

**INVESTIGATION OF THE INFLUENCE OF THE USE OF FIRST LANGUAGE
ON TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ENGLISH IN SELECTED PRIMARY
SCHOOLS IN KANYADA SUB-COUNTY HOMA-BAY COUNTY, KENYA**

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DECLARATION AND APPROVAL

I declare that this research project is my original work and has not been presented for the award of an academic certificate or any other purpose before.

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I confirm that the work reported in this research project was carried out by the candidate under my supervision

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to assess the influence of the use of the first language in teaching and learning of English in class seven in selected primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County Homa-bay county, Kenya. The purpose of this study is to give deeper insight in to why performance of English has been low compared to a subject like Kiswahili language people are using their first language in teaching of English. A speaker tends to choose language fairly, quickly and automatically without being aware of the determiners of language choice. There is a great impact on the use of the first language in teaching and learning of English and it is a common practice that most teachers of English use to convey a complete notion or an idea while teaching or communicating. This study will be guided by the following specific objectives: to determine the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Homabay county, to examine implementation of the national language policy in primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county, Kenya to find out the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Homabay county. The findings of this study are significant because they help pupils develop confidence in their use of English language in communication. The study was conducted in the 10 sampled primary schools. Data is to be collected through the observation schedule, interview schedule and the questionnaire. The study was guided by Stephen Krashen's Model of second language acquisition. This study adopted a descriptive design. validity of the research instruments will be tested by the use of experts in the area while reliability was tested through test retest. Data was analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The results revealed that Most school have language policy, however, there functionality is indeterminate. Formulation and implementation of school language policy is mainly undertaken by language teachers however, school administration plays key rule during its implementation. School language policy moderate influenced teaching and learning of English. In regards to the national language policy, teachers rarely remind pupils of the national language policy meaning they are not aware of language national policy. Majority of teachers ignored areas in the syllabus they did not feel confident enough teaching due to lack of professional development courses yet they are in line with the national language policy. Majority of the code-switching cases were intra-sentential as compared inter-sentential. The pattern of code switching was from English to Dholuo/Kiswahili. Code switching was found to have significant impact on the oral and written discourse of pupils. The school through English language department did not continuously assess switch coding at school. The study recommended that the school administration should come up flexible and functional school language policy where all teachers are tasked with its implementation. The ministry of education should consider upgrading seminars and workshops to continuous Teacher Development Programmes as they go a long way to address the challenges the teachers face during implementation of the national language policy. English department should come up with learning activities strategies to address code-switching. The strategy should not be limited to extra essay writing, extensive reading and language days but also dramas and debate.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFA:	Education for All
ELT:	English Language Teachers
JSS:	Junior Secondary School
KESSHA:	Kenya Secondary Schools Heads Association
KCPE:	Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
KCSE:	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KICD:	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development
KNEC:	Kenya National Examinations Council
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
LOI:	Language of Instruction
LP:	Language Policy
MT:	Mother Tongue
MDG:	Millennium Development Goals
MOI:	Medium of Instruction
TIQUET:	Totally Integrated Quality Education and Training
UPE:	Universal Primary Education
STD:	Standard

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter includes the history of the study, a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the objectives of the study, the scope of the study, and the significance of the study; a statement of the problem, the research objectives, research questions, limitations of the study, assumptions of the study, the scope and limitations, definitions of terms, a theoretical framework, a conceptual framework, and a summary of the chapter.

1.2 Background to the study

Since the beginning of recorded history, it has been essential for human people to improve their linguistic abilities by becoming proficient in other languages. It is believed that the Sumerians of the third millennium BC used bilingual tablets written in Sumerian and Akkadian to educate their young and to create the earliest known bilingual dictionaries. Bilingual tablets were employed in ancient Egypt, and the ruling classes of the country learned Greek during the Ptolemaic period. This points to the language's widespread usage at the time in Egypt. For the vast majority of Asia Minor's educated people throughout the Hellenistic era, Greek was their second language of choice. Roman children received a significant portion of their education in both Greek and Latin up to the fourth century B.C., making bilingual education a crucial component of their formal education (Brown 2012)

