situation. Here the speaker switches to a language that he or she knows that only a certain part of the audience will understand.
- CS as an exploratory choice: This is when the speaker initiates a conversation in one language, and if the party being addressed does not understand, CS takes place. The speaker switches to the most likely language that is intelligible to both parties. This form of CS is used where there is some degree of uncertainty about the choice of a mutual language.

In a classroom situation, it is CS as an unmarked choice (but not CS as a sequence of unmarked choices) and CS as an exploratory choice that often are used. The former refers to the use of Setswana during a lesson normally taught in 'English' for the teacher to include all the learners whose English comprehension may not be that good. The latter refers to a situation whereby the teacher initiates a conversation in English, sensing that some of the learners may not be following the utterance that he / she CS to Setswana. However, in the case of the classroom situation, the teacher is usually certain about the choice of a mutual language. CS as a marked choice is therefore not applicable in the present study.

9.3 CONCLUSIONS

This section highlights the conclusions drawn from this study that are presented in two main areas. First, conclusions will be drawn about the presence of CS in the classroom, the teachers' and learners' attitudes towards its use, the functions of CS in the classroom, and its didactic and educational effects. These conclusions will demonstrate the effects of CS on teaching and learning. Second, conclusions will be drawn about the implications of CS for the LiEP, and the effect of the present LiEP on the use of Setswana and other local languages in teaching and learning.

The conclusions, drawn from the responses to the research questions and observations that the researcher had made during lessons, are presented to deal with the following sub-problems: **The first sub-problem:** *Not enough is known about the didactic value of* CS *in educational settings,* was addressed by the responses to Research Questions 2 and 4 (i) and (ii).

9.3.1. The prevalence of CS in the classroom

The study has confirmed that CS occurs in the classrooms of the four senior secondary schools in the North-East region of Botswana; and that it takes place mainly between English and Setswana. Its use was more common during lessons of content subjects than during lessons of language subjects. CS was used, irrespective of the subject taught, the school setting (urban or peri-urban), the teachers' gender, teaching experience, age of the teachers, the teachers' HL, and teachers' fluency in English. Similarly, CS occurred in the classroom, irrespective of the learners' academic ability, gender, the class level that was taught (Form / grade), the learners' HL, and the learners' fluency in English. Both the teachers and learners CS even though the latter were discouraged from CS by their teachers. Both had positive views about CS in class; and they regarded CS as a strategy that facilitated communication in the classroom, especially when the official language of education -- English -- was not effective. Hence, it promoted teaching and learning.

CS is prevalent during the lessons of content subjects (History, Home Economics, and Biology) and minimally occurs during lessons of language subjects -- English (L and L) and Setswana). While teachers of English (L and L) restricted CS to the exchange

of greetings at discourse-initiation stage and rarely CS during the formal part of the lesson, teachers of content subjects CS through all the stages of lessons. The teachers of English (L and L) were aware of their primary role: to promote a proficiency in English Language among the learners, hence their minimal use of CS. The teachers of content subjects were concerned more about ensuring that their learners understood the content of their subjects than about language development among the learners, hence the prevalence of CS during their lessons.

As it is the case with English (L and L) lessons, CS during Setswana lessons was less frequent. However, it was the different forms of borrowing, namely nonce borrowing, and borrowing proper that were mostly used. CM was hardly used.

9.3.2. The teachers' attitude towards CS

Although the teachers CS, they often do not allow their learners to CS. This was more evident during the lessons of the language subjects (English and Setswana) than during the lessons of the content subjects. Furthermore, the teachers of Setswana were more opposed to CS by their learners than the teachers of the other subjects, even though they freely CS during their lessons. In addition to CS, the teachers of Setswana used nonce borrowing and borrowing proper more than the teachers of the other subjects. The borrowed words were mainly from English and sometimes, from Afrikaans, with a few instances from other African languages such as Zulu and Northern Sotho.

9.3.3 The learners' attitude towards CS

The learners had no objection to their teachers' use of CS, even though they were opposed more to CS during Setswana lessons than CS during the lessons taught in 'English'. The learners shared the latter view with their Setswana teachers. This suggests that, because Setswana is the language that both the teachers and the learners spoke and understood well, both groups of respondents did not find it necessary to use English during a Setswana lesson; hence their objection to CS to English during Setswana lessons.

9.3.4 CS to a local language

Although CS takes place between mainly English and Setswana, minimal CS to a local language such as Ikalanga, also takes place. This was revealed by the quantitative data, but not the qualitative data. While the majority of the teachers were opposed to CS to a local language, the learners were not.

9.3.5 Functions of CS in the classroom

a. Content subjects

CS is used to perform a number of functions -- educational and social -- with the former revealing the didactic value of CS in the classroom, as well as its setbacks. CS during the lessons of content subjects was used primarily as a teaching strategy. These teachers were concerned more about promoting the understanding of the lesson content among the learners than about the learners' proficiency in the official LoLT (English). They used all forms of CS and, by extension, also allowed the learners to do the same.

CS was used by these teachers to serve a number of social functions. These are summarized below.

- CS as an expressive function: when a teacher signals impatience with the class for not responding to a question posed, to show annoyance, or to encourage the learners to participate in the learning process;
- CS as a deferential strategy;
- CS to display linguistic versatility;
- CS to emphasize an aspect;
- CS as a strategy for neutrality;
- CS to perform a phatic function at discourse-initiation and -closure stages : to exchange greetings and to dismiss the class at the end of the lesson;
- CS to perform an informative function: to communicate housekeeping matters before the formal part of the lesson begins; and
- CS to amuse the learners.

b. English (L and L)

Because of the minimal use of CS during the lessons of English (L and L), its functions (both educational and symbolic), were minimal, too. CS as an educational function was used to facilitate teaching and learning as is the case during the lessons of content subjects. It was also used to clarify a point by repeating in Setswana part of the lesson material already presented in English. CS was also used to perform the following social functions:

- CS used to perform a psychological function: when used sarcastically; and
- CS used to mark group / ethnic identity.

c. Setswana lessons

CS during Setswana lessons was used more for social functions than for educational purposes. To perform an educational function, CS was used to present part of the lesson content. However, as previously stated, it was mainly borrowing rather than CS that was used during the presentation of the lesson material.

The social functions of CS in Setswana lessons were similar to those outlined above in addition to the following:

- CS used as a positive reinforcement;
- CS used to show the teacher's level of education;
- CS used to demonstrate authority or annoyance;
- CS used owing to the nature of the topic being discussed;
- CS used to show linguistic versatility.

9.3.6 Didactic consequences of CS

The educational use of CS has positive and negative didactic consequences.

a. Positive didactic consequences

The positive functions of CS to Setswana are that it:

- enhances lesson understanding among the learners;
- promotes learner participation in the learning process through group and class discussions; and
- facilitates communication in the classroom.

During a lesson that requires the use of English, Setswana plays a supporting role. Because Setswana is understood well by the majority of the learners, explaining part of the subject content, or explaining some concepts that may not be readily understood if they were to be explained in English, or repeating a question in Setswana, often prompts the learners to respond. Similarly, English may play a supporting role, albeit limited, during Setswana lessons. For instance, the teacher may borrow a word from the guest language (English) to express an idea or concept that does not have an equivalent in the host language (Setswana); or if it did have, was often in a form of a long phrase.

b. Negative didactic consequences

CS has negative didactic consequences, as well. These are listed below:

- CS indirectly creates complacency among learners to strive to acquire fluency in English. The learners were reluctant to participate when the teacher addressed them in English, or they were called upon to contribute to the lesson, even when they knew the answer to the teacher's question. However, when the teacher CS to Setswana, the learners responded in Setswana. The learners were not keen to participate in English but waited for the right opportunity when the teacher CS to Setswana, so that they, too, could respond in Setswana.
- While its use did not affect the teachers' fluency in English, CS had a negative effect on the development of a proficiency in English among the learners. It contributed to a lack of confidence in speaking English among learners (even though they self-rated their English proficiency highly).
- Similarly, acquisition of proper terminology of concepts in Setswana was affected, as well, in that it was common for Setswana teachers to use borrowing even where it was unnecessary to do so. As a result, learners also took a cue

from their teachers to CM or use borrowing or CS even though many Setswana teachers discouraged this practice.

- Further, while CS facilitates communication in the classroom, it results in the distortion of English as the target language and, to some extent, Setswana as the national language. The end result is that learners are not adequately skilled in either language.

9.3.7. Educational effects of CS

CS also has positive and negative educational effects.

a. Positive effects

The main positive effects are that**:**

- CS to Setswana promotes teaching and learning because it promotes lesson comprehension among the learners.
- It enables learners to participate in the learning process by allowing them to CS to Setswana when responding to the teacher's question, when asking a question, and when discussing class tasks.
- CS promotes the expansion of vocabulary by allowing the creation of new words by way of related processes such as borrowing. This is usually the case where words refer to concepts considered 'new' in the borrowing language, or words referring to concepts considered 'foreign' to the culture of the speakers of the host language.
- Similarly, because the use of the standard variety of Setswana is mandatory during Setswana lessons, sometimes the use of certain words or expressions may not be readily understood. Therefore, by means of CS to English, or any form of borrowing, the teacher is able to use familiar English words or expressions to promote the understanding of the explanations of concepts among learners.
- Further, CS promotes the use of Setswana in education (for instance, the use of Setswana idiomatic expressions in CS) and points to the fact that Setswana and other indigenous languages can be used effectively for educational purposes.

Consequently, positive didactic consequences yield positive educational benefits.

b. Negative effects

The main negative educational effects of CS are that:

- From a language development point of view, constant CS creates a permanent habit of using Setswana in a lesson that is supposed to be taught in English, or vice versa.
- The use of CS creates a complacency among the learners regarding the use of English in class. The learners often choose to remain silent even if they know the answer to the teacher's question, knowing that their silence would be interpreted to mean that they either did not understand the question or that they were unable to express themselves. As soon as the teacher CS to Setswana, the learners seized the opportunity to answer in Setswana.
- CS to Setswana is one of the contributory factors to a lack of fluency in the target language (English) among learners. Yet learners need it as English is the language of school-leaving examinations, of further studies and training and, eventually, the language of work. In addition, extensive CS may be detrimental to the acquisition of fluency in either English or Setswana as the learners may become accustomed to the interchangeable use of at least two languages in one speech event and eventually fail to sustain a conversation in one language when required. Similarly, during Setswana lessons, the use of CS does not promote fluency in Setswana, especially among learners for whom Setswana is not a HL.

The second sub-problem: *The occurrence of CS in a classroom situation suggests a lack of proficiency in English as a Second Language among the learners and maybe also among the teachers, and it is therefore problematic as a LoLT* was addressed by Research Questions One and Three.

The data revealed that the characteristics of CS as identified in Chapter 2 (cf. section 2.3.1) clearly indicate that the phenomenon that occurs in the classroom is CS; but the

extent of its use is not consistent with one of the characteristics, namely, that the speaker who CS should be fluent in both languages at his / her disposal.

CS by the teachers during the classes taught in 'English' served two purposes:

1. First, to demonstrate that the teacher is fluent in both English and Setswana, and
2. second, to accommodate the learners' lack of proficiency in English. When the teachers used English only, they were generally fluent in English.

The use of CS by the learners signalled their lack of proficiency in English. Therefore, CS was used mainly to facilitate communication in the classroom when the use of English only could not do so effectively. The teachers mainly used CS in class not because they had a problem with self-expression in English, but to enable the learners to follow the lesson. CS used in this way was as a teaching strategy to benefit the learners. The teachers were mindful that they were required to teach in English only. However, faced with the 'language barrier' that impeded (teaching and) learning, they resorted to CS to overcome this barrier. The data -- both quantitative and qualitative -- confirmed that the teachers' use of Setswana during the lessons taught in 'English' was due to a lack of proficiency in English among the learners, not among the teachers.

CS to English during Setswana lessons was not that necessary as both the teachers and learners spoke and understood Setswana well. The use of English by mainly teachers was to mark their educational level and the ability to speak the prestigious language (English) rather than to facilitate communication. However, in rare cases, the teacher used it to name a concept foreign to Setswana.

Evidence from classroom observations indicates that the phenomenon that occurs during the lessons of the language subjects (English - L and L and Setswana) may be called CS, even though during Setswana lessons, there is more use of CM and borrowing than CS. However, regarding the lessons of the non-language subjects (Biology, History, and Home Economics), the phenomenon that occurs in these classes cannot, in most cases, be regarded as CS. Instead, it was merely the simultaneous use of the two languages as and when the need arose. The use of the two languages in this

way was guided more by the need to bridge the communication gap caused by the lack of proficiency in English among the learners than an unconscious use of the two languages driven by fluency in them, which is often the case in many CS situations. The study found that, while in many CS situations the main language used was easily identified and a large part of the utterance was made in it, this was not the case during the lessons of the content subjects. It was more use of Setswana and less use of English. Consequently, it was not readily clear that the 'legitimate' LoLT was English. In fact, one could mistake Setswana as being the LoLT in the teaching of these content subjects.

The present study has demonstrated that in the case of the classroom, CS use signals that the learners are not proficient in English. CS is used as a communication strategy to ensure that the knowledge that the teacher imparts is received and understood by the learners. Also, CS is used by the learners to participate in the learning process. This confirms Kamwangamalu's observation that, in education, CS carries a stigma (Kamwangamalu, 2000: 60), and that it signals a lack of proficiency in the language being used, in this case English, as used by the learners. Therefore, the phenomenon that occurred in the Botswana classrooms during the lessons of the content subjects was mere instruction in Setswana in place of English. It was an attempt by the teacher to overcome the language problem that the learners experienced regarding self-expression and comprehension of English.

The study also demonstrates that CS is initiated and encouraged unconsciously by the teachers of the content subjects. When the learners, taking a cue from the teachers, responded in Setswana, the teachers did not object to the learners' CS. However, there was some effort on the part of the English (L and L) teachers to discourage the learners from CS to Setswana in class. Similarly, during Setswana lessons, the teachers discouraged their learners from CS to English, but they themselves CS freely and also engaged in borrowing.

Furthermore, the teachers whose HL is Setswana CS more to Setswana than the other teachers. Similarly, the teachers whose HL is Ikalanga CS more to English during Setswana lessons than the other teachers. Female teachers of the subjects taught in 'English' also CS more to Setswana than their male colleagues. Similarly, the male

teachers of Setswana CS more to English than their female colleagues. Consequently, during the lessons of the subjects taught in English, the female teachers whose HL is Setswana CS more to Setswana than the other teachers. Also, during Setswana lessons, the male teachers whose HL is Ikalanga, CS more to English than the other teachers did.

The study suggests that the senior-secondary school learners are not proficient in oral communication in English -- the language they not only use to write their senior school-leaving examinations, but also the language they require for admission to tertiary institutions, such as the University of Botswana. This implies that it is wrong for the tertiary institutions to assume (as they seem to currently do) that their new entrants are fully equipped with English language skills that would enable them to pursue their studies effectively and efficiently in English (cf. *The University of Botswana's Communication and Study Skills Unit Handbook*, 2007).

The third sub-problem: *CS from English to Setswana in a classroom situation may be discriminatory against non-Setswana speakers*, was addressed by Research Question Four.

The quantitative data revealed that CS in the classroom does not take into account that there are some learners who may not be proficient in Setswana. The learners -- both speakers and non-speakers of Setswana -- viewed CS during the lessons of the subjects taught in 'English', as discriminatory against these learners. This is because these learners did not share the educational benefits that the Setswana-speaking learners reaped from CS. While qualitative data also confirmed this view, the learners affected did not raise any objection when Setswana was used during lesson delivery.

The fourth sub-problem: *The use of CS in a teaching and learning situation seems to be in conflict with the LiEP of Botswana,* was addressed by Research Question 5 (i, ii, and iii).

The data revealed that CS in the classroom is in contravention of the LiEP of Botswana because the LiEP states that English is the official LoLT for the teaching of all the subjects (apart from Setswana and French) from the second year of primary school

onwards. The study showed that the violation was more apparent during the lessons of the content subjects than during the lessons of the language subjects. The use of CS during lessons of subjects taught in 'English' unintentionally demonstrated that it was possible to teach these subjects in Setswana, even though the LiEP does not make provision for so doing. The same can be said about the local language, where and when it was used. While the teachers are of the opinion that CS helps in addressing an educational problem, they are inadvertently creating another problem -- a language-development problem. CS means less practice in using English, which then results in a lack of fluency in spoken English.

Notwithstanding the above, the use of Setswana in classrooms and, to a limited extent other local languages, shows that these languages have a role to play in education.

The use of English during Setswana lessons also constitutes a contravention of the LiEP of Botswana because the teaching and learning of Setswana is to be done exclusively in Setswana. The quantitative data also revealed that CS to a local language takes place in the classroom, though to a limited extent.

The study further showed that the LiEP is not consistent with the practical realities of the classroom situation, because what takes place in most of the classrooms is different from that which is stated in the LiEP. As previously mentioned, in the classroom, the teachers CS to Setswana and allow the learners to also CS in recognition of the latter's lack of proficiency in English.

The reality of the classroom situation is that the prescription by the LiEP that English be the LoLT needs revision because it impedes learning. The learners are not confident enough to express themselves freely in English in the presence of their peers. Further, they sometimes fail to comprehend fully what is being said by the teacher unless he / she CS to Setswana and repeats the same information. The learners' participation is seriously hampered by their inability to express themselves in English. Therefore, the LiEP does what it was *not* intended to do: it acts as a barrier to communication and to learning, instead of facilitating them.

While the LiEP calls for the exclusive use of English as the LoLT in the teaching and learning of all the subjects except Setswana, the reality in the classroom is that Setswana is used in the teaching of almost all the subjects and, in particular, the content subjects. CS in the classroom suggests that there is an underlying problem of a lack of proficiency in the language of instruction, English, hence CS to Setswana is used to rescue the situation. However, during Setswana lessons, the researcher observed that CS by Setswana teachers may be habitual and intended to display their linguistic versatility. The use of CM and different forms of borrowing, particularly nonce borrowing and CS (though minimal) was unnecessary as all the learners in a Setswana class had a good understanding of Setswana. In most cases, utterances made in English or naming concepts in English could have been done in Setswana without creating any misunderstanding.

The study has shown that the revision of the LiEP is necessary to ensure that the LoLT promotes maximum delivery and acquisition of knowledge and skills development. The respondents called for the official recognition of Setswana as an alternative LoLT, as a language well spoken and well understood by the majority of the teachers and the learners, the language in which maximum content delivery and acquisition of knowledge and skills development can take place. In addition, teachers whose HL is Ikalanga or 'other' languages also called for a revision of the LiEP to make provision for the inclusion of other local languages in education. However, a revision of the LiEP that allows for the teaching of all subjects to be done entirely in Setswana and not in English so that English is only learnt as a second or foreign language, was not supported by both the teachers and learners. The study has shown that the LiEP that prescribes English as the only LoLT, is inadequate. Therefore, a partial revision of the LiEP to include Setswana and other local languages, but not its complete overhaul, is necessary. The result would be a partial introduction of MTBBE.