Along similar lines, Otagburuagu (2009) suggested that the development of a second language can originate from a social or political factor. Colonialism, international commerce, and

commercial interactions might all foster the development of a second language by providing favorable conditions for its spread. He proceeded by noting that the British colonialism of nations like Nigeria, Ghana, etc. was the fundamental cause of the widespread use of English as a second language in these regions. This was his explanation for why these nations chose English as their secondary language. The development of a second language may also be influenced by multilingualism as well as the need to better integrate into society. As more evidence in favor of this viewpoint, Verhese (2007) argued that the deep rootedness of the English language in Canada, Australia, and the United States was the result of a historical accident. In addition to this, he states that history has also had a role in both Asia and Africa. These nations were formerly under British dominion, and ever from the time they came under British control, the English language has been the official language of instruction and the primary language of communication in those nations.

Since the commencement of modern education, a major source of worry has been the performance of the pupils in the classroom. The vast majority of nations have come to the realization that the pupils are at the center of the educational process. Around the globe, people are increasingly turning to English as one of their primary languages for communicating with one another. The fields of science, globalization, business, trade, politics, history, education, entertainment, and the media, as well as technology, almost universally employ English as their medium of communication (Kagan, 1984)

Pupils who have a limited command of the English language often struggle academically. This is a challenge they encounter. It has been established by academics that the poor performance of English language pupils is not just attributable to a lack of linguistic ability but is also caused by the approach that is used in the classroom to teach the language. There have been several

studies that investigate the viewpoints of pupils as well as the reasons they use their native language while simultaneously studying English.

Both a thematic and a situational as well as a structural approach are used in the Primary English curriculum. The course material covers a wide variety of topics that are relevant to real-world situations. Greetings, shopping, the climate, modes of transportation, recreational activities, professional fields, technological advancements, and technology are all examples of such topics (McDonough & Shaw, 2012).

Aspects of life at home, on the farm, at the workplace, at the bus terminal, in the doctor's office, and in the hospital are all represented on the course outline. Each lesson plan specifies what context or topic the words and phrases inside are meant to be taught in. Each unit includes its goals, vocabulary, language skills, and instructional materials. The grammar concepts and structures to be covered in each lesson plan for Grades 4 through 8 are included in the unit's syllabus, according to Gee and Gee (2007).

The curriculum uses a spiral structure, so that similar topics or scenarios may be covered in different sessions. Depending on the level, the challenge might increase or decrease. Thus, the linguistic pieces are ranked from easiest to most difficult and given in a sequential manner for instruction. Topics including protecting the environment, substance addiction, human rights, child rights, child labor, social values, gender responsiveness, technology, social responsibility, and integrity are also discussed throughout the course. The goal of the main course is to equip the student with the ability to speak fluently, independently, and correctly in real-world situations by the time they finish the course. To be more specific, the learner should have developed their speaking abilities to the point where they are able to employ perfect

pronunciation, emphasis, and intonation to ensure that their speech is understood, as well as to communicate their wants and sentiments, knowledge, and experiences. When a student reaches the upper elementary level, it is anticipated of them that they would be able to speak fluently, independently, and correctly in daily situations. However, this is not always the case (Barasa, 2011).

It is the duty of every English instructor, regardless of the classroom setting, to provide their pupils the very best learning experience possible. Traditional methods of instruction have been around too long to just disappear. However, it should be complemented by other methods, such as code swapping, teaching via chorus, and the use of singing games. Despite Kiswahili's enormous appeal, it is not frequently used, especially in rural regions where mother tongue flourishes; the present socio-linguistic situation in the nation reveals that English has a hegemonic advantage. This is because English is the dominant language in the country. Mother language has a strong foothold in Kenyan culture since it is utilized for informal communication. Sheng, a code that originated among the urban young and has since swept throughout the nation like wildfire, also gives mother tongue a strong footing in Kenyan society. The purpose of this research is to investigate the impact that using L1 has on the English language instruction and learning process in a selection of primary schools, both public and private.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Everyone knows that a person's social worth increases dramatically if they can communicate well in English. Since it is true that fluency in English significantly increases an individual's social worth, it is important to examine any obstacles that pupils could face while trying to

learn the language. English is considered to be the most important subject due to the fact that it is known that having a good command of English promotes having a good command in other subjects. Once again, there has been a widespread outrage about the abysmal performance that Kenyan pupils have had in the KCPE tests. The manner in which instruction is delivered is one of the factors that has a significant impact on pupils' overall performance (KNEC, 2014). The instruction of pupils in English is a significant focus area for the Kenyan educational system. The presence of skills and talents in a classroom may contribute to the development of favorable circumstances for learning. In addition to its role as a testable topic, English is also used in the classroom as a medium of education (Barasa, 2005). According to the 2014 KNEC Report, English pupils do poorly on KCPE exams as compared to Kiswahili pupils. Over the years, the dismal performance has persisted in both the county as a whole and the Kanyada subcounty in Homabay. Concerned parties want to know what went wrong to bring about such dismal results. According to Eisemon et al. (1989), many Standard 6 pupils struggled to understand their instructors' directions because of the teachers' lack of command of the scientific curriculum and the English language (Muthwii, 2002). This highlights the importance of investigating how the English language is taught and learned. It has been demonstrated by Kabellow (2013) that both English and Kiswahili are utilized by English instructors during lessons in the higher primary grades. With less opportunities to utilize it outside of school, pupils are choosing to focus on studying their native languages or Kiswahili instead of English. With the aim of informing language planners and curriculum creators, this research evaluates the extent to which native languages are used in English language classrooms to teach and learn English.

1.4 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of this study will be to investigate the influence of the use of first language on teaching and learning of English language in selected public primary schools which finally affect the performance of English in Kanyada Sub-County, Homa-Bay County, Kenya .

1.5 Research objectives

The following is a list of the goals that the study aims to accomplish:

1. To determine the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county, Kenya
2. To establish implementation of the national language policy in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county, Kenya
3. To find out the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub County Homabay county, Kenya

1.6 Research questions

The following are the research questions of the study:

1. What is the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in kanyada Homabay county?
2. What is the implementation of the national language policy in primary schools in Homabay county?

3. What is the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county?

1.7 Significance of the study

It's possible that the outcomes of this research are relevant because they encourage pupils to become more self-assured in their ability to communicate using the English language. They are going to emphasize the significance of using L1 as a teaching strategy in English classrooms. This research makes a significant addition to what is already known regarding how using a student's L1 while instructing them in English at the elementary level affects their academic success. Important pedagogical difficulties for teachers and language educators will be highlighted in the research as well. This research fills a critical gap in our understanding of the role of L1 in the English classroom, particularly in light of recent developments in the field of English language education.

1.8 Justification of the study

Stakeholders express concern over declining English proficiency, evident in consistently poor performance in KCPE English exams. Rubagumya (1994) notes the mother tongue's role as a learning barrier, while Eisemon et al. (1989) attribute students' English comprehension issues to teachers' language proficiency. Challenges persist in other African countries (Muthwii, 2002; NCCRD, 2000; Probyn, 2001), impacting university admission rates (Bamgbose, 2004). In Côte d'Ivoire, using the mother tongue improves communication (Bergmann et al., 2002), benefiting teachers, students, and parents (Baker, 2001). Research suggests leveraging native English speakers to aid Grade 7 pupils in English studies is vital.

Investigating the influence of first language (L1) use on English language teaching and learning (ELT) in Kenyan primary schools holds significant value. While the debate surrounding L1 use in ELT is ongoing globally (Cook, 2014), research specifically focused on the Kenyan context remains limited. This study can contribute valuable insights into effective practices within Kenyan primary schools. Further, Kenya boasts over 40 indigenous languages (Ethnologue, 2023). Understanding how L1 can support or hinder English acquisition in this multilingual environment is crucial for improving ELT pedagogy. Moreover, Effective use of L1 can bridge the gap between students' prior knowledge and the target language (English) (Macaro, 2014). This study can explore how L1 use impacts student engagement, comprehension, and ultimately, English language acquisition. Research findings can inform Kenyan education policymakers and curriculum developers on creating guidelines for appropriate L1 integration within primary English language classrooms.

1.9 Scope and Limitations of the study

1.9.1 Scope of the study

The study looked specifically at how code switching is being used to teach English in grades 7 and 8 at both public and private primary schools in the Kanyada Sub-County of Homabay County. The population of the study consisted of pupils and teachers of English in public and private primary schools. The research took place at the 10 primary schools chosen as a part of the sample. The questionnaire, interview schedule, and observation schedule were all used to gather information.