Both the teachers and learners concurred that although the learners hardly speak without CS, more boys than girls CS to Setswana in class; and girls were more proficient in both spoken and written English than boys. Therefore, CS by girls may not necessarily be due to a difficulty in self-expression in English, but it was likely to be the case with boys.

The learners rated their teachers' proficiency in English highly, but rated their teachers' writing and reading skills higher than their speaking skills. The learners' evaluation of the teachers' proficiency in English was almost consistent with the teachers' self-evaluation, even though a few learners did say that some teachers were not fluent in spoken English, hence their use of CS in the classroom. All the teachers regarded themselves to be proficient in English. The researcher shares the same view as the teachers.

Regarding the teachers' language use, both the male and the female teachers CS to Setswana during lessons taught in 'English'; and both groups expressed themselves well in spoken English. However, the male teachers CS more than their female counterparts, yet they also express themselves better in spoken English. Therefore, CS use by the male teachers does not necessarily suggest a lack of proficiency in English. In addition, during Setswana lessons, both the male and the female teachers CS in class. However, female teachers do not CS as often as their male colleagues do.

Although CS occurs across all the subjects, it occurs the least during Setswana lessons, and among the different subjects taught in English, it occurs the least during English (L and L) lessons. The Biology teachers CS more than the teachers of other subjects taught in English. With respect to the teachers' proficiency in English and Setswana, the History teachers were apparently the most proficient in English, and the language teachers (the majority being Setswana teachers) were said to be the most proficient in Setswana.

The teachers supported the view that Setswana, as a national language, should serve as the LoLT at primary-school level (the majority of them are teachers whose HL is Setswana), but the learners supported its use at all levels of education alongside English because of the status of English as a national language. However, regarding the possible use of the other local languages in education, the teachers and learners held contrasting views. The former (teachers) supported their use in schools for teaching and learning (the majority of them are teachers whose HL is Ikalanga and teachers whose HL falls under 'Others'), but the latter (learners) disapproved. Therefore, the majority of the teachers and learners supported the view that the LiEP should be revised to include Setswana as the LoLT. In addition, the teachers supported

the revision of the LiEP to include other local languages in education, but the learners did not agree. Both the teachers and learners are fully in support of the continued use of English as the LoLT. They recognize its important role in their educational and professional lives, both nationally and internationally.

An exclusive LiEP, such as the present one, gives an impression that Batswana can be developed only through the English language. Furthemore, its lack of provision for the teaching of other languages gives the false impression that Botswana is a monolingual country, whilst the the opposite is true. There are at least 25 languages spoken in the country, including English and Setswana (Webb & Kembo-Sure, 2000: 47; Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004; Molosiwa, 2006: 16; Batibo, 2006).

The fifth sub-problem: *The current LiEP of Botswana promotes English at the expense of Setswana and does not promote knowledge acquisition and skills development,* was addressed by Research Question Six.

The study has shown, mainly through quantitative data that owing to the status of English in the LiEP, Setswana and the other local languages are perceived as languages in which meaningful teaching and learning cannot take place as much as it would if English were to be used. Generally, the teachers' and the learners' perceptions about using Setswana in education were positive. The teachers were of the view that Setswana should not be used during Setswana classes only, but should be used even in the teaching of the other subjects. However, some teachers are still apprehensive about using Setswana for teaching and learning outside Setswana lessons. Similarly, the learners were generally positive about the use of Setswana for teaching and learning, even though they were of the opinion that it was easier for them to learn new concepts in English than in Setswana. They also did not support its use as the LoLT except during Setswana classes.

Despite the teachers' support for the inclusion of the local languages in the LiEP, on the one hand the majority are still apprehensive about their effectiveness in teaching and learning. For instance, they neither used these languages nor allowed the learners to use them in class because the LiEP did not give this provision. They were also of the view that their use negatively affected the development of English proficiency

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among the learners. Despite these negative perceptions, some teachers were of the view that these languages had a role to play in education as allowing the learners to use them in class increased class participation.

On the other hand, the learners' views about the use of the other local languages in education were negative, as previously stated. They did not view their use or CS to them as educationally beneficial. For instance, they did not think that it was easier for them to learn in their own language than in English, and viewed their use as negatively affecting their acquisition of proficiency in English. As a result, they objected to the teachers' use of a local language in class, and said it was unnecessary and of no educational value.

While the teachers were of the view that Setswana has the potential to function effectively in education, it was largely perceived as a HFIC language with limited ability to function in a HFFC. However, concerning the local languages, both the teachers and learners were in agreement that they are purely low-function languages, even though a few teachers were of the view that they could function as high-function languages.

The study has therefore established that the current LiEP that promotes only English creates negative perceptions about the use of Setswana and the other local languages, such as Ikalanga, in education. They are viewed as languages that are not fit for use in education.

The sixth sub-problem: *The use of* CS *in a classroom situation wastes instruction time and does not promote knowledge acquisition and skills development*, was addressed through Research Question four (iii).

The study has shown that CS in the classroom did not waste instruction time or slow down the pace of content delivery. There was no serious repetition of the lesson content because it did not involve the presentation of the lesson material first in one language, and then its repetition in the other language. Rather, the lesson presentation involved a systematic alternating use of both English and Setswana as the lesson progressed. Where there was repetition, it was minimal and inconsequential as it only

served to clarify a point made earlier. Because CS facilitates communication, knowledge acquisition took place, but confidence in speaking English did not improve. Hence, language development (English) was compromised. CS to Setswana therefore facilitated the acquisition of knowledge in the form of the subject content, but at the expense of acquisition of a proficiency in English. Consequently, CS has no adverse effect on the curriculum coverage.

In conclusion: the study has responded to a recommendation made by a number of scholars, among them Tshinki (2002); Kamwangamalu (2000); and Webb (2002) who called for further research to be conducted on CS in the classroom to establish whether or not it occurs; whether the stigma it carries as indicating a lack of proficiency in English as the LoLT is justified; and whether what occurs in the classroom in this connection can be rightly referred to as CS. The findings of this study outlined above have addressed these concerns.

9.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has investigated the role of CS in teaching and learning at four senior secondary schools situated in the North-East region of Botswana. The study has established that CS is a common occurrence in the classroom and that its use is largely due to a lack of proficiency in English among the learners. Therefore, the teachers use it and allow its use to address a language deficiency problem that negatively affects teaching and learning. The study has also established that the excessive use of CS in the classroom inadvertently breeds a problem of language development. While CS facilitates teaching and learning, it does not promote a proficiency in English among the learners. Furthermore, its use is a violation of the LiEP of Botswana. Based on the foregoing, the following recommendations are made, which are presented in two sections. The first section comprises a list of recommendations on CS in the classroom; and the second a list of recommendations on the LiEP.

9.4.1 Recommendations on CS in the classroom

1. The teaching of English should be revisited to address the problem of a lack of proficiency in English among the learners. This should be done if English is to be an effective LoLT, not only at the level of senior secondary schools, but as early as at primary-school level.

2. The re-introduction of Mother Tongue Education (MTE) at primary school level should be considered consistent with international practice based on the findings of research carried out in different parts of the world that Mother Tongue plays a very important role in concept formulation at this level of education.

3. The teachers should not only discourage the learners from CS, but should not CS either, if they do not want the learners to CS.

4. Setswana teachers should desist from teaching Setswana in English. Consequently, the simplification of Setswana concepts should be done by explaining them in Setswana, but not in English. Their use of English during Setswana lessons inadvertently creates a negative perception about Setswana, namely that it is more difficult to learn in it than in English.

5. The extent of CS use in the lecture halls of the University of Botswana and its effects should also be investigated. The same should be done in other tertiary institutions in Botswana.

6. Recognizing that CS as a teaching strategy cannot be eliminated completely in a bilingual set-up, and that it has an important educational role to play in the classroom, it is important to identify those aspects or topics of the syllabus that could be better presented in Setswana than in English. In this way its use will be minimized and controlled.

7. The Communication and Study Skills Unit of the University of Botswana, charged with the responsibility of improving university students' communication skills in English, should undertake a needs analysis to establish the extent of the inadequacy in English proficiency among the new entrants to

address this problem. Further, needs analyses should also be done for each level of study to design courses to specifically address the unique deficiencies in a proficiency in English at each level.

8. Although Setswana is not the main focus of this study, the research has indicated that the present Setswana syllabus does not effectively address learner competence in Setswana. It assumes that Setswana is a first language for all the learners studying it. However, the majority of the learners in the study spoke Setswana as their second language. In this regard, Setswana should be taught as a first language, and as a second language, as well. The former should be offered to learners for whom Setswana is a HL; and the latter to learners for whom Setswana is not HL. A leaf should be borrowed from the Cambridge Overseas School Examination Council that offers English as a first language *and* as a foreign language to its candidates. The learners whose HL is not Setswana cannot be expected to appreciate the intricacies of this language in the same way as those speakers for whom it is a first language would. For instance, some idiomatic and proverbial expressions, innuendoes, and jokes may be beyond the comprehension of learners who speak Setswana as a second language.

9.4.2 Recommendations on the LiEP

1. The current LiEP or its implementation should be examined to establish if it does not stifle learning.

2. Provision should be made in the LiEP for the use of CS in education in recognition of its important instructional role. However, the use of CS should be controlled lest it takes over as the defacto LoLT.

3. There should be strict adherence to the LiEP if there is sincerity about assisting the learners to attain a proficiency in English. The education officers should ensure that the LiEP is properly implemented. If this is not done, they should devolve this responsibility to Management of the School in each case.

4. The MoE should revise the LiEP to accommodate, where appropriate, the use of Setswana in teaching and learning.

5. The revision of the LiEP should ensure that the use of Setswana in High Function (Formal Contexts) is increased. It should not only serve as a national language but also as a second official language. For instance, it should be used more in education as an alternative LoLT. Furthermore, it should be used in science and technology, in the courts and other legal prodeecings, government administration and commerce. If Setswana, like English, is used in official functions, it will truly have a meaningful function instead of being merely a symbolic national language as is currently the case.

6. The revision of the LiEP should also take on board the more effective teaching of English, so that an adequate proficiency in it is achieved if the learners are to function effectively in an environment that requires the use of English.

7. The LiEP should be revised to make provision for the teaching of local languages as per Recommendation No. 18 of the NCE 2 (1993). This important national issue should not be left to the discretion of local communities to request the teaching of these languages. The Ministry of Education should play a leading role in this regard. This could be done by enlisting the services of volunteer workers from within the communities concerned. Their remuneration could be in the form of an honorarium or exemption from paying the recently-introduced school fees for their children.

8. Regional education authorities or the Management Boards of schools should be empowered to implement the recommendation on the teaching of local languages without waiting for a formal request from the parents, as espoused above. Furthermore, the views of the teachers whose HL is Ikalanga, and those teachers whose HL falls under 'Others' should be heeded in academic matters as these are the representatives of their communities.

9. International Mother Tongue Day which is celebrated in February every year should be observed on the school calendar to instil, among young pupils, a

sense of pride in their respective mother tongues. Teaching young people to be proud of speaking their HLs at school will go a long way in assisting them to realize that these languages are as important as Setswana (the national language) and English (the official language).

10. The revision of the LiEP should be done within the framework of the revision of the country's language policy. This process should include representatives of all the key stakeholders. To this effect, a Commission, with clear Terms of Reference (ToR), should specifically be set up and be tasked to undertake this assignment. In this fashion, it will be ensured that the language policy is not imposed on the people as they took part in its design and therefore have ownership.

11. In planning the country's language policy, a leaf should be borrowed from Webb's framework for strategic planning (2002: 39-40), reproduced as Addendum A, which outlines constituent factors underlying the design and implementation of a language planning policy in practice. These factors are identified as: a vision; a mission; the problem identification; goals; information; the implementation thereof; and the control and evaluation phases. In a nutshell, the framework states the following:

    ▪ That first and foremost, policy development has to have a direct link with the country's vision, based on the country's Constitution. In the case of Botswana, the language policy should be in harmony with the country's *Vision 2016*, which is a long-term vision through which the country set targets for itself to have achieved by the year 2016. Some of the pillars of Vision 2016 state that Botswana shall be an educated and informed nation; and that (Vision 2016, 2004: 9): "*no citizen of the future Botswana will be disadvantaged as a result of gender, age, religion or creed, colour, national or ethnic origin, location, language or political opinions*".

    ▪ It should also be in harmony with Government's mission that deals with the broad goals of the government, as espoused in *Vision 2016* of Botswana.

- Internal and external factors that may facilitate / impede the realization of the country's vision and mission regarding language planning and policy should be identified and their impact determined.

- The language policy should be formulated as a legally-binding document, with clear goals or objectives that are consonant with the country's vision and mission. Any possible obstacles that should need to be addressed, should be identified and articulated clearly.

- The implementation strategies that will be followed to achieve the policy objectives should be stated clearly. These should include spelling out who will implement the policy, how, the time frame, and the resources required. The strategy should include how Government and the Ministry of Education should address anticipated problems.

- After implementation, control and evaluation mechanisms should be put in place to establish the extent to which the language policy has fulfilled the country's vision and mission. In this way, feedback would be provided to the authorities on the effectiveness of the language policy.

A LiEP formulated within the framework of the aforementioned language-planning model is likely to be effective. As the language plan would have been designed in consultation with key stakeholders, and have been enshrined in a legal document, its implementation is likely to be taken seriously as the language policy (and the LiEP) would not be construed as a policy imposed on the people. Because the people would have taken part in its design, they would feel or be obliged to own and honour it. This would be a progressive step from the current language policy that is not explicitly stated but is only understood, inferred, and observed in practice (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004). It is only mentioned in different government documents such as the Constitution of Botswana; the two reports of the NCE of, respectively, 1977 and 1993; the government's national development plans, education's curricular materials, and in the media during discussions of language-related issues (Nyati-Ramahobo, 2004).

The study has shown that the current perceptions that Setswana and other local languages should not be used as LoLT are a result of language planning that did not follow the process as stated above. If these negative perceptions are allowed to continue, Batswana will be a nation without a culture as observed by the first president

of Botswana, Sir Seretse Khama, when he said 'A nation without culture is a nation without soul".

The LiEP should strike a balance between the retention of culture and the acquisition of English, which is vital, for the people to also be global citizens. The aim of the education system in general, and of the teaching of English, in particular, should not be to produce a "half-baked" learner who is not knowledgeable and skilful and can hardly express him / herself in English; rather, the learner should confidently express him / herself in English as well as Setswana.

9.5 LIMITATIONS OF AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

A number of limitations were encountered during the study that warrant further research. Some were beyond the scope of the present study, and others were a result of problems that were experienced during the data-collecting phase. These include the following:

1. Although the study sought to investigate CS by both the teachers and learners, the utterances made by the learners were limited. This is because the lessons were generally teacher-centred. The teacher was the main speaker while the learners were passive participants. There was minimal learner participation in the development of the lesson even when the teacher tried to engage the class by posing questions. Perhaps teaching that involved learner-centred activities rather than the traditional lecturing method should be used more in an effort to encourage active learner participation.

2. Because the study was limited to oral communication, it was not possible for the researcher to establish the effect of CS on the learners' written communication, that is, whether the promotion of lesson understanding translated into enhanced performance in their written work such as during tests or examinations.

3. The researcher should have had access to the learners' written work, so it was not possible to confirm or refute the teachers' views regarding the learners' self expression in written English.

4. The study established that learners' participation in the lesson increased if the teachers CS to Setswana. It also established that, at other times, CS did not yield any positive results. This indicates that the learners' participation in the learning process is not solely determined by their ability or inability to use the official language. There could be other underlying problems such as a learner's interest in a particular subject or topic, the learner's ability, and how difficult or easy he / she perceived a particular subject to be. This was, however, beyond the scope of this study, and further research should possibly address it.

5. The study only focused on the senior secondary schools in the North-East region, therefore its findings cannot be generalized. Similar studies should be undertaken in senior secondary schools situated in other regions of the country (and in primary schools) to see if these studies will produce similar results.

6. The study only focused on the three content subjects (History, Home Economics, and Biology) apart from English and Setswana as language subjects. Therefore, the findings may not necessarily apply to the other school subjects. The study should be extended to include other school subjects to establish the extent of CS use during their lessons and the consequences thereof.

7. The study showed that girls were more proficient than boys in both spoken and written English. As already stated, it was not easy for the researcher to confirm these views as the study was limited to oral communication. In addition, learner utterances were limited. Further research could establish whether or not gender had any significant effect on learners' acquisition of an adequate proficiency in English.

8. Further research is necessary to establish whether there is any discrepancy in the performance of learners whose home language is Setswana as opposed to other learners whose HL is another local language. It is important to further establish whether there is a need to design two kinds of syllabi -- one for first-language speakers of Setswana, and the other for learners who speak Setswana as a second language.

9. Further research is necessary to establish the effect of CS use on the learners' academic performance.

9.6 CONCLUSION

The study has demonstrated that there is CS in the classrooms of Botswana senior secondary schools, mainly from English to Setswana. The underlying factor for this practice is mainly because learners have not acquired proficiency in English. In that regard, CS is used as a strategy to facilitate communication where the LoLT is not effective. A number of conclusions have been drawn and recommendations made regarding CS in the classroom and the LiEP of Botswana. It is hoped that the educators and policy makers will consider these conclusions and recommendations and chart a way forward to address the lack of proficiency in English among the learners in Botswana senior secondary schools. Consequently, learners who are confident enough to express themselves in English will be produced, hence their chances of succeeding in their studies and eventually in the vocational world will be increased.