1.9.2 Limitations of the study

Possible difficulties encountered during the research are outlined below. Respondents' skepticism and scepticism of the observation schedule are examples. However, this is remedied by assuring respondent pupils that the study had no practical implications. It is probable that some responders may become unduly aware of the researchers' presence in their courses for reasons other than the observation schedule. That is, the participants have the option to alter their typical actions.

1.10 Assumptions of the Study

The researcher entered into this investigation with certain underlying assumptions. It is assumed that;

1. Because of the wide variety of people living in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay County, the area is served by a number of different languages.
2. Second, the subjective state of English education is a direct outcome of ineffective pedagogical practices.
3. Primary school pupils in Kenya are using their native tongue in English-speaking classes.

1.11 Operational Definition of Terms

To help the reader get a handle on the issue and the study's goals, it was important to define some of the terminology used throughout.

Attitude: A person's attitude toward something is a reflection of his or her underlying psychological leanings toward either a positive or negative evaluation of that thing.

Bilingualism: When a student is bilingual, they are able to process two languages simultaneously using all four language processing abilities (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing).

Classroom Situation: It's the current state of affairs in a classroom that has some effect on how to best instruct that group of pupils.

Code: Code is defined here as a linguistic unit, which may be as simple as a single word or as extensive and intricate as the human language repertoire.

Code Switching: In a bilingual classroom, this method involves switching from one language to the other and back again during the course, with particular emphasis on transitioning between languages at key points in the lesson, such as when discussing new or complex subjects.

Code Mixing: Code mixing is the use of several languages in a single statement.

Dialect: A dialect is a kind of language that is characterized by grammatical, phonological, and lexical differences from standard varieties and that is characteristic of a specific region and/or social class or status group.

Instruction: It involves both teaching and learning of English.

Language of the catchment area: Since of its numerical strength in terms of speakers, it is the language that is most often utilized as a medium of teaching in schools because it is the dominant language in the area.

Lingua Franca: Communication between speakers of distinct mother languages sometimes takes place in a third language.

Lubukusu: Lubukusu is an indigenous local language spoken by members of the Bukusu ethnic group of the Luhya nation in Kanyada Sub-County Homabay County, Kenya.

Medium of Instruction : This is the language of instruction and study. It's possible that it's not recognized as the primary language in the area. For instance, in South Africa, where English and Afrikaans are taught in many schools despite being considered minority languages by their speakers.

Mother Tongue: This is the language that one has learnt initially (assuming that it is a language in which one can completely express oneself) and/or the language that one (voluntarily) identifies with.

Teaching Technique: Effective learning occurs when a teacher conveys information to pupils in a classroom setting using a method called a teaching technique. It's the act of teaching someone anything.

Pupil: A pupil is a primary school student who, under the direction of a teacher, is formally pursuing information. The term is synonymous with "student" and will be used as such throughout.

Sheng': Sheng is a creole language with a Swahili-like grammar that develops as a result of an intricate multilingual setting. Its phonology, morphology, and vocabulary are all based on those of Kenyan languages. There are several loanwords in Sheng' that come from the English language.

Receptive bilinguals: Those who are able to grasp a second language but not necessarily speak it are called "receptive bilinguals."

1.12 Chapter Summary

The first chapter lays the groundwork for the rest of the research. Issues like the study's context and the research challenge at hand are discussed here, the study's goals, questions, and hypotheses; the study's breadth, importance, and defining terminology; and the research's significance.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with an introduction to the literature review and then discusses the following topics: the language learning environment, second language acquisition theories, the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis, the interaction hypothesis, the language policy issues, the language policy in Kenya, the sheng phenomenon, bilingualism, bilingualism and academic performance, and the language policy in the United States. This chapter comes to a close with a synopsis of the previous chapter

2.2 Language learning environment

The transmission of information, the representation of thinking, the molding of ideas, and general usage as a communication medium are all accomplished via the medium of language, which is a tremendously powerful instrument. Learning is the means through which a person becomes fluent in a language. A kid will first learn language in the more casual environment of the home, where the parents will serve as the child's main instructors. The youngster communicates his or her emotions via the usage of a specific language. When a child comes of age in the language of his or her immediate environment, he or she also explores and experiments with the universe of thought, lifestyle, viewpoint, and the culture to which he or she belongs. A child's linguistic behavior is heavily impacted by elements outside of language. Pupils may have trouble communicating in English what they know in their home tongues and

may also struggle to translate what they learn in English back into their mother tongues (Lucket, 1994).

2.3 The Language policy issues in Kenya

Kenya's linguistic landscape includes both indigenous tongues and recognized state languages. Africans make up 99.1% of Kenya's population, with Asians making up 0.4%, Europeans making up 0.2%, Arabs making up 0.2%, and other people making up 0.1% (Kenya Statistical Abstract 1995:19). Kenya is home to over forty unique native languages. Bantu, Nilotes, and Cushitic are the three linguistic groups into which these words fall (Abdulaziz, 1982). In addition, English and Kiswahili are recognized as legal languages. Despite Kiswahili's official status as the national language, English is the LOI at all educational levels. According to research (Abdulaziz, 1982). In 1985, Kiswahili was transformed into an obligatory examinable topic in elementary schools, secondary schools, and institutions for the training of teachers. This served to further elevate the prominence of the language. Successful graduates of the Kenyan education system are bilingual in English and Kiswahili, the national languages. Both Kiswahili and English are included. Most speakers also have a working knowledge of English or Kiswahili, in addition to one of the local tongues.

Despite the fact that only around a quarter of Kenyans can speak English, it is used as the primary official language and the medium of instruction across the nation. As opposed to Kiswahili, another official language of Kenya (Ogechi 2002) The question of whether or not Kenya has a clear language policy has been hotly debated since the 1970s. The lack of written documentation that might indicate the existence of an official policy was the primary factor in the discussion. However, there are language educators and policymakers who contend that the

success of a country's language policy may be inferred from the extent to which its official languages are spoken. Because of this, it is safe to claim that Kenya has a policy that protects the linguistic rights of various minority groups as well as encourages the use of several languages. In this particular instance, Kenya has categorized language usage as Official language-English, National language-Kiswahili and Mother tongue-Community languages.

In accordance with Kenya's policy on languages, each of these languages has been given a place in public communication (Mutahi, 2006). When it comes to radio broadcasts, the official communication always makes room for the government policy. Mutahi also cites additional areas in which language policy is now being implemented. These include the legislature, public schools, and public offices. Most language educators disagree with you on this point of view. Substantial data point to a discordance between what is expected of English teachers in Kenya and what they actually get in terms of training and support (Barasa, 2005). Example: Kenya's catchment area policy is vague at best. During implementation, it might be interpreted in several ways (Okombo, 1996). Bamgbose (1991 P.113) noted that the same haziness may be seen in Kenya's stance on the country's plan to designate Kiswahili its official language;

The proposed actions for carrying out the choice may be used as a yardstick to evaluate how open-ended it is. Among them was the mandate that all interactions between Kenyans of a certain height and other Kenyans must be conducted in Swahili (impossible in practice because of the complexity of the criteria involved in determining which language to use in each given interaction) that all official activity related to the government would be performed in Kiswahili, and that the language would be taught in schools with a higher priority than English would be. There is no explanation of the steps that need to be taken to fulfill these prescriptions, and the reality on the ground is in direct opposition to the recommendations.

A language policy has to be preceded and backed by active social-marketing initiatives in order for it to get support and adoption from all of the relevant stakeholders (Bamgbose, 1991; Rubagumya, 1996). A subsection of the Bill of Rights in Kenya's newly enacted constitution (Republic of Kenya, 2010) deals specifically with linguistic and cultural concerns. This clause, however, received almost little discussion throughout the referendum campaigns. Successful implementation of a language policy relies heavily on the establishment of an atmosphere favorable to that end. The new charter does not address linguistic diversity in the classroom.