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A LIST OF ADDENDA

Addendum A: Webb's Framework for strategic planning
Addendum B: A map showing Secondary and Technical
        Schools in Botswana
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ADDENDUM A: WEBB'S FRAMEWORK FOR STRATEGIC PLANNING

Framework for strategic planning
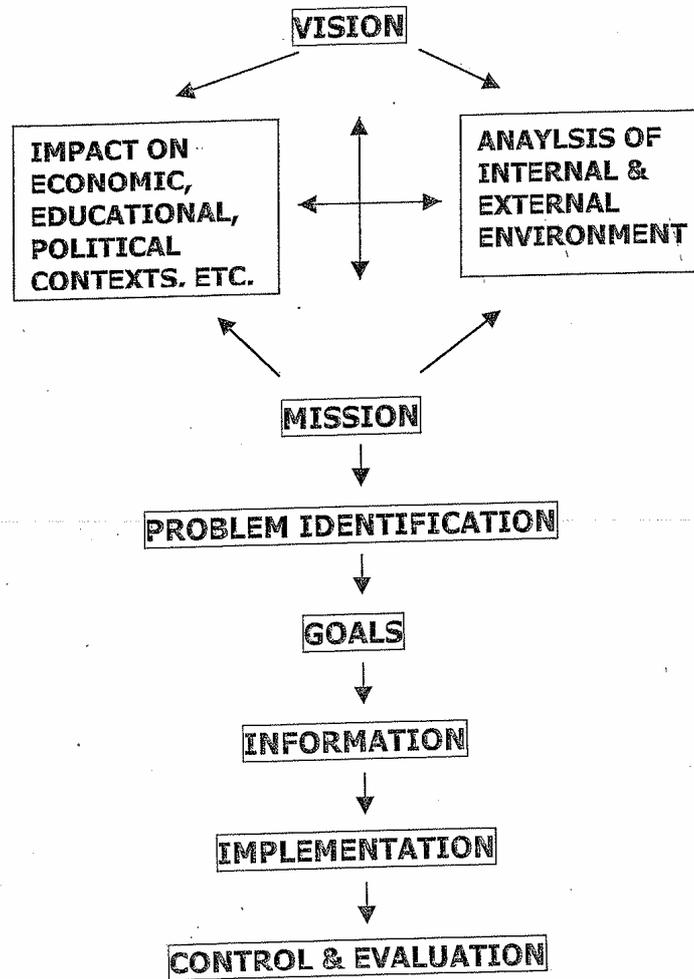
ADDENDUM B: A MAP SHOWING SECONDARY AND TECHNICAL SCHOOLS IN BOTSWANA

THE REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

Scale 1:2,000,0
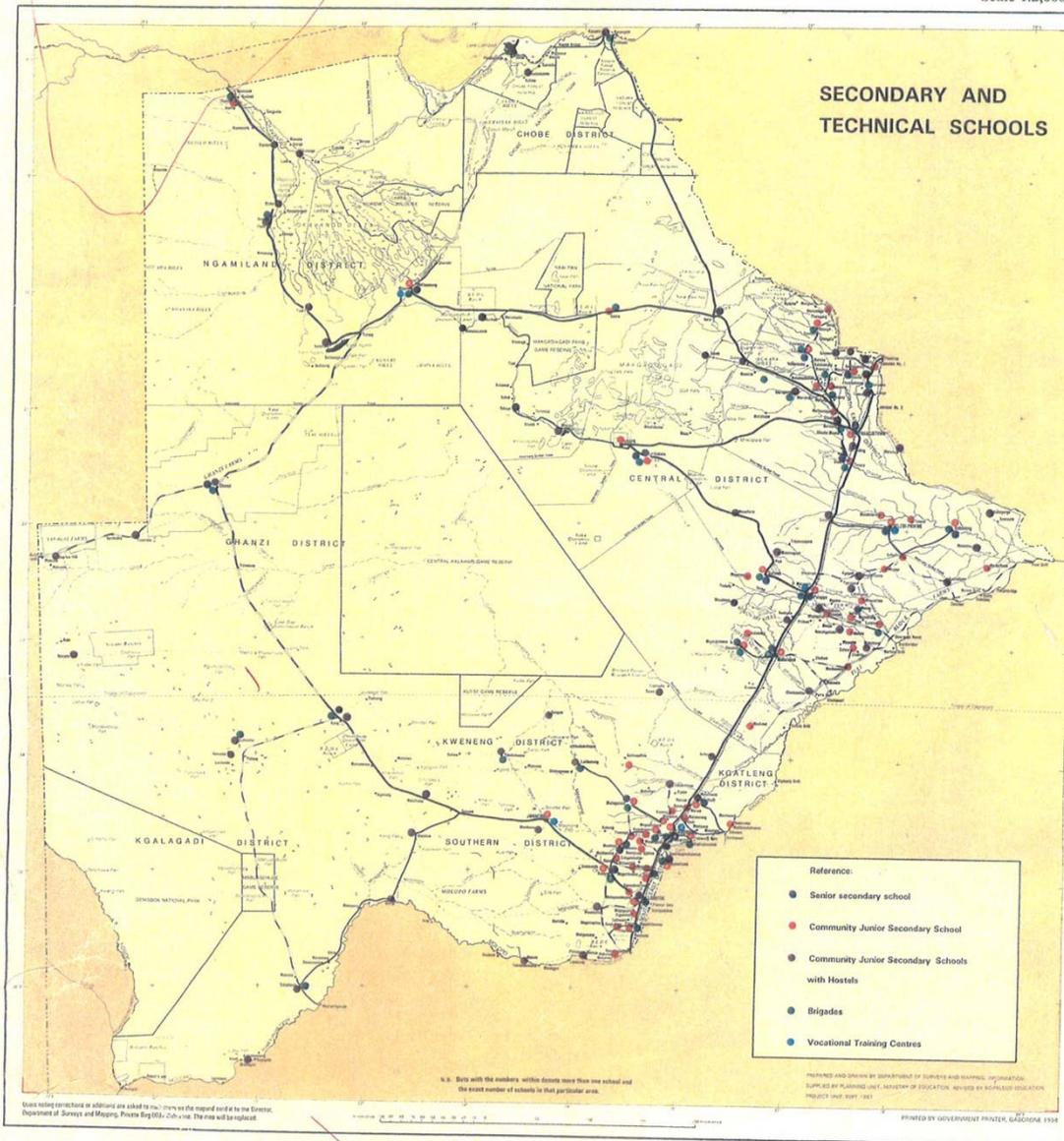
SECONDARY AND
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS

Reference:

● Senior secondary school

● Community Junior Secondary School

● Community Junior Secondary Schools
with Hostals

● Brigades

● Vocational Training Centres

N.B. Dots with the numbers within denote more than one school and
the exact number of schools in that particular area.

ADDENDUM C: TRANSCRIBED LESSONS OF THE FOLLOWING SUBJECTS:

- Transcription 1: Biology
- Transcription 2: Home Economics
- Transcription 3: History
- Transcription 4: English Language
- Transcription 5: Setswana

Transcription 1: Biology lesson

The lesson was on "Filtration". The lesson began with greetings initiated by the teacher in Setswana and the learners responded in Setswana. She then signalled in Setswana that the lesson was about to begin and switched to Setswana. The class listened attentively while the teacher presented the lesson and occasionally they copied down in their notebooks the summary notes the teacher wrote on the board. The teacher 's lesson presentation was characterized by constant 'switches' between English and Setswana; including posing the questions to the learners. The learners mainly signalled that they were following the lesson by responding in the affirmative in a chorus in Setswana '**ee mma**' or in English 'yes'. The teacher was fluent in English but *code-switched* to Setswana throughout the lesson. Below is the actual transcription of the lesson:

T: **Dumelang**.

C: **Ee mma**.

T: **A re tswelelelng bagaetsho**. … We were discussing about excretion, specifically in relation to the nyphron. **Gore** how does the nyphron perform or what is the function of the nyphron in relation to (   ) formation. And remember I told you that it is very important for you to know the structure of the nyphron. **Re a utwana**?

C: **ee mma**.

T: It is important for you to know the structure of the nyphron; and again it is important for you to be able to know the functions of those general parts of the nyphron; not forgetting the reasons why it is necessary for the pressure to be high within the kidney. **Gakere**?

C: (some) **ee**.

T: Yes, **ke tlhalositse hela gore** when the blood gets into the kidney, and especially around the gonerius, **e e leng gore** that is a group of capillaries, we expect the pressure to be a bit high; specifically for the filtration of the liquid parts. **Gakere?**

C: (silent)

T: **Ne ka le bolelela sekai sa gore o gakologelwe gore le wena hela ha o ka lebelela** the…the hosepipe **ka ha e ntseng ka teng, gore o kgone gore metsi a tswele ko nte a le mantsi** you need to open the tap …(pause)

C: [IN CHORUS] **Thatanyana**.

T: **Thatanyana. Gakere**?

C: **ee**.
T: To increase the pressure within the hosepipe … so that is exactly what is happening around the (   ) we expect the pressure to be a bit high so that the filtration can occur. Then …**ke rile** there are two major processes to occur in the formation of the urine; one, ke yone the ultra-filtration **e e diragalang, e e diragalang** around the gonerilus;

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go bo go nna le re-absorption **e e leng gore** I said it occurs mainly along the tubule. **Gakere**? I said it mainly occurs along the tubule. So those are the two major processes **tse e leng gore** they occur for the urine formation. And then we went on and described or… eh… discussed those substances that need to be reabsorbed back into the blood system. We mentioned that the globule molecules **tse e leng gore di dule le** the filtrates, remember **ha re expecta go bona** a filtrate to the tissue fluid. **Gakere**?

C: E**e**.

T: **Ee! Ke rile** that is equivalent or similar to the tissues fluid. Now **ke yone e e leng gore re a go e bitsa re re ke** the filtrate. Now, that filtrate is the one that is going to be moving along the tubule; **gakere***?* **Ke bo ke re** … now along that tubule, we expect the glucose to be reabsorbed back into the blood stream. We expect amino acids to be reabsorbed back into the blood stream. Such that, at the end of the day … at the end of the day … we expect the urine of a healthy person … the urine of a healthy person … we expect to find what? … The excess water, **gakere**?

C: [IN CHORUS] E**e**.

T: **Le eng**?

C: Urea.

T: Urea, **aha**!

C: Salt.

T: And the excess salt. **Gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee**.

T: So those are…those are the only things we expect to find in the urine of a healthy person. So we don't expect to find any glucose molecules in the urine of a healthy person. We don't expect to find any amino acids or proteins in the urine of a healthy person. **Ke a utwala**?

C: (some) E**e**.

T: **Go raya gore** … the minute we find the glucose or the amino acids in the urine, **go raya gore motho yoo** is no longer healthy. **Gakere**?

C: (in chorus) **Ee**.
T: One way or the other, something is not functioning well. So that's one thing you need to know. But as for the urea, excess water, and the salt, **ke tsone tse e leng gore** they form what is referred to as urine. **Go bo go raya gore** … other things that I said you should be able to remember is that, when there is less water in the system … system **re raya eng**? … The circulatory system; **gakere**?

C: [IN CHORUS] **Ee mma**.

T: when there is less water in the circulatory system, which hormone is going to be released? **Ee mma**? [SIGNALLING AT A FEMALE LEARNER TO ANSWER]

L1: The ADH hormone

T: The Anti Dueretic Hormone. **Gakere**?

C: (in chorus) **Ee**.

T: **Re thalositse gore** that ADH is the only … and only … going to be released in large amounts when there is less amount of water in the body. The ADH is going to be released so that it enhances re-absorption of water back into the blood stream. **Ka goreng**? **Ka gore ke le boleletse gore** … if the body runs short of water, what is going to happen to the cells? … If the body runs short of water, what is going to happen to the cells? … **Ee mma**? [ADDRESSING A FEMALE LEARNER]

L2: They will shrink.

T: They will shrink. **Ka goreng**? Because now the tissue fluid **e e leng gore** is going to be found surrounding the cells **e a go nna** concentrated. **Gakere**?

C: [IN CHORUS] **ee mma**.

T: Yes, **go raya gore** the concentrated solution is going to be formed, which is found to be surrounding the cells. **O kgona gore** these cells are going to lose most of the water. **Ke a utwala**?

C: [IN CHORUS] **ee mma**.

T: So, that is why **re be re thalosa gore** now in order for the body not to reach this stage whereby the cells are going to lose a lot of water (pause) that is why this hormone … the ADH…now gets released so that there will always be a balance of water between the cells and the surrounding fluid. **A le siame**?

C: [IN CHOURUS] **ee**.

T: Now when there is excess water in the body, or somebody has taken a lot of liquid in the body, we are saying this hormone is suppressed or is no longer released; because there is a need for that water to be moved out through the kidneys. So that's why **le taa hithela ha gongwe gotwe** one of the functions **tsa** kidneys **ke** osmo-regulation. **Ke dumela gore batho ba tshwanetse ba setse ba kopanye le lefoko la mohuta o. Gakere**?
C: (few) **Ee**.

T: **Ee**! That osmo-regulation **ga se sepe hela**, its all about the balancing of water in the body. **Ke a utwala**?

C: (some) **Ee**.

T: So that balancing is determined by the antideuretic hormone. *So* **re siame**?

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C: [SILENCE]

T: So, **ke ne ke boela ko morago hela go sekaenyana**; **gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee**.

T: **Ee, jaanong re be re re** … now once urine has been formed, we expect that urine to be removed from the…the body. So… but there are certain situations **tse e leng gore** we would expect or we would find that the urine might have some glucose molecules in it. Remember I said … once we find the glucose molecules inside the urine, which is a sign **ya gore** the person is not healthy. **Gakere**?

C: Yes.

T: So, **bo go raya gore** … now, when you find the glucose molecules inside the water, excuse me, that is a sign **ya gore** somebody has got what we refer to as kidney failure … **kana** the kidney problem. So, whenever you find the glucose molecules inside the blood … I mean inside the urine of a person, now that is a time **e re reng motho o nale** what we refer to as kidney failure. Or even some proteins … even some proteins … if you find some proteins inside the urine, **re dumela gore motho yoo o nale** eh…a kidney failure. **Ke a utwala**? Now how do you think a kidney failure can be solved? If somebody have got a kidney failure…usually, how is that problem solved? **Ee mma**? [ADDRESSING A FEMALE LEARNER]

L3: Kidney transplant.

T: One, she's saying somebody can perform what we refer to as kidney transplant. **Mmh**! **Ee rra**? [ADDRESSING A MALE LEARNER]

L4: A person can be put on a dialysis machine.

T: A person can be put on a dialysis machine … so we can also use what is also referred to as a dialysis machine. Anything else? **Mme** [ADDRESSING A FEMALE LEARNER]
L5: A person can remain with one kidney.

T: **Ee**, so what she's implying is that if there is one **e e senyegileng**, you can remove that one and remain with one. **Gakere**?

C: [SILENCE]

T: **Ee o kgona go tshela ka** kidney **enngwe hela**. So, in this case **go raya gore ha** [POINTING AT THE WRITING ON THE CHALKBOARD] **re raya gore tsothe di senyegile**, **gakere**?

C: **Ee**.

T: **Mmh**! …What else? How about if it is a minor failure? …something **se se** minor, what do you think could be done? **Ee rra** [TO A MALE LEARNER]

L6: (   ) they will do an operation.

T: **Ya eng**?

L6: **O di khenekha**.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: **O di khenekha**? **Go reng**?

L6: (   ) [answers in Setswana]

T: **Ke gore gatwe le dirang lebati la lona batho**! [COMMENTING ON NOISE MADE BY SWINGING DOOR]

C: (   ) (some)

T: **Ee, a ko o le tshegetse**. **Ee, a re o ka dirwa** operation. **Jaanong kene ke bata go itse** operation **ya teng** … **o khenekha ha kae**?

L6: (   ) [EXPLAINS IN SETSWANA]

T: **Ga tweng**?

L6: (   )further explains in Setswana

T: **Ee!**
L6: (   ) …**go phechiwa**.

T: **Go phechiwa ha kae**?
L6: **Ha go ta a bo** … **ha gongwe enale ntho**.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: **Ehe!** [SURPRISED AT THE EXPLANATION GIVEN BY LEARNER 6] **Ee… kana ke gore ha o akanya bo go phechiwa jaana** … **ha o akanya le go phechiwa jaana,** you should put little (   ) **ka gore re rile** those are the ones found in thousands … numbers to form a kidney. **Gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee**.

T: **So, ha o akanya le go phechiwa jaana ke gore o re bolelela gore** … lymphoma … **ha go tsileng go phechiwa teng** (   ). **Le gone** you're talking about a cell **e e leng gore** is …is…something that cannot (   ) a little high. So, le gone **o phecha selo se o sa se bonyeng ka matho jang**?

L7: (   )

T: **Waii…nnyaya, kana jaanong** (name) **a re riana** … **ka** hormone … which hormone do you think you're going to be injected **ka yone**? **Ka haele gore e ya go nna** hormone, **e tshwanetse e ye go nna** ADH. **Go raya gore golo gongwe** there is a failure in the reabsorption; **ka gore** … remember what I said **ka** ADH? **Ke rile** it

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increases the permeability of a tubule because that tubule is selective permeable. **Gakere**? So, **gongwe** the permeability **ya** the tubule can fail, yes, **go ka diragala gore e seka ya nna** effective **thata**. So it's all about increasing the efficiency. Or **motho yo mongwe ene, wena** as an individual … you're releasing less of that hormone. **Gakere**?

C: **Ee**.

T: So, if you're releasing less of that hormone, that's the only time **e e leng gore** you can be injected with that hormone. **Gakere**? **Mo gongwe ke eng kana mo go** obvious? … **Ke raya gore mo eleng gore gongwe ha o nale mathatanyana a bo** kidney **jaana, gongwe bo** kidney stones **jaana**? **Ee** (name)?

L8: By keeping to a strict diet.

T: By keeping to a strict diet. That is for a minor thing. **Ha o nale** minor kidney failure, you can correct that by keeping to a strict diet. So, the strict diet **e re ka buang ka yone ke gore motho wa teng o taa…o ka advisiwa gore a seka a ja eng se le se ntsi, kana a je eng mo go ntsi**? What would be the other? Because that is the one **e re reng** 'stick to the diet'. **Gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee**.

T: So, advice **e ka nna ya go reng** to that individual? **Gore a seka a ja eng mo go ntsi kana a je eng mo go ntsi**? **Ee mma** (to a female learner)
L9: They shouldn't eat a lot of salt.

T: They shouldn't eat a lot of salt.

L10: **Eeh! a a a! mmeke botse sengwenyana gape gone hoo**! Do you think the salt will cause a lot of excretion?

C: [IN CHORUS] Salt?

T: **Ee ga gona** … **ga gona** any other way **e e leng gore** we excrete salt beside through urine … the urine?

C: Through sweat.

T: Through the sweat, **heh! Ke raya gore le haele gore re ja letswai …tota re ja letswai le le sa … ee…tsenyeng bana ba pheho thata**. Unless **o nale bo** high blood **jaana**; **le bo ne malatsinyana a ba setse ba diretswe matswai a bone kana**. **Gakere**?

C: [IN CHORUS] **Ee**.

T: **Ga le itse**? **Le teng la** high blood! **Ee, ka re jaanong motho yoo o ka advisiwa gore a je eng thata**, **a seka a ja eng thata**? **Keyone potso yame**.

T: (name)

L11: (   )

T: Why?

L11: It increases…. (   )

T: It increases?

L11: It increases the bulk of the faeces.,

T: **Ee**! It increases the bulk of the faeces and it increases reabsorption of water inside the colon. **Go raya gore go nna metsinyana kwa**.

C: [LAUGHTER AND MUMBLES]

T: **Go raya gore** instead of getting … g**o raya gore** in other words, water can be diverted … instead of the person urinating frequently, the person can remove faeces frequently.

C: [LAUGHTER, SOME SHOWING SURPRISE]

T: **Nnyaya**, **mme ke botse potso ele nngwe hela hela**. **Ha motho a tsenywe ke mala go a diragala gore a urineite kgapetsa**?

C: No!

T: **A re nne** realistic **batho**, **le ha o ka gakologelwa nako nngwe o tsenywe ke mala hela**, **ga go ke go diragala gore o nne le** emergency**? Kana e nna ka ha kgapetsa kgapetsa**. **Gakere**?

C: **Ee mma**!

T: **Ee**! **A re nneng** realistic **ka ra re** advice …advice **ya motho yoo … re ka advisa jang** that individual? (name)?

L12: I think the person must eat food containing iron.

T: **Ee**! **Re ne re reng golo ha**? Advice on strict diet, **gakere**?

C: (some) E**e**! Strict diet.

T: Why iron (name)? **Kana nna ke rile o ne o mpha lebaka la gore ke eng o rialo**! Why why why take in a lot of iron? … **E go thusa jang**?

L12: **Ke raya ka gore madi a bo a nna metsi**.

T: **Le a be le bata dustara, gakere**?

C: [IN CHORUS] No! (some); **nnyaa** (others)

T: **Ee**! **Nkarabeng**! … **Ke tsaya dustara ke lekobonya menwananyana yone e** … (name)

L13: By avoiding taking in a lot of proteins.

T: By avoiding taking in a lot of proteins. **Selo sa ntha hela se le tshwanetseng gore le se ipotse ke gore** what are we removing? What is it that the kidney is removing **se se rileng**? It is going to be toxic to the body cells. …is the removal of urea, **gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee!**

T: **Potso e o ipotsang ke gore** … where does urea come from? It comes from what? Proteins! **Ke a utwala**?

C: **Ee!**

T: **Ee!** It comes from proteins. When you take proteins, we encourage formation of urea. So, when we minimize the intake of proteins, you're minimizing the formation of urea in the body ... **Ke a utwala**?

C: **Ee!**

T: **Ee!** So **batho ba** (   ) will always be advised not to take in a lot of proteins, but to take in a lot of roughage **jaaka a ne a bua … Ka goreng**? **Ka gore mpa e ta a tala** … **e tala ee…**what can be removed very fast but **go sa forme** a lot of toxic material **eleng** the urea; **ke a utwala**?

C: **Ee**.

T: **Ee!** So that's the question that you should know **gore** the person will always be advised to take in less protein. Why? Because the urea comes from the protein. So, **e tshwanetse e nne** less protein intake. **Re setse re thalositse gore** the urea is formed from proteins, how by the way? …How is the urea formed from proteins? …How is urea formed from proteins? **A a !** … **ke tshwere dustara ke le kgonye menwananyana yone eo! Ee rra**? [ADDRESSING A MALE LEARNER]

L13: Through the process of dealienation.

T: He says through dealienation … he says through dealienation. That is where the urea is going to be formed. **Gakere**?

C: (some) Yes

T: Yes! **Re thalositse hoo hela gore** proteins are going to be dealienated and during that dealienation … **e re rileng** that is the removal of the nitrogenal group from proteins. **Gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee…**.

T: That nitrogenal group is the one that is going to be converted into urea … that nitrogenal group is the one that is going to be converted into urea. Process **ya teng jaanong ke e heng ha re converta ha kana**? … Detoxification! **Gakere**?

C: (in chorus) **Ee mma**.

T: So, **ke tsone** the two processes **tse e leng gore** they meet for the formation of urea. That's why I always say please lets carry along the concepts of the various topics **tse re di dirileng**. **Le seka la lebala** … because you'll always need them along the way. **Gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee…**

T: **Ehe! Jaanong re be re re** those are the three ways **tse re setseng re bona gore motho yo o nang le** kidney failure could be assisted **ka tsone**. **Gakere**? … So, now … **ah**! Of   (   )   this one [POINTING AT THE WRITE-UP ON THE CHALKBOARD] **ke setse ke thalositse gore** when somebody have got a minor kidney failure, **gakere**? … **E e leng gore** it can be corrected through the diet. So, when a person have got a permanent kidney failure, **tse pedi tse ke tsone tse e leng gore** they're taken care of [POINTING ON THE CHALKBOARD] the kidney transplant and the dialysis machine. But you find that in most cases … in most cases … the …eh…the kidney transplant is rarely done, **ka go reng**? … **Ee**? (name)

L14: It is usually difficult to find a suitable donor.

T: Yes, because it is usually difficult to find a suitable donor. **Kana go raya gore ha ele gore ijo!** … **Mo lesikeng la lona** … eh…**ga gona ope yo o** prepared **go tshela ka philo enngwe hela**, **a mphile enngwe**, **go raya gore go taa nna le mathata**. **Gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee…**

T: **Ehe! Le nna ke toga ke ntsha philonyana yame kante ga e a tsoga sente enngwe** … so there is the risk **e e santseng batho ba e tshaba** … **mme legale mo Botswana malatsinyana a**, **gatwe** we should preach and encourage you **gore le ithute go doneita**. And **e be e bewa e beelwa wa lesika la gago**.

C: [MUMBLE WITH MIXED REACTION]

L15: **Jaanong e o setseng ka yone ha e feila o dira jang**? **Ke raya gore ha o sena go doneita e be ya gago e lwala wena o dira jang**?
T: Strict diet.
L15: **Ke raya gore o le mo go yone 'strict diet' mme e be e feila, o dira jang**?

T: **O hile! Modimo ware 'go sego ba ba hileng…**'

C: Aahh! [IN EXCLAMATION THEN LAUGHTER]

T: **Bele e ledile**? [ASKING IF THE BELL THAT SIGNALS THE END OF THE LESSON HAS RUNG)

C: (in chorus) **Ee mma**!

T: **Go siame**.

Class rises and leaves the classroom, immediately switching over to Setswana and talking among themselves.

TRANSCRIPTION 2

Lesson: Home Economics: Fashion and Fabric

The teacher walked into the room and greeted the class in Setswana and then asked them still in Setswana to quickly tidy up the classroom and to open the windows before the lesson began. After the class settled down, she gave them lesson handouts and continued to address them in Setswana. She then switched over to English when the formal part of the lesson began. The lesson was on "Design Elements and Principles". The opening part of the lesson was unclear on the tape but the teacher spoke in English. The lesson was teacher centred; the teacher appeared active and seemed to have no problem with self-expression in English. The teacher read from the handout and explained at intervals while the learners listened with occasional 'ee, mma' to indicate that they are following the lesson.

T: ( ) So, in design elements … eh… because you know we are also Fashion and Fabric students, we are going to be designing certain articles. Eh…eh…or … you can design **kana ke** table-cloth or what; it all depends on what you want to design. But … eh…the design elements eh…for you to start designing, you have to know these design elements … because as you design, you sit down … you use your what? You use your…you use your hands. **Gakere**? You cannot just design from the air, you have to sit down and use your hand to draw…or design whatever you … you want to design. So, when you look at the handout … the handout that we have, **gakere** everyone has a handout; **gakere**?

C: (in chorus) Yes.

T: So, we are going to use this handout for our discussion, mm? ( ). So, the first statement **ya re** "design is a selection and arrangement of lines … state of both same colour and shape." So when you design, it means you have to think of the lines. **Gakere**?

C: (some) Yes.

T: Think of the lines, **gakere**?

C: (some) Yes.

T: The lines can either be straight, they can either be… be curves. **Gakere**?

C: (some) Yes.

T: You have straight lines which you will…( ) in what?

C: (silence)

T: Straight lines, ee… parallel, **e bidiwa go tweng**? … vertical. Then you can have horizontal lines, you can have … slanted curves, and the like. So we have a variety of lines which we use in …in designing. **Gakere**? And also we have … the shapes … we have shapes; any other shape?

C: (silence)

T: We have **bo square**, triangle. And also as you design you have to consider the colour … you also consider the colour. If you (   ) **gore** if I'm going to make this … I'm going to design this, I will use the curved lines; **gakere**? If I use the curved lines, which colour will I apply so that at the end of it I would have achieved what I … what I want. **Gakere**? Because you want to create something, eh… you want to make something, so for you to do that, you think first of the lines, and then the shape. You say, "how do I like this to look like? Do I like this to look like a square, or do I make what?" You can even design a curve. (   ) goes (   ), **gakere**? And then now you think of the colour. If I put this colour, what effect will this colour have on…on what I want to design? **Ke a utlwala sentle gakere**?

C: (in chorus) **Ee mma**.

T: [READS FROM HANDOUT THEN EXPLAINS WHAT SHE HAS BEEN READING]

T: Remember you have created (   ) with different colours; **gakere**? Remember that some of the fabrics are what? … They are light, some they are heavy, some they are … medium to heavy. **Gakere**?

C: (in chorus) **Ee mma**.

T: So all these fabrics, they have different effects. If you use a heavy fabric on a certain design, it will have a…it will have a certain effect. For instance, if you decide to use … eh…to use eh… I decide to make a skirt; I decide to make a skirt; and that skirt …maybe I'm making this skirt for a very …for a very big person like (name), eh… and then I decide to use a very heavy fabric; heh! What is going to happen? She is going to look much bigger! because I have used a… a heavy fabric; ee?

C: (in chorus) **Ee mma**.

T: So, it is because of that heavy fabric. So let's look at the lines … lets look at the lines. [READS FROM HANDOUT THEN EXPLAINS]

T: So, we always … eh…**gakere** if I tell you **gore** , okay these long and vertical lines … heh… if you just look at these [POINTING AT THE DESIGN ON THE CHALKBOARD] **gakere** these…these straight lines … the vertical lines … if you use the vertical lines, what is going to happen?

C: (silence)

T: One would look slimmer. Amh… but wena you wouldn't believe it until you see on the garment. Start to make a dress, and then the dress … you use a fabric **e e leng gore** … the fabric has vertical lines. **Gakere**?

C: (silence)

T: So, if the vertical (   ) you use the vertical lines on this garment … on … eh… a garment which is made of eh… vertical lines. Then whoever is going to wear this

dress, because it makes you … **akere go raya gore** you look from the top going down; **gakere**?

C: **Ee**.

T: So, **gakere go raya gore** the illusion, **ha o leba jaana**, [DEMONSTRATES WITH HEAD AND HANDS] what happens? **O leba o ya kae**? … **ko tlase gakere**? It makes you think that the person is tall. **Gakere**?

C: (some) **Ee**.

T: Because these are parallel vertical lines; **gakere**?

C: **Ee**

T: So… "but all lines are either straight or [READS FROM HANDOUT]

T: They can eh… they can eh… they can camaflouge. By camaflouge we mean **gore** … okay … if I am eh… I am what? I'm big as I am … at least straight lines will make me appear … mmh? [SOLICITING RESPONSE FROM THE CLASS]

C: (silence)

T: Will make me appear, mmh?

C: (silence)

T: They will make me appear taller and slimmer! Mmh! They have disguised my figure. **Gakere**?

C: **Ee mma**.

T: So that I don't look as …as big as I ammm…..! You all know **gore Mma** (name) is big … and then what person? Eh… **ha ke apere jaana**, I will have disguised my figure. That's why you would think a person is tall, because **o leba ko godimo o leba ko tlase**. So, the vertical lines, they encourage up and down movement. The vertical lines, they encourage up and down; you don't look like that [DEMONSTRATES] crosswise like that; instead you look up and down. **Ee**! That is why you say that the person is tall and slim, you look up and down [DEMONSTRATES]. **Ee**! And then you create an illusion of height. Vertical lines therefore create an … an accentuate height … the vertical lines. So when you look at page (   ) … next page…[READS FROM HANDOUT]

T: As I have already mentioned; and short or plum girls should keep this in mind and apply it; mmh! Those people who are short and fat; **ee**! Ba ba kima ba ba khutshwane … for them to disguise their figure, they must use these…the vertical … the vertical lines; so that they appear a little bit taller and a little bit slimmer; eh?

C: (silence)

T: **Ee**! (then reads from handout, then explains)

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T: So, if you use a v-neck line, a v-neck line meets here [DEMONSTRATES WITH HER HANDS]; so if I am somebody with a very short neck; **heh**! With a short neck, **heh**! My neck is short…; **heh**! So, then it means if I wear something like this [DEMONSTRATES WITH HER HANDS] a curved line neck like that or a a…neckline like that [DEMONSTRATES WITH HER HANDS] what is going to happen?

C: (silence)

T: My neck is going to appear even very short, and you'll …be like this [POSTURES USING HER NECK] **wa bona**! **Ee**! But if you wear something **se e leng gore** is what? … is v- like that [DEMONSTRATES] then your neck will appear … longer. **Gakere o bona gore** this is where these lines meet … **o a bona**? My neck will look longer. **Ee**! **Ke a utlwala**?

C: **Ee**.

T: V-lines have an impact; **ee**. It's that **ga re apara jaana**…the problem is that …eh…we just dress for the sake …**eh**…**gatweng**? Mm! eh…eh… **re aitse gore ke** fashion **gakere**?

C: (silence)

T: **Ee**! Because this is in fashion, so it means I can dress like that. But if you know yourself … it's very important that you know yourself, so that when you choose, you choose your wardrobe; then you know as much as possible that certain clothes … you want to disguise…to disguise the bad features **tsa mmele wa gago**. **Gakere**?

C; (some) **Ee**

T: And then expose those that are good, **Ee**! **Ke a utlwala sentle**?

C: (in chorus) **Ee**

T: **Ee**! Let's not … let's not just dress for the sake of it; let's dress knowing that **gore rona** we are fashion and design students. **Re a itse jaaka go aparwa**. (   ) And then we get to the horizontal lines. The horizontal lines … they create a side to side movement. [DEMONSTRATES WITH HER HEAD AND EYES] So, the horizontal ( ) **gakere**   (   ) so it means **gore (   ) gakere** [STILL DEMONSTRATING SIDE TO SIDE MOVEMENT OF EYES] **go raya gore matlho a gago a tsamaya jaana** [IMITATES] side by side. And then **go raya gore tsone** they create what?

C: (silence)

T: One would look what?

C: (mumbles)

T: Will look a bit big. **Go reela gore** you will look a bit fat, and also the height will be short. **Gakere**?

C: **Ee**.

T: So this can be used by what? … So these can be used by people **ba eleng gore** they are thin and tall! **Ee**! Thin and tall. Horizontal lines emphasize on … or create an illusion of big ….[READS FROM HANDOUT]

T: So, if for instance, **ha ele gore** … okay … I have decided I'm making a skirt; **gakere**; vertical lines and horizontal lines … and then if you use these horizontal lines … maybe I'm somebody **yo eleng gore** I have big backside or big hips; eh! And then I decide to use horizontal lines, what is going to happen? Eh?

C: (silence)

T: **Go raya gore** the…the hips are going to look much bigger. **Gakere**?

C: (in chorus) **Ee**

T: So, then it means what you could do there, you could combine these [POINTS AT THE LINES DRAWN ON CHALKBOARD] **wa bona**? You could combine vertical lines and horizontal lines so that the vertical lines (   ); **wa bona**? Let's go to the next page **re lebelele** slanted lines … slanted lines. [READS FROM HANDOUT, THEN EXPLAINS]

T: So, these ones … the slanted lines **gakere go raya gore le tsone** you will be moving up and down along those lines that [DEMONSTRATES WITH HER HEAD AND EYES], **gakere**?
C: **Ee**.

T: So they combine both the vertical and the horizontal lines. So, they …they can therefore, either increase or decrease an illusion of height or slimness. **Ee**; depending on the degree of slant. So, let's look at the first picture there … the first picture [REFERS TO PICTURE IN THE HANDOUT]. **Akere o bona gore e a slanta, gakere**? …but it doesn't slant much; so this person on the…on the first picture appears … appears what? **Eh**?

C: (silence)

T: She appears taller and thinner; eh?

C: **Ee**

T: Thinner compared to the one **yo o mo** the second eh…the second eh…the second picture there. **Ha o mo lebile** the slant is much flattered; that, **gakere**?

C: **Ee mma**.

T: And then this person … the picture … it appears to be very shorter and a bit … **wa bona** the…the…the … **o appeara a le** a bit …a bit bigger as compared to the first picture there. So, **o bona gore** it all depends **gore** it (   ). And then this one will look taller and the other one will look flattering [POINTS AT THE PICTURES IN THE HANDOUT; THEN READS FROM HANDOUT]

T: Now we look at the crossed lines. They appear long (   ). Usually these lines … they are good for…eh…**gakere** when you make … when you look at this one [POINTS AT PICTURE] the second picture there, **ha o lebelela** the lines, the curved lines have been used just above; **ee mo busteng hela ha** [TOUCHES HER BUST] just below the bust, **ha! Wa bona gakere mo picturing**? Don't look at me; **kare mo pictureng!** … just below the bust   **wa bona gakere**? **he**?

C: **Ee mma**.

T: So, if this side where it is, **ha o lebelela jaana**, **ekare** (   ) **gakere**? So these lines they will be used for such designs such as maternity dresses, so that they can help to hide the tummy; **gakere**? **Ee**. And also when you look like **ba bua gore** the "impression of femininity", **ha o apere** these… these… eh… curved lines, **di go dira gore o nne** full! You should look like a real … mm! a real woman, he! **Wa bogologolo**! They want you to look full full **gore o bonale gore o mosadi**. **Heh**? Yes! This attire **ya bo… ya bo… gatwe bo mang**? **Mm… boo…bo Knightingale** … **gone hoo**. What they used to wear, they would wear full dresses **ba tsenya** what you call fastening gail **mo teng**. A fastening gail was a petticoat of some sort. And this petticoat **e ne e rokiwa e nna** full full full! **Go ne go dirisiwa le** (   ) **ga ke itse a go dirisiwa le diwaere mo teng jaana**. (   ) so that **ha o apara**, as she walks, **heh! Go bo go bonala gore ke mosadi yo o** full because of these curved lines. Heh! … **Gakere le a itse jaaka Baherero** …. lets give an example, yes, the way they dress, **heh! Ha ba tswa kw**a [TOUCHING HER UPPER BUST] **go thaete** (tight)! **Gakere**? Heh! Then when they get here [TOUCHES HER WAISTLINE] it flares. **Gakere**? **Le tsone di line tse di khevang** (curved lines) **tse**. So, they really look like (   ), **heh**? **heh**?

C: (in chorus) **Ee mma**.

T: Still **tsone** the rounded lines … **e bua gore** [REFERRING TO HANDOUT] what will… will happen **batlaa bo ba apara tsone di** fastening gails … **tsone di** fastening gails **tseo** and give a complete curve. **Ke gore** they will be gathered **jaana** [DEMONSTRATES] and then **kwano go tshwara**. So that **ha a tsamaya go bo go bona mongwe le mongwe**.
So, the rounded … eh…[READS FROM HANDOUT]

T: So, imagine if I'm wearing rounded lines, how will I look like? **Ke tla bo ke nna tlougadi jaanong**.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: [READS FROM HANDOUT, THEN EXPLAINS]

C: So when you look at the last picture there [REFERS TO PICTURE IN THE HANDOUT] **heh**! you create an (   ) effect. You can use a short cut (   ) is usually full at the top and then **ha e tla kwano e bo e nna eng**? **Ebe e tla e tshwara**. Heh! And then [READS FROM HANDOUT]

T: A silhouette **go tewa** our body … **go tewa** our body. …and now we look at the shape…. So this is our body so **mongwe le mongwe a itse gore figara ya gagwe entse jan**g…. So, from now **re ya go nna le mmirra** (mirror) we should know **gore re ntse**

jang. **Mongwe le mongwe a itse ka ha mmele wa gagwe o ntseng ka teng**.One of my lecturers **wa** fashion and fabrics **ko universiting** used to tell us **gore** we should talk to us. You know you look at the mirror and **o bo o re** "mirror mirror talk to me, talk to me"; **a apara**.