2.3.2 The Sheng' phenomenon

Kenyan language designers confront their greatest challenge in the creation of the new language sheng'. At the very least in its structure, if not in its origins entirely, sheng has been viewed as a pidgin (Osinde, 1986). A pidgin is a variant of language that has recently emerged, is functionally specialized, and has considerable simplifications in its grammar (even though these simplifications are regulated by rules). Concern among language planners is being caused by the expansion and development of sheng', particularly in urban environments. The requirement for individuals of different languages to communicate with one another after coming together for particular objectives like commerce or under the circumstances of slavery is generally considered to be the driving force behind the evolution of the language. Similarly to the different African pidgins englishes, sheng' is gaining favor with socioeconomic strategists (Shitemi, 2006). The development of sheng' exemplifies that language is not always subject to random mutation, nor does it necessarily follow established patterns of change (Shitemi, 2006). Many terms in Sheng seem to have been borrowed from other Kenyan languages such Kikuyu, Dholuo, Kamba, Kisii, and Luhya (Ogechi, 2005, Kobia & Kingei, 2007). Sheng's morphosyntactic structure is very similar to that of other Bantu languages,

particularly Kiswahili, from which it draws substantially. As an alternative to English and Kiswahili, Kenya's traditional co-official languages, Sheng might be seen as a threat to their status quo. Applied linguists see Sheng's use of non-standard forms and structures as a departure from the linguistic standards of the languages themselves. Several authors, including Kingei and Kobia (2007) and Momanyi (2009), have argued that Sheng is having a negative impact on language education in Kenyan schools. Patois is also stigmatized since it is seen as the language of the poor and the social outcast (Momanyi 2009).

2.4 Bilingualism

Numerous authors and scholars have come up with a variety of distinct definitions for the phrases bilingualism and multilingualism. In spite of the fact that some scholars consider the two terms to be interchangeable, for the sake of this study, we are going to concentrate on bilingualism. When a person is bilingual, they are able to understand and use both languages in all four linguistic domains (hearing, speaking, reading, and writing) according to Williams and Snipper (1990). They elaborate by saying that speaking two languages is different from reading and writing in both. A person is termed bilingual if they are fluent in both spoken and written forms of two languages, and can understand and respond appropriately in either language depending on the context. They are deemed to be literate in two languages if they are able to read and comprehend written communication in both of those languages as well as write in both of those languages. According to William and Snipper's (1990) research, a person's level of bilingualism increases in proportion to the degree to which they are proficient in each of the four abilities required by each language.

Bilingualism, as defined by Sridhar (1996), is "the possession of, or facility in using, two

languages for the purpose of mutual understanding and communication by any individual or group." According to Baker (1996), bilingualism or multilingualism may be seen both as an individual phenomena and as a social or societal property. According to Appel and Muysken (1990), an individual who is fluent in two or more languages is said to be bilingual. The converse of this is societal bilingualism, which happens when people in a given culture are fluent in more than one language.

Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay County, where the pupils being surveyed were immersed in a variety of languages, was chosen as the study's setting because of its potential for linguistic diversity. Community languages such as Kiswahili and English are utilized. Code switching was analyzed in this research to see how it is used in English classes.

2.4.1 Bilingualism and academic Performance

There are many different ways in which a student's linguistic background, particularly if they are bilingual or multilingual, might affect how well they learn English (De Klerk 1995). It is essential to have a clear understanding that a monolingual person and a multilingual person do not vary in any intrinsic or hereditary characteristics. Every kid has the capability of learning many languages without becoming confused since they are all born with the innate ability to speak more than one language. On the other hand, if a kid is born into a culture that is monolingual for the most part, it is almost guaranteed that the child will grow up to be monolingual. A kid that is born into a society that is multilingual will, by the same token, grow up to be multilingual because of the environment in which they were raised. Because of this, contextual influences have a significant role in shaping a child's eventual linguistic profile, which may be either monolingual or multilingual.

2.5 Code Switching

To educate pupils for life, including the here and now, should be the fundamental objective of any and all educational endeavors. To be successful in accomplishing its mission, the organization must implement certain pedagogical methods and procedures into the classroom setting. One of these techniques that has the potential to improve education is code swapping, which is simply a way to try out different languages. The goals of code switching, the motivations of instructors and pupils who engage in it, the many types of code switching, the prevalence of code switching in language classrooms, and the constraints of code switching were all explored.