C: [GIGGLES]

T: You just wear your underwear **hela**, **heh**! …you just wear your underwear; **o bo o ipolelela gore, "hei** I have a protruding tummy, I have a puffed face" **Nna** I know myself. So you look at yourself so that you choose the right clothes; **heh! Re autlwana**?

C: (some) **Ee mma**.

T: So, **go raya gore** after this lesson **mongwe le mongwe ha a boa kwa, a bo a analaesa (**analyze) **mmele wa gagwe**. So that you choose (class interrupts)

C: (in chorus) **Ga re na diipone**.

T: **Mma**?

C: (in chorus) **Ga re na diipone**.

T: **Gakere re nale mirror ke o** [POINTING AT THE CLASS MIRROR], **heh**? **Ee**.

C: **Aa**! **Re bo re apolela kae**?

T: **O tsena hela ka kwa**, you just come here, **nnyaa re bo re tswala** the curtains; **ga gona mathata**.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: **Mongwe le mongwe e re ha a chusa a bo a itse gore o chusa** the right element for **se a itseng gore otlaa fita sentle mo go sone**. So, let's look at the shape and form. The shape we agreed … we are referring to the square, round, or triangle and the like. [READS FROM HANDOUT] 'So, the shapes cannot be achieved without lines…" [THEN EXPLAINS]

T: For you to come up with a …a square, you need to have what? **Heh**? …For you to come up with a square **o tlhokana le eng**?

C: (silence)

T: You need lines and you need (   ) then you come up with a shape; **gakere**?

C: **Ee mma**.

T: Yes, you come up with a shape. [THEN READS FROM HANDOUT AND EXPLAINS] **mo mmetseng** (math) **gakere**? [THEN READS AGAIN]

T: So, you think that **e le gore** (   ) shape, you can use this to come up with a shape, **eh**! **Go simolola gore tlhaloganyo ya gago e go raya ere** … 'end'. **Fa o sena gonna o hetsa** you realize that you need these lines to come up with a shape and as you design, you design … and then **o dira sheipi** (shape). If you design a dress for me you are coming up with shape, **gakere**? Because you're mixing these lines to come up with a shape. So, let's look at number one [READS FROM HANDOUT]

T: **E chaile**?

C: **Ee mma**.

T: **Go siame**, **retla tswelela** next time.

At the end of the lesson the teacher winds up the lesson in the mix of both English and Setswana.

TRANSCRIPTION 3

Lesson: History

Topic: The colonization of the Cape by the Dutch
The greetings and other house keeping matters were done in Setswana. The lesson
started with recapping of previous lesson, and then moving on to the topic of the day.
The lesson was teacher-centred as the teacher mainly delivered the lesson while the
class listened attentively. The teacher tried to involve the learners in the development
of the lesson by asking them questions at intervals; but with little success. The learners
were reserved, and reluctant to respond to the teacher's questions. The teacher mainly
delivered the lesson in English and also explained in English; but *switched* to Setswana
for social reasons or to occasionally reiterate what he had already said in English.
However, in a few instances he **cs** to Setswana to emphasize what he had already said
in English and also to give an analogy in order to help the learners to understand what
he was explaining (e.g. the point he made about how catle herders are remunerated in
Botswana and the conditions under which Jan Van Riebeck's company servants were
treated). The teacher was articulate and delivered the lesson in an unambiguous
manner even though the learners were reserved and did not participate much in the
lesson development even when the teacher asked leading questions.

T: **Dumelang!**

C: **Ee, rra**.

T: Cleanang blackboard. [A LEARNER VOLUNTEERS TO CLEAN THE
CHALKBOARD] **Dira ka bonako**.

T: (   ) How they responded to the Portuguese attempt to colonize their Kingdom;
moving onto the Portuguese showing interest in the (   ) kingdom which was then
under the leadership of Queen Ntsinga. And since they staged some campaigns against
the colonization (   ), but in the end, the Portuguese were nevertheless able to colonize
Angola. And then you know that Angola was a colony of Portugal. Now we are to
look at a different story here which is the colonization of the Cape by the Dutch. To
start with, maybe I could have (   ). To start with, from which country are the Dutch?

C: [SILENCE]

T: The Dutch are from which country? … If people are referred to as the Dutch, they
are from? …yes (name)?

L1: Holland.

T: They are from Holland … Holland. This country … Holland, is also known as
Holland or …?

L2: The Netherlands.

T: Holland or The Netherlands … or The Nether…lands … So, Dutch here we mainly
use it to refer to the people themselves, their nationality or their language. We are
saying these people are from this country called Holland or the Netherlands. What

about the Cape? … In which country do we find the Cape? … Or before we go on, in which continent is Holland? Holland is found in which continent? ... In Africa … Asia … Ha? Yes (name)?

L3: In Europe.

T: Okay, Holland is in Europe. And what about the Cape? … It is found in which country? … Yes (name)?

L4: In South Africa.

T: Yes, in South Africa. So we're talking about this country … Holland or the Netherlands … showing some interest in a place in South Africa; and that place is the Cape. We shall have a rough sketch here of the map of Africa. [DRAWS A MAP OF AFRICA ON THE CHALKBOARD] Amh…where is Europe there? [POINTING AT THE CHALKBOARD ASKING THE CLASS TO INDICATE ON WHICH SIDE OF AFRICA EUROPE WAS]

C: [SILENCE]

T: Is it this side? This side? That side or on southern part? [POINTS AT THE MAP]

C: [SILENCE]

T: Is it in the northern part? Eastern part? Western part or southern part? … Europe. [POINTS AT ONE OF THE LEARNERS TO ANSWER]

L5: (   ) [MUMBLES THE ANSWER]

T: Hah? [SIGNALS THAT HE DID NOT HEAR]

L5: [REPEATS ANSWER]

T: Okay, we find Europe there. [POINTS AT THE CHALKBOARD] And we are saying that … we are talking about the Dutch colonization of the Cape; and we find the Cape here; [POINTS AT MAP OF AFRICA] at the tip of South Africa. What you're supposed to understand is the events which led to this country … Holland, to eventually develop some interest in this place here. [POINTING AT THE CAPE ON THE MAP] Holland, just like Portugal, had some interest in the East. The Far East, we are talking about a place somewhere here … Asia [POINTS AT CHALKBOARD]. To be specific, we're talking about India and the Islands of Indonesia. There was a very lucrative trade in gold, silver, and spices in the Far East. So these countries … Holland, Britain, and Portugal, … they sent out some people to sail right there from Europe, right there in Africa to the Far East. [POINTS AT THE LOCATIONS ON THE CHALKBOARD]. Because they were after these commodities: gold, silver and spices … which they found here. [POINTING AT THE FAR EAST ON THE MAP] They could not just easily cross from this point up to here … [POINTS AT MAP] because by then the Suez Canal had not been established. So, that's why they had to take that long trip right round Africa up to Asia. [SHOWS LONG ROUTE FROM EUROPE TO ASIA] … Now what problems do you think were encountered by the sailors as

they travelled from Europe, round Africa, up to the Far East … looking for the items that we've listed here?

C: [SILENCE]

T: What possible problems may have been encountered? (name)

L6: Tiredness.

T: Some actually … or let me just say 'tiredness' is obviously a…one of the problems that these people may have encountered. Amh…what longest trip have you ever travelled? (name) … Have you ever travelled?

L7: No.

T: What about you? (name) **A mme o bua nnete**? [REFERRING TO LEARNER 7] Ee?

L8: Maun.

T: Maun? And you were from which point to Maun?

L8: (   ) [MENTIONS NAME OF PLACE]

T: You were from which place?

L8: (   ) [REPEATS HER ANSWER]

T: What problems did you encounter on the way?

L8: Hunger.

T: Hah? … hah?

L8: Hunger.

T: Hunger? … What about you? (name) …What about you? … Ha? Or were you just okay from here up to Maun? [ADDRESSING L8 AGAIN] … Hah? … Any other? What problems did you encounter in the longest journey that you have ever taken?

L9: [MUMBLES] Hunger.

T: Hah! … Hunger? **Le tshwerwe ke tala le ha go ntse jalo**.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: **Hei, le tshwarwa ke tala mothoho jang**! Okay, whenever someone has to drive a very long distance or you're just there as a passenger, a…the chances that you're going to get tired … maybe traveling from here to Gaborone … traveling from here to Kasane, Maun … five hundred or more kilometers … you're bound to get tired. **Ee**…that's why **batho ba bo** road transport … they advise people to have some

eh…points where they may rest, just relax for maybe, thirty minutes and then you continue with your journey. So, we're saying that these people … as they sailed from Europe to the Far East, they faced these problems of tiredness. Also there was a problem of the outbreak of scurvy … What is scurvy?

C: [SILENCE]

T: What is scurvy?

C: [SILENCE]

T: We agreed that these people got tired because the journeys were really long. The other problem was that there was outbreak of the disease, and the disease **ke eng**? …

L10: (   )

T: Will you please raise your voice!

L10: This is caused by lack of vitamins.

T: This is caused by a lack of vitamins … or to be more specific, especially by a lack of vegetables … fresh vegetables. So this means that there was a call for the establishment of a point … where these sailors from Europe to the Far East could rest … for sometime … so they could have their ships being attended to, scurvy being treated before they continued with their journeys. Before they could think about the Cape, the sailors had been using the island of St. Helena … which is just along the coast of the Atlantic Ocean … next to Angola. So they were using that island of St. Helena, but the problem was that the island was not quite convenient. They could not have a fresh supply of fresh vegetables or meat. That is, when they compared with the Cape … if they were to have their half-way station at the Cape. Other thing that is worth noting is that … amh…these people of Holland … they were pursuing their interest in the far East through the Dutch East India Company; and the British through the English East India Company. **Gakere** there was that island of St. Helena (   ) some problems to the sailors. So there was a need to find… [LONG PAUSE DUE TO INTERRUPTION BY A KNOCK AT THE DOOR BY SOME OF THE LEARNERS WHO WERE LATE FOR THE LESSON] **Le tswa kae**?

L: We were lost.

T: Heh? were you in room eleven?

Ls: (in chorus) **Rra**?

T: Were you in room eleven?

Ls: **Ee rra**.

[LEARNERS ALLOWED TO SETTLE DOWN BEFORE TEACHER CONTINUES WITH THE LESSON]

T: So, we were saying that now there was need for these sailors to find them alternative half-way point … because this island of St. Helena was not quite convenient to them; and there was an incident which led to the establishment of the Cape as a half-way point, and, subsequently as a colony of Holland. [SILENCE] So, that incident which led to the establishment of the Cape as a halfway point happened in 1647. There was a Dutch ship which was sailing from Europe there [POINTING AT THE MAP ON THE CHALKBOARD] to the Far East. That Dutch ship was sailing to the Far East … That Dutch ship was known as the Harlem. As this ship was sailing to the Far East, the ship got wrecked around the Cape. This means that it was damaged. The ship got wrecked around the Cape and the members of the Harlem were at the Cape for six months. So it was while these people were at the Cape … after their ship got damaged that they felt that they were to move from St. Helena … and now have their half-way station at the Cape. It could be really quite convenient as compared to St. Helena … because while they were there for six months, after their ship got damaged, they were able to interact with the people there at the Cape … and see what the place was like; and now they were comparing with St Helena. They felt it would be wise for them to now have the Cape as their half-way point … and forget about St. Helena. So, that's when they made a recommendation to the Dutch government that now they should move the half-way point from St. Helena to the Cape. And they advanced the reason why they felt the Cape was better. And the Dutch government had no problem in approving the recommendations of the crew … And subsequently the Dutch government sent a team which was led by Jan Van Riebeck with specific instructions of turning the Cape into a half-way station. … And what were they to do? … One, they were to establish friendly relations with the Khoi in order to trade with them for… What is it that the Khoi have, that they're well-known for?

C: [SILENCE]

T: The Khoi … they are…? Hehh…?:

L10: Cattle herders.

T: They 're cattle herders … So, these people were to establish friendly relations with the Khoi, so that they could trade with them for meat. … Ah! The other problem that we mentioned, is that there was an outbreak of scurvy. Now I want you to go and read that topic; … So what else do you think these people were to do at the Cape in order to solve the problem of scurvy for the sailors?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Ha? … There was a problem of scurvy and it was to be solved … and now we're having these people moving from Holland to the Cape … to establish the Cape as a half-way point. One, to establish friendly relations with the Khoi in order to trade with them for meat. But there was another thing which was of importance … what do you think was to be done in order to solve the problem of scurvy? (name) What causes scurvy?

L11: [SILENCE]

T: I mean, someone answered that question just a few minutes back! … What did we say causes scurvy? Yes (name)?

L12: Lack of fresh vegetables.

T: **Ee…**! Lack of vegetables. What do you think these people were to do in order to solve the problem of scurvy? … Yes (name)?

L13: (   ) [MUMBLES]

T: Raise your voice.

L13: To give them (   )

T: No! not quite convincing … Yes (name)?

L14: I think to give them food.

T: Where would that food be obtained? …Ah…! (name) In their? Okay you've got some vegetables, where do you get them from? … Say you want some vegetables, where would you get those vegetables? … Yes (name)?

L15: You get them from the gardens.

T: Okay, to establish some gardens; … and raw vegetables to supply Dutch ships to and from India. So, there were a number of people who left Holland under the leadership of Jan Van Riebeck. They were there to establish the Cape as a half-way point. Ah…! And then to establish some gardens and grow vegetables to supply Dutch ships to and from India. … To establish friendly relations with the Khoi. Why?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Because they wanted to get meat from the Khoi. And also to establish a fort of the (   ) Jan van Riebeck and his team were to establish a fort, and what's a fort? ... Jan Van Riebeck and his team were to establish a fort at the Cape; … What's a fort?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Heh?

L15: (   ) [mumbles]

T: Raise your voice! Ah? … heh? … What?

L15: (   ) [MUMBLES]

T: ...A building from which soldiers can defend a settlement. So, this fort was to house or accommodate soldiers who would be there to protect the Cape settlement, …and also to be used as a hospital. What was need for a hospital there? …What purpose do you think was to be served?

C: [SILENCE]

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T: Ha? … What purpose do you think the hospital there served? **Ako o suthe** board. [addressing a learner who had previously cleaned the chalkboard]

C: [SILENCE]

T: You're saying they were to establish a fort from which soldiers would defend the settlement at the Cape; … and also for it to be used as a hospital… now, what purpose do you think that the hospital was to serve?

C: [SILENCE]

T: **Se ne se dirisediwa eng sepatela? Kana** the answer is very obvious! Heh? Yes? [to Learner 15]

L15: (   ) [MUMBLES]

T: A…a….a! raise your voice!

L15: It was meant to attend those people sailing to India.

T: Yes, there was need to attend to those people sailing to and from India … especially the outbreak of this … eh… scurvy. There was need for a hospital to be established there in order to cater for those who may fall sick during these long trips to and from India. Are you okay (name)?

L16: Yes.

T: Hah? … Are you sure?

L16: Yes.

T: Okay … okay we have looked at the (   ), specific instructions of Jan Van Riebeck, and they were given (   ) … now turning to the Cape, turning it into a half-way point; establish a fort there to house the soldiers, in order to be used as a hospital; to establish gardens in order to grow vegetables and supply Dutch ships to and from India; to establish friendly relations with the Khoi in order to get some meat. Now, when Jan Van Riebeck arrived at the Cape in 1652 and embarked on this project; all was not well … the first ten years were actually full of problems for Jan Van Riebeck and his team; … and what problems did Jan Van Riebeck face?

C: [SILENCE]

T: The first problem was that in that same year that they arrived in 1652, there was an outbreak of drought … there was an outbreak of drought in 1652. Stop writing! [TEACHER INSTRUCTS LEARNERS TO LISTEN AND NOT TO WRITE NOTES] Now, how have that drought affected Jan Van Riebeck and his team's plans? How have that drought affected Jan Van Riebeck's plans?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Answer the questions with reference to what we have just mentioned here. **A ko oye go cleana ka fa**.

C: [SILENCE]

T: How have that drought affected Jan Van Riebeck's plans?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Answer the question … just refer to these [POINTS AT NOTES ON CHALKBOARD] Ah…! Yes (name)?

L 17: At least to shutter the plans of Jan Van Riebeck to trade in meat.

T: Can you explain that further?

L17: The animals died because of the drought so the trade in meat could not take place.

T: Aha…! She said that … eh…the animals died because of the drought. So, still that trade … in meat … could not be effective since some animals died. Yes (name)?

L18: (   ) [mumbles]

T: You can raise your voice

T: Mmh…! Which people? **Jaanong ke wena o** (   )! Okay you're saying because of the drought … people there at the farm may have decided to move to other places. Ehe! … A..a…a …a! raise your voice [TO L 18]

L18: Vegetables did not grow well.

T: Because of these outbreak of drought, vegetables did not grow well. Which problems continued? You're saying there was an outbreak of drought and when there was outbreak, which problems there continued? And when there was drought, vegetables there did not grow well, so what problems then continued to be there?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Yes (name)? **Nna free hela o bue o seka wa tshaba**.

L19: Scurvy.

T: Yah! The problem of scurvy continued because there was drought and vegetables didn't grow well. So, those vegetables which could be produced by Jan Van Riebeck and his men could not be enough to be supplied to Dutch ships to and from India … and also we're talking about cattle here, belonging to the Khoikhoi; who by then were in the Cape. So when there was that outbreak of drought, they moved northwards … a…into the interior. Right. Assuming that is the tip where the Cape is [POINTING AT THE MAP ON THE CHALKBOARD], now when there was drought, the Khoi started to move into the interior with their cattle … with the hope that they could probably find better pastures … so what happened? Now when these people moved

away from the Cape, the Khoi, that is, the Khoi moved away from the Cape into the interior, hoping that they could find better pastures there. What problem did that present the Company?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Hah?

L 20: (   )

T: Okay, because the Khoi were right there at the Cape [POINTING AT THE MAP], and there being an outbreak of the drought, forcing the Khoi to move to the interior leaving Jan Van Riebeck a victim there ….it means that …that trade between the Company and the Khoi was affected now because of the distance. These people had to travel from the Cape to follow the Khoi where they were in order to trade with them for meat … are you following?

C: (some) Yes!

T: **ga gona mathata**? Hah?

C: (some) Yes!

T: Okay! So we talked about the outbreak of drought, vegetables failing, Khoi moving into the interior. Are they any questions so far? … Hah?

C; [SILENCE]

T: Any questions? … Hah?

C: (some) No.

T: Okay, the other problem was that the people who had been living with Jan Van Riebeck, whom we shall refer to as the Company servants were not happy because the conditions in which they lived were bad. **Ke bo mang ba ba nang le dikgomo ko ga bone**?

C: [SILENCE]

T:Hah? **Ee, kana meraka jaana**? … Heh? [SOME LEARNERS RAISED THEIR HANDS TO INDICATE THAT THEIR PARENTS HAVE CATTLE POSTS]
T: **Le ba duela jang**?

L21: They are given old clothes, you don't pay them; they are given food.

T: So those company servants with the Jan Van Riebeck team were not happy because the conditions in which they lived were not good; they were deplorable. So they started to be uncooperative.

[**Bell rings to signal the end of the lesson**]

T: Okay, it is time up; we shall continue next time but make sure that you read that chapter.

[learners leave the class and there is noise as they talk to each other]

Transcription 4

Lesson: English Language

The lesson was for English Language and the topic was a Comprehension Passage titled "Man and Animals"
The teacher initiated the greetings in Setswana and the learners responded in English. The lesson introduction was brief but it was also done in English. The lesson was characterized by asking the learners to read aloud the passage paragraph by paragraph, and then followed by its discussion by the class led by the teacher. The teacher was active, articulate, very jolly with his class and the learners appeared relaxed and following the progress of the lesson. The teacher was active and walked between the rows of the learners' desks to keep the class attentive. The discussion of the passage involved interpretation of the passage paragraph by paragraph as well as explanation of the meanings of selected words used in the passage. The learners were asked to give other words which had similar meanings as those used in the passage. At the end the class was asked to identify three points from the passage that accurately summarize ways in which man mistreated or destroyed animals. There was very little *CS* employed during the lesson. At the end of the lesson

Below is the actual transcription of the lesson:

T: Okay, I asked you to read this paper over the weekend and I believe you did. Remember (   ) and I want us to look at the question particularly the vocabulary section in question number eight, and after that we are going to look at the summary question and identify the summary points. Basically, we are going to identify the summary points after we have looked at the vocabulary exercise. Are you sure we are together?

C: (in chorus) Yes.

T: Thank you very much, thank you very much boys and girls. Thank you very much. Let's look at the part on a…page four. Now, now that you have read the passage again, everybody, I want you to have a look at question number…eight; …let us look at question number …eight. In here the ques…the examiner expects us to choose five of the words from the list or phrase. And for each of them, you are expected to give one word or a short phrase of not more than seven words which have the same meaning as the word or phrase found in the passage. Yes, and we go back to the vocabulary exercise here (   ), the vocabulary exercise. Anyway, let me say, what do we call a word that have the same name or follow the same name? What do we call them?

C: [IN CHORUS] synonyms.

T: …raise your hand! You don't have (   ) in here! Oh… yes, yes, mm… (name)

L1: synonyms.

T: **Ee**, yes, they are synonyms (   ). Here you either give a synonym or a phrase of not more than…not more than seven words. Right?

C: (some) Yes.

T: Yes… and please boys and girls, let us have a look at number one. 'Grave' from line nineteen, of course we are going to get the meaning first from the passage. Let us look from the passage… let us look at line nineteen please,… line nineteen and see how the word has been used. Mmh… who can read the sentence containing that particular word? … who can … yes (name)

L2: [READS ALOUD FROM THE PASSAGE]

T: Hey wait! Mmh…[CLASS LAUGHS] I did say line number eighteen (   )

C: [IN CHORUS] Mmm…!

T: Mmm…!

L2: [READS FROM PASSAGE] "Despite ... despite this, there was a grave disadvantage in being a totem animal because … if an animal was the totem of some sacred tribe, it could be attacked…"

T: Alright, (   ) it could be attacked or destroyed **jaaka eng**? Despite this, there was a great disadvantage (…) disadvantage, sorry, in being a totem. **Bane ba bua nnete**. "Grave" disadvantage. What other words can we… can we…give … that means the same or is the same as the word 'grave'?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Yes, yes, yes, mmh…? Great

L3: Great.

T: Great? Heh? so will it be a 'great' disadvantage?

C: (some) No. (others) Yes.

T: Do you all agree?

C: Yes

T: It is the word 'grave'; … can it be synonymous with the word 'great'? … heh? … Yes, yes, yes, yes, yes; … ah, yes, no, no, let us look for another word; … mmh? … yes? (name) [POINTING AT A LEARNER WHO HAS RAISED HIS HAND]

L4: Dangerous.

T: Aha! … yes, 'great' is synonymous with 'dangerous'… dangerous what? … Advantage. Very good! Any other?

L5: Disadvantage (   )

T: I beg your pardon

L5: Disadvantage …

T: (   ) oh! Oh! sorry, thank you very much …thank you very much for that. (   ) this morning, I like I like that…

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Yes, yes, yes please, Yes (name)

L6: Serious.

T: Yes, … another one? … Serious. Mmh! Serious disadvantage … disadvantage. Any other … any other word? Alright, some of you are still keeping my copies of my (   ). Do you have it?

C: [IN CHORUS] No.

T: (   ) Okay? I thought you…you (   ). Right, …basically these are some of the words that are synonymous with 'grave'… or we found in the passage. Alright?

C: Yes.

T: Now another word is 'devised', alright?

C: Mm..(yes)

T: Now let's look at the line in which we…we find…on which we find the word 'devised'. Line number … thirty six … line number thirty six, boys and girls. Who can read it for us? …Who can read from the passage? Mmh...! (name) [SIGNALLING TO A LEARNER TO READ]

L7: [READS]

T: Yee…s, aa…m…circus … circus acts were 'devised' in which the strength of animals was dominated by human intelligence. So that word 'devise' means? … Can you come up with alternatives or substitutes for the word 'devise' boys and girls? … Mmh? … yes, yes, yes, yes, yes boys and girls. Yes (name).

L8: I think is 'display'.
T: Discipline? … Displayed?

L8: Displayed.

T: Displayed? … He thinks it is 'displayed'… is it correct? … do you all agree?

C: Yes.

T: I… I can see a hand up (   ) or did I give you another one? (   )

L9: Introduced.

T: Aha! … she says were 'introduced'! No, it's not, it's not aaa…, what is that word? … Its not 'displayed' not 'displayed, ha? Did you say the…the circus? … Okay, would you say the circus' acts were 'displayed' in which the strength of animals were ( ) dominated? Aah, its not the most appropriate word in this case … mmh? You talked of devised, what did you talk of devising things in … in thee… from our … what's this ? Science what?

L9: In the science lessons.

T: Science lessons, **gakere**?

C: [IN CHORUS] **Ee..**!

T: Where you talk of … heh? What is this…what is this 'devise' that this this blah blah! I mean as 'devised', some had said to 'introduce'… mmh! Yes? [POINTS AT A LEARNER TO ANSWER]

L10: To make.

T: "To make" … mmh! They were made. Were set up by aah! (   ) Alright, another word, beginning with the letter 'f'… the letter 'f'.

L11: Formed.

T: (   )

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: The circus acts were 'formed'? … Aa…no! Another one better than that one?

L12: Were found.

T: Were 'found'? No,

L13: Formulated.

T: 'Formulated'… 'formulated' … or they were 'formulated'? Another one that begins with the letter 'E'. (   ) of course, they were…? … Heh?

L14: (   )

T: Europe? No, not Europe.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Okay, yes, mmh? (   ), **gakere**?

C: [IN CHORUS] Yes.

T: Right, thank you very much. Now let's look at another word … 'dominated', … the word 'dominated' in which a a… "…in which the strength of animals was 'dominated' by human intelligence…" 'Dominated' … what does that word mean? Yes? (name)

L15: (   )

T: Aha! … 'control' … another word is 'control'; right? Another one? 'Overpowered' … it was 'overpowered', okay?

C: (some) Yes.

T: Next one … word number four … 'conscious of' … 'conscious of', Mmh? On line…on line fifty. Can we go there? … Who can read that? (name) Yes, go ahead.

L16: [READS FROM THE PASSAGE]

T: Yes, thank you very much … 'conscious' of their limitations' … what does that mean? (   ) or 'conscious of' … mmh? Any other word we can use? … 'conscious'…

L17: (   )

T: I beg your pardon (name); you know (   ) say whatever you want to say; I can see you want to say something.

L17: 'Because of their limitations.'

T: Alright, she says 'because of their … limitations', 'because of …' no…! Try again, not that one, mmh? … any other? … yes?

L18: 'Despite'.

T: 'Despite'? … heh! … 'Conscious of', 'despite their limitations'? … No. It has got a different meaning altogether, but we can use it in…in that (   ) alternative (   ) of that part. Mmh? … conscious … conscious, what does that word mean, 'conscious'? … When you are conscious, you are…? The word begins with an 'A'.
[BELL RINGS TO SIGNAL THE END OF THE LESSON]

T: Okay, it is time up so we shall finish next time. A…a…a! don't go yet boys and girls [LEARNERS REMAIN SEATED AS TEACHER CONFIRMS THE NUMBER OF THE LEARNERS IN THE CLASS BY GENDER]

T: Thank you very much boys and girls. [LEARNERS LEAVE THE CLASS FOR ANOTHER LESSON]

TRANSCRIPTION 5

Lesson: Setswana

The teacher greeted the class in Setswana and they also responded in Setswana. The lesson began with a brief discussion of the effects of the reintroduction of school fees in the secondary schools. This discussion was the result of suspension from classes of a large number of learners whose parents had not paid. The discussion was hotly debated by the class, initiated by the teacher. The learners strongly felt that it was unfair for the government to reintroduce payment of school fees because most of their parents were not working and could, therefore, not afford the school fees. The debate generated a lot of noise as most of the learners spoke at the same time and in raised voices. During the lesson, the teacher *code-switched* a lot but the learners were discouraged from doing the same. The lesson was lively and the teacher was humorous too. Below is the transcription part of the lesson:

T: Dumelang!

C: Dumela morutabana.

T: Ee, a re bue ka kgang ya **school fees**; la reng ka yone?

L1: [INAUDIBLE AND CODE-SWITCHES BETWEEN ENGLISH AND SETSWANA]

T: [TEACHER INTERRUPTS] A re bue ka Setswana . Ke itse Sekgowa go go heta….

C: [LAUGHS]
L1: Nna kene kere (   )

T: Jaanong la reng? Ke gore hela ga le bate?

C: Ee…!

T: Ba ba duelang bone ba ye kae?

C: [RESPONDED IN A GROUP] (   )

L1: Gape le itse gore… le itse gore ga re lekane re se meno.

T: **Sorry**!

L1: Ga re lekane re se meno.

T: Ga le lekane le se meno?

L1: Ee…!

T: A mme baba sa dueleng ke ba ba itsapang?

C: [ALL AT ONCE] (   )

T: (   )

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: A mme le ba thaloseditse gore ga le na madi?

C: Ee…!

T: Ke mang jaanong yo o reng "nnyaya mme tota gone **goromente** o dira sente? (   )

 C: [LAUGHTER]

L2: (   )

T: Go nale yo o mo tatsang? … Go nale lekoko? Lekoko la ga mang?

L3: Nna ke tseela … ke tseela gore **goromente** o dirile sente hela. Ke raya gore re ntse re tsena hela go sena madi. Jaanong a ba a ntsha … a ntsha … nnetane, … ke bokae? … Ke **five** gakere? A madi a ne re tshwanetse gore re a duele; a re utwela bothoko **so**, o dira sente; haa re duele … haa re duele.

C: (some) Aaa…! [WITH SURPRISE AND DISAPPROVAL]

T: E e! Wena ga o bue kgang ya rona.

C: (some) [LAUGHTER]

T: Ba ntshitse mabaka a mabedi, ba re, motsadi o nale gone gore ha a go tsenya sekole kgotsa ebile a nna le wena, a ba a … a ba a itse gore o ta a go duelela. Gakere?

C: [FEW RESPONDED] Ee!

T: Ke lebaka gore "ke rebotse ngwanake ke yo le a ye makgolelo. Go rialo ke le motsadi ke ta a bona gore ngwanake o ta a helela a ile ko (   )." Yo mongwe a ba a helela a ile ko (   ). Yo mongwe a ba a re lebaka le lengwe ke gore "nnyaa, mme tota ( ) **goromente** o a re tshamekisa ka gore ga se gore madi a go tweng re a duele ke e…( ) koone tota a eleng gore a go tsenya sekole; ka gore **goromente** a re "ke go rekela (pause) ke go rekela dibuka, ke go duelela barutabana, ke go agetse **diclassroom**, ke go agetse ha o robalang teng, le dijo, jalo jalo".

C: [MUMBLES AS TEACHER SPEAKS]

T: Ha are o duele **four hundred and fifty**, o itse gore **four hundred and fifty** o dira eng ka ene?

C: (some) Nnyaa

T: Ha ke ka go raya ka re o itse gore P450.00 ha keya Francistown … ke boa a hedile **for two or three hours** … ke ta ke le mosetha jaaka lempona.

L3: [AGREES] mm! (others) [LAUGHTER]

T: Ee! Di pedi tsa bone, ba bangwe batsadi ga ba na madi, ga go na yo mongwe gape, ka kwa ga gona ope yo o … yo o tsenyang ya boraro ka ha! … ee!

L4: (   )

T: Ha nko ele gore mongwe le mongwe gontse jalo o ka bo o e beile jang? … O ka bo o rile batsadi gaba (   ) e e dikgwetho gaba itse dithulaganyo tsa bone kana tse e leng gore di ditona di (   ) ka sekgowa re re **prioritization**. Ga ba itse go **prioritiza**. Motsadi o kgona go go rekela **cellphone** ya **one thousand Pula**! Mme a bo a re ga ana **four fifty Pula** wa **school fees**! O itse gore nna **phone** ya me ke bokae? (   ) Ke **two hundred Pula**! E a **tura** ha le e bona e le ha!

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Ke gore e a (   ) ga nke ke e tshwara mo gare ga batho. Ke letsa mo sephiring hela.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Jaanong mathata ka ha o buang ka teng ke gore gaba itse (   ). O kgona gore a bo a go rekela dilwana tsa **weekend**. Go nale dithako tse dingwe kana gatwe **magomora**, tse di emang ha.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Ke **six hundred Pula**! Mme o ka nna wa hithela gore mongwe le mongwe o nale tsone gone ha ka **weekend**! Ka **weekend** ha le bina hale le taa bo le di rwele! **Six hundred Pula**! Gakere?

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Heh! ga e kake ya nna hela gore batsadi ga ba na madi, (   ) Nnyaa kgantele o kare e taa lala e tsamaya gotwe **three Pula everyone** mme e setse e tsamaela **half-time**.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Ee, ba na le mabaka a bone; lona le didimetse ga le ntshe mabaka . Mme ebile ke lona ba le ne le goa go gaisa mongwe le mongwe. Le ratile go diga (   ); o ratile go (   ).

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Ee, a re go nale boitseme. Mokgwa wa gore 'athama ke go jese'. Ko go **goromente** (   ) a ba a simolola a rialo. Ga se gore ke lona batsadi. Batsadi ba lona ga se ba ntha ba thoka madi. Rona ha re tsena sekole re ne re duela gatwe bokae **term** le **term**? …Re ne re duela bokae ne batho…? Re ne re duela **two hundred Pula**. Kana ke raya ka **seventy**; ka…ka…ka **term! Term term term**!

C: (some) Di le kae?

T: Di le dintsi. Go raya gore di kae? Di **nine**! Go bo go nna le tse **four**.

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L4: [ASKS A QUESTION] (   )

T: Bane baya go bapala morogo, ba bo baya go o rekisa. Matshelo a Setswana. Baya ko go semangmang, yo o nang le kgomo hale ba rekisa kgomo. Ba go tsaya ha le ba go isa kwa. Nna ke goletse ko go rakgadi. Re ne re le bantsi ko lwapeng. Rakgadi ka gore o ne a nale ngwana a le mongwe go bo gotwe "tsamaya o ye go nna le rakgadiago". Gape mme batsadi bateng ba itsane. Jaaka rona re le ha jaana ba setse ba itse. Ha rona re **chaisa** re re re a go itisa kwa , re hithela go sena ope mo lwapeng.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Ee, tota ee! Kgang e tona ke gore ee, ke ne ke bata go le (   ). Ke a itse tota gore ba bangwe ga ba na madi (   )

L5: [COMMENTS] (   )

T: Ke gore a re batsadi ba na le di (   ) ba bangwe ga ba a tsena sekole; gakere? Yo mongwe ha a ba a re … nnyaa …ee..go siame, akere mme **goromente** o rile ga go ntse jalo o bo o tsena ha, lebaka le lengwe ba bangwe ke ba **khansele**, **nooo**! Ke lebaka le a utwala (   ). Jaanong batho ha ba ne ba tsile ka mashetla. Ee, a nte re e thame kgang e, re tsene mo **thopiking** (topic) ya rona. E ne e le gore (   ). Ke bata gore le be le ta le araba jaaka le ne le ntse le dira. Gakere?

C: Ee.

T: Ee, jaanong a re tsene mo **thopiking.** Ka gore ke le reile ka re nna se ke se rutang ke se le se itseng, mme sa me ke go le tsenya hela mo **laeneng**. **so**, go raya gore re ne re dira eng ha?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Re ntse re dira eng hela golo ha?

C: [(SILENCE]

T: Ee, re ntse re dira eng? [SIGNALS A LEARNER TO ANSWER]

L6: Puisanyo … puisanyo.

T: Puisanyo? Re ntse re buisanya? Ee? (name) [CALLING ANOTHER LEARNER TO RESPOND]

L7: Ke tsaya gore re ne re nganga.

T: O kare re ne re nganga? Ba bangwe … puisanyo e e mashetla. Gakere?

C: Ee

T: Ee, **so**, ngangisano. Nga…ngi…sa…no. [WRITING ON THE BOARD]. Ke **debate**, gakere?

C: Ee.

T: Yo o neng a re puisanyo, puisanyo ke eng? [(SILENCE] heh? Puisanyo ke eng?

L6: **Facilitation**.

T: **Facilitation**, ke eng?

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: He..? Le thola le re **chaela** mo le re "oaii, mo go ruta Setswana mo!" O kare lona le ruta sekgowa.

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Ee? Ha? (name)

L3: **Discussion**.

T: **Discussion**. **No**. Mme go nale lehoko tota le le maleba; le le welang hela. Ee? (name)

L7: **Communication**.

T: **Communication**? Aa… **communication** e **broad**! Kana **communication** e a go tsenya di di **incident**. **Or**…go nale lehoko hela le le thamaletseng. … Jaanong ha gongwe ha o ya go heleletsa golo mo, o hithela ele gore ke mokang ele selo se se ngwehela.; heh? … Akanya ka mahoko a le mabedi a re a bitsang re re 'puisanyo'.

L8: Ngangisano.

T: Ngangisano; ee, ngangisano. Kana ngangisano ke eng ka sekgowa?

L9: **Debate**.

T: **Debate**. Ga kere?

C: Ee.

T: Kana puisanyo yon eke eng?

L10: **Communication**

L11: **Dialogue**.

T: Otshwanetse o bo o re pharologanyo hela ke eng? Pharologanyo e hela hale! Gongwe ke e…ke ha go direlwang teng **I think** ke gone hela (   ) gore le ha o bua, o bua ka puisanyo o kgona go tsaya di (   ) tsa…tsa (   )hela wa di tsenya mo teng. Ee, re taa ta re di lebile tsothe. Ke gone re ta re supa pharologanyo ya teng. Mme ke tsaya gore (   ). Jaanong re le mo ngangisanong, go nale yo o ka mpolelelang gore go nale sengwe se se sa supahaleng sente? … Ke eng hela se o ka reng "a, golo ha okare

puisanyo ya rona o kare ga se yone". Se se go tenneng hela ka yone gore o kare golo ha o kare puisanyo ya rona ga re…gare e dirise ka ha mokgweng. … Jaanong ke eng se se neng se seyo mo ngangisanong ya rona? Ee? (name) [TO A LEARNER WHO WANTS TO RESPOND]

L12: Go ne go sena **order**.

C: (some) [LAUGHTER]

T: **Order** monna ke ko **High Court**.

C: [LAUGHS AGAIN]

L12: Re ne re sa reetsane.

T: **Very good**! Re ne re sa reetsane.

T: Ka go reng?

L12: Ke raya gore … mongwe le mongwe o ne a ipuela hela, a sa reetse.

T: **That's it**! Re ne re sa reetsane. **That's very good.** A re re ne re sa reetsane. Ke kgalemile ga kae?

C: [IN CHORUS] Ga ntsi!

T: Ke kgalemile ga ntsi. Yo mongwe hale o kile a re "hei hei hei!" Yo mongwe a le modumo. Jaanong gore puisanyo e tsamaye sente go tshwanetse ga diragala eng?

L9: Go nne le theetsano.

T: Go nne le theetsano. Re tshwanetse gore ha re ngangisana re reetse yo mongwe.

L8: [INTERRUPTS] Ga go lowe!

T: Ga go lowe! O utwe sengwe le sengwe se a se buang. E seka yare hela a simolola a santse a re "**goromente** o dirile sente" a bo le setse le re "wawaa wa…!" Gakere?

C: (some) Ee.

T: Ee, pele ha a heleletsa. Go raya gore ngangisano gore e nne e e ategileng, e tshwanetse go nna le tsamaiso e nte. Ee, … Ee, se sengwe gape se re se lemogileng e ka nna ya nna eng, selo se se dirileng gore **debate** e atege … jaaka eng? Jaana re ne re ntse re bua hela jaana. A re bue gore erile jaaka re ntse re tshwere kgang eno, ke eng se o bonyeng se dira gore nnyaa, ee, golo mo go dirile gore ee, ngangisano ya rona e tsholetsege? … Kgotsa go dirile gore ngangisano ya rona e ye ko tase gore e seka ya atega ka jaana le jaana?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Ke itse gore ka moso go taabo go simololwa gotwe erile ke ruta ke bo ke kobela ko nte bana …bana ba basetsana, ke ruta basimanyana gore ba **pase**. … gakere?

L10: M…m [IN DISAGREEMENT]

L11: O nne le lebaka.

T: Ee, ga o kake wa ba wa bua wa nganga ka selo o sena lebaka. Ee, gore o ye go nganga o tshwanetse o ipapane! Go tshwana le ha o ya letsomong; gakere?

C: (some) Ee…

T: Ga o tsamaye pele o ya go heta o bona o riana o re " ehe,m mmuta ke oo", o sa itse go thaya **selaga**.

C: [LAUGHTER AND MUMBLES]

T: Gakere?

C: (some) Ee…

T: Ke sone se o bonang basimanyana ba tsamaya ba tsentse mo **pateng** jaana; gakere?

C: (some) Ee

T: Ee, gore e seka ya re a sena go bolaya a bo a sena thipa. Gakere?

C: (some) [LAUGHTER]

T: Ee, jaanong baganetsi ba ba bedi ba, re bonye ba bangwe ba nale kitso e e tseneletseng; ba bangwe ha, ba thoka kitso. Ba bangwe ba na le kitso, o bona gore ba kgona go ha mabaka a le mane. **Whether** a selo sateng ke nnete kana ga se nnete, mme ha o kgona go ha mabaka ale **four**, go raya gore tota oa itse ka selo sa teng. Ee, ha mabaka a kgobelwa, kana…kana dilo tse dingwe o tshwanetse gore le ha o ya ko go **goromente**, le ha **goromente** a go pateletsa gore o duele, mme o bo o ta ka mabaka o mo supegetsa. Jaanong ha o ta o ema hela o inama o re "ga kena madi." Aa… **goromente** o taabo a re "Aa, oa peka wena." A bo a ganelela ka ha … ka ha ba ba ntshiteng mabaka gore … gore ga se gore … ga le na madi, madi a teng ke gore madi le reka di **fish and chips**. Se sengwe gape … se se rileng sa diragala … re raya se se neng se diragala mo **classing**.

C: [SILENCE]

T: Ga re bate (   ) epe, re itiretse ke rona ba re itiretseng (   ). Jaanong a re e tshothe go hithelela e be re e hetsa.

C: [SILENCE]

T: Se sengwe se se tshwanetseng go nna teng gore tsamaiso sente e nne teng?

C: [SILENCE]

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T: A mme le raya gore dintha di pedi hela tse di duleng le buile nako e e kanakana?

C: [SILENCE]

T: Ba bangwe ba buile gore ba be ba tswe mangana!

L12: Ee…selo se sengwe se e leng gore ke ne ka se lemoga ke gore basimane ba ne ba tsaya nnetane, gatweng? … ke bone ba ne e le gore ba ne ba (   ).

T: Ee… kana mme e a bereka '**gender issue**', gakere? Ha gongwe ka puisanyo re kgona gore ha re bua go hanwa gore bo mme ba ha kae jalo jalo. Nte re re 'bong.' Jaanong ha re lebeletse bong gantsi, batho ba ba neng ba re bana ba seka ba setwa ko morago ke ba lesika la ga **Efa and there is a reason for that**. Gakere?

C: (some) Ee

T: Lebaka ke gore mosadi maikuto a gagwe ka tholego o kutwelobothoko. Gape mosadi ke ene yo o rweleng lelwapa, gakere?

C: [IN CHORUS] Ee…

T: Ee! Sengwe le sengwe! Monna ha kgwedi e hela o kgona go neela mosadi **five hundred Pula**; mo go **five hundred Pula** yo, o taabo a solohela gore mosadi … nako le nako ha a tsena, a hithele dijo, bana ba isiwe sekoleng, bana ba thapisiwe; sengwe le sengwe! Gakere?

C: Ee…

T: Jaanong ke tsone dilo tse e leng gore mo malatsing ano ha go buiwa go nna go ntse go lebelelwa bo mme. Ba **kopa** (copy) mo go bo mmaabone; gakere? Basimane bone ba a bo ba tsamaile ba ile go goga **disekerese** kwa!

C: (some) [LAUGHTER]

T: Ha ba tsena ba bata go hithela dijo di le mo **tafoleng**; gakere?

C: (some) Ee…!

T: Jaanong mme o na le mmaagwe; ke ene yo ne mmaagwe a ka mo roma "tsamaya o ye go reka...ee, tsamaya o ye go reka **pherehere** hale; reka (   ) gore dijo di kgone go heta."

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Ee! Ke sone se e leng gore … ee…, ee…, mo puisanong … mo puisanong, go nale dikgang tse di amang 'bong' ja rona. Gape ha gongwe re taabo re akanya ka 'bong' ja rona. Banna gatwe ke batho ba e leng gore gantsi ga ba na sepe! Le ha ... ha ngwana a kobilwe o ta a bo a re "o ta a ipona!" A re "ota a ya go bata tiro." Gakere?

C: Ee… [OTHERS LAUGH]

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T: Mosadi ene ke ene a ta a bo a re "oh! a ngwanake! A ne a ka bereka ne e tare ka moso o ne a ta a ta a ntshedisa. Gakere?

C: (some) Ee…

T: Gape o itse monna … monna ha gongwe o sotegetse gone hoo; ko **small house** kwa gongwe o ja mae le **bacon**. Gakere?

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Jaanong ke sone se o bonang bo mme ba re bana (   ) jalo jalo. So, go raya gore ( ). Mosadi o kgona gore ha a nale **ditaba** a bo a lela! Ee… ka maikuto! Ka a **fila** (feel) … gatwe ke eng? Ha a ikutwa sengwe o bona a thubega ka selelo. Ke sone se o bonang ba se ke ba ikaletsa. Rona re a ikaletsa. Gakere rona ra re "batho ba ta a reng ba bona ke lela?" Jaanong phakela le phakela gore ke thole sente, ke ta a bo ke lela!

C: [HUGE LAUGHTER]

T: Ee… a re…a re mo reetseng! A re mo reetseng! Heela(name)! [TO A LEARNER TALKING TO ANOTHER]

L13: (   )

T: Ee, ga ntsi ha e sena … gatwe go bidiwa eng? … motsereganyi, ga e ka ke ya ya gope. Re thusitswe hela ke gore ke ne ke le fa. Ke ne ke ntse ke re "ee! Hoo!" Gakere?

C: Ee…

T: Go raya gore ngangisano ha gongwe e bata motshereganyi. Thatathata ha e le batho ba le ba ntsi jaana. Go kgona gore a bo a re "nnyaa a ko o bue hale, wena bua hale." Kana ha gongwe mo botshelong go nale bommaetsho gape … O kgona gore a bue letsatsi le tswa go hithela le bo le phirima a sa eme; **non-stop**! Gakere?

C: (some) Ee…

T: Gape motho yo o a le lentswe le le kima! O a bua! Mme go tsweng hoo ha ore o lebelela se a neng a se bua o hithela '**nnoto**!' (naught or zero or nothing)

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: Mongwe le mongwe a bo a tsamaya le ene hela ka gore ke ene yo o lentswe le le kima. Yo mongwe a sa itse go bua, "mm…mm…mm…" [IMITATING A PERSON WITH A SOFT AND LOW VOICE]

C: [LAUGHTER]

T: O ka se ke o utwe! Jaanong mo ngangisanong ga o tsamaye **in circles**. Ga o tshware kwa le kwa. Gakere?

C: Ee.

T: **So**, ke solohela gore mo **debating** le a itse **set up** ya teng. E nale melawana … **It's formal** mme puisanyo **can be informal**. Ha gongwe le go ntsha **topic** ya teng… ke ntsha **topic** ke re 'a re ngange'. Jaanong ngangisano yone e **formal**. Go ka twe '**four** kana yo o buang lantha **five minutes**'. Go nale mmaditsela (chairperson); le tisetswa sethogo "**paying school fees, discuss**". Neke bata le buisanya ka **debate**. A re a utwana?

C: Ee.

T: **Debate** e nale mo go tweng **rebuttal** … **rebuttal it gets more points than the introduction**. **Rebuttal** e tsaya matshwao a mantsi ka gore e supa gore o ne o reeditse. **It is very important** go reetsa mo **debating**. **That's why in debate it's very important** gore go nne le **rebuttal**; go supa gore o ne o reeditse. A re thalogantse?

C: Ee rra.

T: O kare nako ya rona e fedile. Go siame.

End of the lesson and learners prepare for the next lesson as the teacher leaves.

ADDENDUM D: TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

1. This questionnaire is divided into *six* parts. Complete both parts of the questionnaire.
2. In each case, please indicate your response with a tick or provide the information required in the space(s) provided.

PART 0NE: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS
   A. Respondent's Profile

For official use

Respondent number	

V1 [ ]

1. School:

1. Mater Spei College	
2. F/town Senior Secondary	
3. Masunga Senior Secondary	
4. Tutume Comm College	

V2 [ ]

2. Gender:

1. M		2. F	

V3 [ ]

3. Age range

1. Under 25 years	
2. 25yrs to 30 yrs	
3. 31yrs to 40 yrs	
4. Over 40yrs	

V4 [ ]

4. My home is in a:

1. Village		2. Town		3. City	

V5 [ ]

5. My home district is:

1. Northeast	
2. Northwest	
3. Central	
4. Kgatleng	
5. Kweneng	
6. Southeast	
7. Southern	
8. Ghanzi	
9. Kgalagadi	
10. Chobe	

V6 [ ]

6. Highest educational qualification

1. Diploma	
2. 1st degree (BA, B.Ed., B.Sc) plus Post graduate diploma in education	
3. 2nd degree (MA, M.Ed., M.Sc)	
4. Above Masters degree	

Specify_____

V7 [ ]

V8 [ ]

7. Teaching experience:_____ **years**

50

B. Language profile

8. The language mainly spoken in your home:

1. Setswana	
2. Ikalanga	
3. Sisubiya	
4. Sekgalagadi	
5. Shiyeyi	
6. Sebirwa	
7. Setswapong	
8. English	
9. Other (state)	

9. How well do you speak the following languages?

Languages	1.Fluently	2. Moderately	3.Not at all
1. Setswana			
2. Ikalanga			
3. Sisubiya			
4. Sekgalagadi			
5. Shiyeyi			
6. Sebirwa			
7. Setswapong			
8. English			
9. Other **(state)**_____			

10. How well do you read the following languages?

	1. Fluently	2. Moderately	3. Not at all
1. Setswana			
2. Ikalanga			
3. Sisubiya			
4. Sekgalagadi			
5. Shiyeyi			
6. Sebirwa			
7. Setswapong			
8. English			
9.Other**(state):** _____			

11. How well do you write the following languages?

	1. Fluently	2. Moderately	3. Not at all
1. Setswana			
2. Ikalanga			
3. Sisubiya			
4. Sekgalagadi			
5. Shiyeyi			
6. Sebirwa			
7. Setswapong			
8. English			
9. Other			

For official use

V9	

V10	
V11	
V12	
V13	
V14	
V15	
V16	
V17	
V18	

V19	
V20	
V21	
V22	
V23	
V24	
V25	
V26	
V27	

V28	
V29	
V30	
V31	
V32	
V33	
V34	
V35	
V36	

51

12. How well do you understand the following languages?

	1. Very well	2.Well	3. Not that Well	4. Not at all
1. Setswana				
2. Ikalanga				
3. Sisubiya				
4. Sekgalagadi				
5. Shiyeyi				
6. Sebirwa				
7. Setswapong				
8. English				
9. Other:(state)_____				

13. What language did you mainly use when you grew up?

1. Setswana	
2. Ikalanga	
3. Sisubiya	
4. Sekgalagadi	
5. Shiyeyi	
6. Sebirwa	
7. Setswapong	
8. English	
9. Other (state):	

14. Where did you learn to speak:

	1. Home	2. Play ground	3. Primary school	4. Other (state)
1. Setswana				
2. English				

15. From whom did you learn to speak:

	1. Family members	2.Friends	3. P/ school teacher	4. Other (state)
1. Setswana				
2. English				

C. Teaching Profile

16. Class (Form) I teach:

1.Form 4		2.Form 5		3. Both	

17. Number of learners in:

Form	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5
Form 4					
Form 5					

18. Subjects I teach:

Language-based

1. English Language	
2. English Literature	
3. Setswana Language & Literature	

For official use

V37	
V38	
V39	
V40	
V41	
V42	
V43	
V44	
V45	

V46	

V47	
V48	

V49	
V50	

V51	

V	52	53	54	55	56
F 4					
	57	**58**	**59**	**60**	**61**
F 5					

V62	
V63	
V64	

Content-based	Science-based	Practical
4. History	11. Mathematics	18. Design & Tech
5. Geography	12. Science (S)	19. Art & Design
6. Social Studies	13. Science (D)	20. Computer Studies
7. Dev Studies	14. Chemistry	21. Agriculture
8. Commerce	15. Physics	22. Food & Nutrition
9. Business Studies	16. Biology	23. Fashion & Fabrics
10. Accounting	17. Hum & Soc Bio.	24. Home Management

For official use

V65	
V66	
V67	
V68	
V69	

Part Two: Self-evaluation (language use)

1. What language do you use mainly when speaking to your:

	1.Setswana	2.English	3.Other |(state)
1. Family			
2. Friends			
3. Colleagues at work			
4. Strangers			

V70	
V71	
V72	
V73	

2. How often do you read the following English:

	1.Always	2.Sometimes	3. Never
1. Newspapers			
2. Books			
3. Journals			
4. Pamphlets			
5. Magazines			

V74	
V75	
V76	
V77	
V78	

3. How well do you think you:

	1. Very well	2. Well	3. Not that well
1. Speak English			
2. Write in English			
3. Understand English			
4. Read in English			

V79	
V80	
V81	
V82	

4. How important is a good knowledge of English for you in getting:

	1.Very important	2. Important	3.Not important
1. a job in Botswana			
2. respect at home			
3. respect among friends			
4. respect in the community			

V83	
V84	
V85	
V86	

53

For official use

5. How important is a good knowledge of English for you to:

	1.Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. follow radio programmes			
2. follow TV programmes			
3. watch movies			
4. develop self-confidence & your abilities			
5. participate in public discussions			

V87	
V88	
V89	
V90	
V91	

6. How Important is a good knowledge of English for you to be regarded as an educated person by your:

	1.Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. Family			
2. Friends			
3. Colleagues			
4. Community			

V92	
V93	
V94	
V95	

7. How do you rate your own overall proficiency in English?

1. Very good		2. Good		3. Average		4. Below average	

V96	

8. How often do you read the following Setswana:

	1.Always	2.Sometimes	3.Never
1. Newspapers			
2. Books			
3. Magazine			
4. Pamphlets			

V97	
V98	
V99	
V100	

9. How well do you think you:

	1. Very well	2. Well	3. Not that well
1. Speak Setswana			
2. Write in Setswana			
3. Understand Setswana			
4. Read in Setswana			

V101	
V102	
V103	
V104	

10. How important is a good knowledge of Setswana for you in getting:

	1.Very important	2.Important	3. Not important
1. a job in Botswana			
2. respect at home			
3. respect among friends			
4. respect in the community			

11. How important is a good knowledge of Setswana for you to be accepted by your:

	1. Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1.family			
2. friends			
3. colleagues			
4. community			

12. How important is a good knowledge of Setswana for you to:

	1. Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. follow radio programmes			
2. follow TV programmes			
3. develop self-confidence & your abilities			

13. How important is a good knowledge of Setswana in studying in a:

	1. Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. P/school			
2. S/school			
3. College			
4. University			

14. How important is a good knowledge of Setswana in your public life:

	1.Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. Shops			
2. Church			
3. Govt offices			
4. Public discussions			

15. How do you rate your own overall proficiency in Setswana?

1. Very Good		2. Good		3. average		4. Below average	

For official use

V105	

V106	
V107	
V108	

V109	
V110	
V111	
V112	

V113	
V114	
V115	

V116	
V117	
V118	
V119	

V120	
V121	
V122	
V123	

V124	

Part Three: Evaluation of learner's language competence in class

For official use

1. How well do your learners:

	1. Very well	2. Well	3. Not that well
1. Read English texts?			
2. Write texts in English?			
3. Speak English when participating in classroom discussions?			
4. Understand English when interpreting a question in a test or exam?			

V125	
V126	
V127	
V128	

2. How well do your learners:

	1.Very well	2. Well	3. Not that well
1. Read texts in Setswana?			
2. Write texts in Setswana?			
3. Speak Setswana during class discussions?			
4. Understand Setswana when interpreting a question in a test or exam?			

V129	
V130	
V131	
V132	

3. In class do your learners use:

	1. Always	2. Sometimes	3. Never
1. Only English			
2. Standard Setswana			
3. Vernacular Setswana			
4. Mix of English & Setswana			

V133	
V134	
V135	
V136	

4. How do you rate your learners overall language proficiency in:

	1. Very good	2. Good	3. Average	4. Below average
1.English				
2. Setswana				

V137	
V138	

5. Are you bothered when a learner:

	1.Always	2.Sometimes	3. Never
1. Uses Setswana in a non-Setswana class?			
2. Uses English in a non-English class?			
3. Uses other local languages in class?			

V139	
V140	
V141	

6. Who tends to : (Tick one option in each case)

	1.Boys	2. Girls	3. Both
1. mix languages when speaking in class?			
2. respond in Setswana when participating in a non-Setswana class?			
3. express themselves well in spoken English?			
4. express themselves well in written English?			

PART FOUR: Views on role of language in teaching and learning

1. I pay attention to the language use of my learners when correcting their work: (Choose one)

1.Always		2.Sometimes		3.Rarely		4.Never	

2.It is important for learners to use correct grammar in: (Choose one)

1.English lessons only	
2.All subjects taught in English	

3. During lesson delivery I use (Choose One):

1. English all the time.	
2. English and Setswana.	
3. Setswana most of the time.	
4. Setswana only	
5. English and other language(s) State (other):	

4. I use English all the time in class because: (Choose all applicable)

1. It is the policy of the school.	
2. There are non-Setswana speakers in my class	
3. It is easier to explain concepts in English.	
4. It is an international language for education and work.	
5. It is a neutral language (no tribal group can claim it).	
6. Other: (state)	

5. Choose one

1. I **never** allow my learners to use Setswana during my lessons.	
2. I **seldom** allow the use of Setswana in my classes.	
3. I allow my learners to use Setswana in class **where they have difficulty** expressing themselves in English.	
4. I allow the use of Setswana in my class **all the time**.	

6. Choose one

1. I allow my learners to express themselves in Setswana in class only when speaking.	
2. I allow my learners to express themselves in Setswana in class in both writing and speaking.	
3. I allow my learners to express themselves in Setswana in writing only.	

For official use

V142	
V143	
V144	
V145	

V146	

V147	

V148	

V149	
V150	
V151	
V152	
V153	
V154	

V155	

V156	

7. Choose one option in each case

	1. Agree	2. Dis-agree	3. Not sure
1. Using English as the medium of instruction in schools is effective.			
2. The education system helps learners to learn English in order to effectively learn in it.			
3. The use of English by learners should only be within the classroom.			
4. The use of English by learners inside the classroom should always be encouraged.			
5. Learners should be encouraged to use English within the school.			
6. English should only be studied as a second/foreign language and not used as medium of instruction.			

8. Tick one option in each case:

	1.Agree	2. Dis-agree	3.Not sure
1. Setswana should be used as a medium of instruction in primary schools.			
2. My learners understand better when I explain some parts of the lesson in Setswana.			
3. Setswana should never be used in class except during Setswana lessons.			
4. Using Setswana in class is a sign of national pride.			
5. Using Setswana in class **is not due to** lack of proficiency in English by the teacher.			
6. The use of Setswana in class by learners **may be due to** lack of proficiency in English.			

9. I use Setswana in class to:(Choose all applicable)

1. Increase learner participation	
2. Ensure learner understanding	
3. To promote it as a national language	
4. To capture the learners' attention	
5. To explain concepts	
6. None of the above	

For official use

V157	
V158	
V159	
V160	
V161	
V162	

V163	
V164	
V165	
V166	
V167	
V168	

V169	
V170	
V171	
V172	
V173	
V174	

10. I allow my learners to use Setswana to: (Choose all applicable)

1. Ask a question	
2. To respond to my question	
3. To summarize a lesson	
4. To discuss class tasks	
5. All the above	
6. None of the above	
7. Others(state)_____	

For official use

V175	
V176	
V177	
V178	
V179	
V180	
V181	

(All Items in no. 11, for teachers of Setswana as a subject <u>only</u>)
11. Tick one option in each case:

	1. Agree	2. Dis-agree	3.Not sure
1. I sometimes use English to clarify a point.			
2. I never use English during Setswana lessons.			
3. I sometimes allow learners to explain in English where they have difficulty explaining themselves in Setswana.			
4. I never allow my learners to use English during Setswana lessons.			

V182	
V183	
V184	
V185	

PART FIVE - All teachers: Interchangeable use of English and Setswana in class
1. Please tick to indicate your view:

	1.Agree	2.Dis-agree	3.Not sure
1. Using English and Setswana at the same time in class is a waste of teaching time.			
2. Using both English and Setswana within the same lesson prevents learners from attaining proficiency in English.			
3. Using English and Setswana interchangeably promotes teaching and learning.			
4. I have no problem using both English and Setswana during my lessons.			

V186	
V187	
V188	
V189	

PART SIX: Views on other local languages

D. Use of other local languages

1. Teachers use other local languages(besides Setswana) in class to ensure understanding among learners.(Tick one option)

1. Always		2. Sometimes		3. Never	

V190	

2. Which other local languages do teachers use in class?
(if you answered 1 or 2 in no.13 above).

		For official use
1. Ikalanga		**V191**
2. Sisubiya		**V192**
3. Sekgalagadi		**V193**
4. Shiyeyi		**V194**
5. Sebirwa		**V195**
6. Setswapong		**V196**
7.Other:		**V197**
(state)_____		

3. Choose one option in each case

	1. Agree	2. Dis-agree	3. Not sure		
1. Other local languages should also be used in schools for teaching & learning.				**V198**	
2. I have no problem when a learner uses his/her local language in class.				**V199**	
3. There is no need to use other local languages in class besides English.				**V200**	
4. I sometimes use the learners' local language in class to ensure their understanding.				**V201**	
5. My learners learn better when I use their local language in class.				**V202**	
6. Learners participate more when they are allowed to use their own local language in class.				**V203**	
7. Allowing learners to use their local language in class does not help them improve their spoken English.				**V204**	
8. Allowing learners to use their local language does not increase class participation.				**V205**	

ADDENDUM E: LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS

1. This questionnaire is divided into *four* **Parts. 2. Complete all parts of the questionnaire. 3. In each case, please tick your response or provide the information required in the space(s) provided.**

PART ONE: Demographic Details

A. Respondent's profile

For official use

Respondent number	

V1	

1. School:

1. Mater Spei College	
2. F/town Senior Secondary	
3. Masunga Senior Secondary	
4. Tutume Comm College	

V2	

2. Gender:

1. M		2. F	

V3	

3. Age:_____

V4	

4. Class (Form)

1.Form 4		2.Form 5	

V5	

5. My home is in a:

1.Village		2.Town		3.City	

V6	

6. My home district is:

1. North East	
2. North West	
3. Central	
4. Kgatleng	
5. Kweneng	
6. South East	
7. Ghanzi	
8. Kgalagadi	
9.Southern	
10. Chobe	

V7	

7. Citizenship of Botswana

1.Citizen		1.Non-citizen	

V8	

V9	
V10	

B. Language profile

9. My home language is:

1. Setswana	
2. Ikalanga	
3. Sisubiya	
4. Sekgalagadi	
5. Shiyeyi	
6. Sebirwa	
7. Setswapong	
8. English	
9. Other: (state one) _____	

For official use

V11	

10. I speak the following languages:

	1. Fluently	2. Moderately	3. Not at all
1. Setswana			
2. Ikalanga			
3. Sisubiya			
4. Sekgalagadi			
5. Shiyeyi			
6. Sebirwa			
7. Setswapong			
8. English			
9. Other:(state one) _____			

V12	
V13	
V14	
V15	
V16	
V17	
V18	
V19	
V20	

11. Languages I can read:

	1. Fluently	2. Moderately	3. Not at all
1. Setswana			
2. Ikalanga			
3. Sisubiya			
4. Sekgalagadi			
5. Shiyeyi			
6. Sebirwa			
7. Setswapong			
8. English			
9. Other(state one) _____			

V21	
V22	
V23	
V24	
V25	
V26	
V27	
V28	
V29	

12. Languages I can write:

	1. Fluently	2. Moderately	3. Not at all
1. Setswana			
2. Ikalanga			
3. Sisubiya			
4. Sekgalagadi			
5. Shiyeyi			
6. Sebirwa			
7. Setswapong			
8. English			
9. Other(state)_____			

V30	
V31	
V32	
V33	
V34	
V35	
V36	
V37	
V38	

13. How well do you understand the following languages?

	1. Very well	2. Well	3. Not that well	4. Not at all
1. Setswana				
2. Ikalanga				
3. Sisubiya				
4. Sekgalagadi				
5. Shiyeyi				
6. Sebirwa				
7. Setswapong				
8. English				
9. Other:(state)_____				

14. What language did you mainly use when you grew up?

1. Setswana	
2. Ikalanga	
3. Sisubiya	
4. Sekgalagadi	
5. Shiyeyi	
6. Sebirwa	
7. Setswapong	
8. English	
9. Other (state):	

15. Where did you learn to speak:

	1. Home	2. Play ground	3. Primary school	4. Other (state)
1. Setswana				
2. English				

16. From whom did you learn to speak:

	1. Family members	2. Friends	3. P/ school teacher	4. Other (state)
1. Setswana				
2. English				

Part Two: Self evaluation in language use

1. What language do you use when talking to your:

	1.Setswana	2.English	3.Other (state)
1. Family			
2. Friends			
3. Classmates			
4. Schoolmates			
5. Teachers			
6. Strangers			

For official use

V39	
V40	
V41	
V42	
V43	
V44	
V45	
V46	
V47	

V48	
V49	
V50	
V51	
V52	
V53	
V54	
V55	
V56	

V57	
V58	

V59	
V60	

V61	
V62	
V63	
V64	
V65	
V66	

2. How often do you read English:

	1.Always	2. Sometimes	3. Never
1. Newspapers			
2. Books			
3. Pamphlets			
4. Magazines			

3. How well do you think you:

	1.Very well	2.Well	3.Not that well
1. Write tasks in English?			
2. Read English texts?			
3. Understand teachers' explanations of concepts in English?			
4.Answer questions in English in the exams			
5. Answer questions in English during the lesson?			

4. How important is a good knowledge of English for you to get:

	1.Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. a job in Botswana			
2. respect at home			
3. respect among friends			
4.respect among members of your community			

5. How important is a good knowledge of English for you to:

	1. Very important	2. Important	3.Not important
1. follow radio programmes			
2. follow TV programmes			
3. watch movies			
4. develop self-confidence and your abilities			

6. How important is a good knowledge of English for you to be regarded as an educated person by your:

	1.Very important	2.Important	3. Not important
1. Family			
2. Friends			
3. Classmates			
4. Community			

For official use

7. Do you have any problems writing examinations in English?

1. Always		2. Sometimes		3. None	

V88

8. How often do you read Setswana:

	1. Always	2. Sometimes	3. Never
1. Newspapers			
2. Books			
3. Pamphlets			
4. Magazines			

V89

V90

V91

V92

9. How well do you think you:

	1. Very well	2. Well	3. Not that well
1. Speak Setswana			
2. Write in Setswana			
3. Understand Setswana			
4. Read Setswana			

V93

V94

V95

V96

10.How important is a good knowledge of Setswana for you to get:

	1.Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. a job in Botswana			
2. respect at home			
3. respect among friends			
4. respect in the community			

V97

V98

V99

V100

11. How important is a good knowledge of Setswana for you to study at:

	1. Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. Primary school			
2. Secondary school			
3. College			
4. University			

V101

V102

V103

V104

12. How important is a good knowledge of Setswana for you to:

	1. Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. follow radio programmes			
2. follow TV programmes			
3. develop self-confidence & your abilities			
4. talk to govt officials			
5. to visit shops			

V105

V106

V107

V108

V109

For official use

13. How important is a good knowledge of Setswana for you to be accepted by your:

	1.Very important	2. Important	3. Not important
1. family			
2. friends			
3. schoolmates			
4. community			

14. What language do you prefer when:

	1. English	2. Setswana	3.Other(state)
1. Listening to the radio			
2. Watching TV			

15. How do you rate your own overall proficiency in:

	1. Very good	2. Good	3. Average	4. Below average
1. English				
2. Setswana				

16. Do you participate in class discussions better in:

	1.Always	2. Sometimes	3. Never
1. English			
2. Setswana			

Part Three: Evaluation of teacher's language use

1.How well do you think your teacher:

	1.Very well	2. Well	3.Not that well
1. writes in English			
2. reads English			
3. speaks English when explaining concepts in class			
4. expresses him/herself in English when asking a question in class?			

2. How well do you think your teacher:

	1.Very well	2.Well	3. Not that well
1. read Setswana			
2. writes in Setswana			
3. speaks Setswana during class discussions			
4. expresses him/herself in Setswana when asking a question in class?			

3. How do you rate your teacher's overall proficiency in:

	1. Very good	2. Good	3. Average	4. Below average
1. English				
2. Setswana				

4. Are you bothered when your teacher:

	1.Very much	2. A little	3. Not at all
1. Uses Setswana in a non-Setswana class?			
2. Uses English in a Setswana class?			
3. Mixes languages when delivering a lesson?			

5. Which teachers tend to:

	1.Male	2.Female	3.Both
1. Use Setswana only in a Setswana class?			
2. Use Setswana in a non-Setswana class?			
3. Use English in a Setswana class?			
4. Express themselves well in spoken English?			

6.Which teachers tend to:

	1.Language (Eng & Sets)	2. Content (History)	3.Practical (H. Econ)	4.Science (Biology)
1. Mix languages when speaking in class?				
2. Use Setswana in a non-Setswana class?				
3. Express themselves well in spoken English?				
4. Express themselves well in spoken Setswana?				

For official use

V128	
V129	

V130	
V131	
V132	

V133	
V134	
V135	
V136	

V137	V138	V139	V140

V141	V142	V143	V144

V145	V146	V147	V148

V149	V150	V151	V152

PART Four: Views on role of language in teaching

A. English

1. My teacher corrects my English grammar when correcting my school work: (**Choose one**)

1.Always		2.Sometimes		3.Rarely		4.Never	

2. Teachers must always pay attention to the learner's English grammar.

1. Agree		2. Disagree		3. Not sure	

3. Teachers of the following subjects pay attention to correct grammar when *marking learner's work*:

1. English Language	
2. English Literature	
3. History	
4. Science (Biology)	
5. Home Management	
6. Fashion & Fabric	
7. Food & Nutrition	

4. *During the lesson* **teachers of the following subjects correct the learners' English grammar when they make mistakes:**

1. English Language	
2. English Literature	
3. History	
4. Science (Biology)	
5. Home management	
6. Fashion & Fabric	
7. Food & Nutrition	

5.It is important for the learners to use correct grammar in: (Choose one)

1.English lessons only	
2.All other subjects taught in English	

6. Choose one option in each case.

	1. Agree	2. Dis-agree	3. Not sure
1. I have no problem learning in English.			
2. The school should strictly enforce the use of English within the classroom.			
3. Learners should always use English within the school premises.			
4. The use of English should be confined to the classroom			
5. It is easier for me to learn in my own language than in English.			
6. The education system is effective in helping learners to be proficient in English.			

7. It is important to learn in English because it is:

For official use

(Choose all applicable)	1. Agree	2.Dis agree	3.Not sure
1. an international language.			
2. important for further studies			
3. important for the world of work			
4. a common language for all the learners.			
5. easier to learn new concepts in English than in Setswana.			
6. It is the official language in my country			

V176	
V177	
V178	
V179	
V180	
V181	

B. Setswana

8. Choose one option in each case

	1. Agree	2. Dis-agree	3. Not sure
1. Setswana should also be used for teaching and learning.			
2. Teachers should use Setswana in class whenever they think it promotes learning.			
3. Using Setswana in a non-Setswana class may be due to the teacher's inability to express him/herself well in English.			

V182	
V183	
V184	

9. Choose one option in each case.

	1. Agree	2. Dis-agree	3. Not sure
1. I follow the lesson better when a teacher explains certain concepts in Setswana.			
2. We *generally* participate more in class when we are allowed to use Setswana.			
3. Using Setswana in *group discussions* increases learner participation.			
4. Setswana should only be used in Setswana classes.			
5. Setswana as a national language should also be used along side English from primary to university levels.			
6. It is not proper to use Setswana in a class which has non-speakers of Setswana.			
7. A learner's use of Setswana in a non-Setswana class may be due to inability to express oneself in English.			

V185	
V186	
V187	
V188	
V189	
V190	
V191	

10. We are allowed to use Setswana in a non-Setswana lesson to:(Tick all applicable):

		For official use	
1. Ask a question		**V192**	
2.Answer a question		**V193**	
3. Summarize a lesson		**V194**	
4. Discuss class tasks		**V195**	
5. None of the above		**V196**	

11. Choose one option in each case. (For lessons in Setswana only)

	1. Agree	2.Dis-agree	3. Not sure		
1. Setswana should also be used for teaching and learning in primary schools.				**V197**	
2. It is *sometimes* easier to explain some aspects of a Setswana lesson in English.				**V198**	
3. I have no problem when a teacher uses English in a Setswana lesson to clarify a point.				**V199**	
4. English should not be used in a Setswana class.				**V200**	

12. Choose one option in each case

	1. Agree	2. Dis-agree	3.Not sure		
1. It is okay if I answer the teacher's question in English in a Setswana class.				**V201**	
2. I never use English in a Setswana class.				**V202**	
3. Sometimes my teacher uses English in a Setswana class.				**V203**	
4. Sometimes learners respond in English in a Setswana class.				**V204**	
5. Sometimes the teacher allows a learner to answer in English in a Setswana class.				**V205**	
6. My teacher uses Setswana only during Setswana lessons.				**V206**	
7. Learners use Setswana only during Setswana lessons.				**V207**	

For official use

C. Language-mixing

13. Choose one option in each case

	1. Agree	2.Dis-agree	3.Not sure
1. I learn better when a teacher uses both English and Setswana			
2. I find lessons where teachers use both English and Setswana a waste of time.			
3. Using both English and Setswana in class does not help learners to improve their English.			
4. I have no problem when a teacher uses both English & Setswana during a lesson.			
5. I participate more when I am allowed to use Setswana in class.			

14. How often does your teacher mix English and Setswana in a non-Setswana class?

1. Always		2. Sometimes		3. Never	

15. In your view who tends to: (Choose one option in each case)

	1.Boys	2. Girls	3.Both
1. mix languages when speaking in class?			
2. respond in Setswana in class when speaking?			
3. express themselves well in English when speaking in class?			

D. Use of other local languages

16. Teachers use other local languages(besides Setswana) in class to ensure understanding among learners.(Tick one option)

1. Always		2. Sometimes		3. Never	

17. Which other local languages do teachers use in class?
   (if you answered 1 or 2 in no.12 above).

1. Ikalanga	
2. Sisubiya	
3. Sekgalagadi	
4. Shiyeyi	
5. Sebirwa	
6. Setswapong	
7.Other: (state)_____	

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18. Choose one option in each case

	1. Agree	2. Dis-agree	3. Not sure
1. Other local languages should also be used in schools for teaching & learning.			
2. I have no problem when a teacher uses the learner's local language in class.			
3. There is no need to use other local languages in class besides English.			
4. My teacher sometimes uses my local language in class to ensure understanding.			
5. I learn better when my teacher uses my local language in class.			
6. Learners participate more when they are allowed to use their own local language in class.			
7. Allowing learners to use their local language in class does not help them improve their spoken English.			
8. Allowing learners to use their local language does not increase class participation.			

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