2.5.1 Types of Code Switching and related terms

The swapping of codes might take place either between sentences or inside sentences. The practice of moving from one language to another inside the same phrase is known as inter-sentential code switching. This occurs most often amongst those who are able to speak both languages fluently (Myers-Scotton, 1993). For instance, when a teacher is discussing the current weather, she may code switch as follows: "*I think it's going to rain mvua ya mawe*" (*it is going to rain heavily*). Intra-sentential code switching is characterized by the fact that the changeover takes place inside the same phrase, and there are no interruptions, hesitations, or pauses that serve to indicate the shift. Code mixing is another name for this particular kind of code flipping (Myers-Scotton, 1993). For instance, a language learner who is discussing the calamities that are befalling the nation may code switch as follows; "*Unaona vile madisaster zinatuface*". Inter-sentential code switching and intra-sentential code switching are two different types of code switching, according to Lipski (1982, quoted in Monte-Alcala,

2001:197). He draws parallels between those who are able to flip between languages within the same sentence and compound bilinguals. Coordinate bilinguals, by contrast, are able to switch languages within the same sentence (people whose two languages were acquired at separate periods or in distinct settings).

2.5.2 Code switching versus Code mixing

Many other words are used either in conjunction with code switching or to differentiate certain activities from code switching. Code switching and code mixing are two examples of jargon that may be encountered. Code switching refers to changing languages mid-sentence, whereas code mixing is used to describe doing so between individual words (Winford 2003). Code-changing is another word for shifting from one statement to another (Lauttamus, 1990). The terms "code switching" and "code mixing" are sometimes used interchangeably, although they may also serve as "cover words" that can refer to any sort of transformation (Pandit [1990] as cited by Kovacs 2001). The term "code-alternation" is used by Auer (1995, 1998) to describe the process of code switching.

Code switching occurs both inside sentences (from the level of a single morpheme to that of a phrase or clause) and between sentences (from one language to another); both intra- and inter-sentential code flipping often entail lengths of more than one word (Myers – Scotton 1988). Sometimes, switches that aren't strictly inside a phrase, such tag questions, are referred to as "extra-sentential" (Milroy and Muysken 1995). Instead of using the phrase "extra-sentential switching," Poplack (1980) refers to switches like tag questions and sentence fillers as "tag-switching." Because of their belief that it constitutes code mixing to switch languages inside the same sentence, some scholars dismiss intra-sentential code flipping as irrelevant (Winford

2003). We will use the term "code switching" to refer to both code switching and code mixing throughout this discussion, and we will use the terms "intra-sentential code switching," "inter-sentential code switching," and "tag switching" to differentiate between the different types of code switching.

2.5.3 Code switching versus Borrowing

The situation gets considerably more convoluted when the word borrowing is added to the terminological jungle that was discussed before. The topic that appears to be asked is whether or not it is required to differentiate between code switching and borrowing, and if this differentiation is to be made, what the criterion will be (Kovács 2001). When addressing borrowing, only vocabulary is mentioned, and usually only single-word items from the target language are absorbed into the host language (Kovács 2001). To borrow is to incorporate individual words or idiomatic expressions from one language into the grammar of another, as Gumperz (1982) explains. In addition, the words in question become part of the vocabulary of the language that is doing the borrowing. In contrast to this, code flipping is the juxtaposition of two types of language that each function according to their own different grammar scheme (Gumperz 1982).

There have been attempts to distinguish between single-morpheme switching and borrowing based on two criteria, as outlined by Winford (2003): a) the frequency with which monolingual speakers utilize the borrowing; b) the degree to which the two languages' morphophonemes are integrated. Winford claims that scholars have used these criteria in an effort to tell the two apart. However, Winford (2003) argues that there are problems with these standards. There is a difficulty with bilinguals' inability to tell the difference between a switch and a borrowing.

Second, morphophonemic transition is challenging because it is feasible for both borrowings and word switches to be adapted phonologically and morphologically to the receiving language. There might be some difficulty for translators with this (Myers-Scotton, 1993).

Botzrepe (2003) claims that there are two methods for distinguishing between code flipping and borrowing that are mutually exclusive. Both the Poplack and Myers-Scotton theories fall within this category. Poplack (1980) argues that prolonged periods of switching are not equivalent to isolated items from a foreign language (referred to as borrowings). When assessing bilingual speech, however, Myers-Scotton (1993) believes that the difference between the two is mostly meaningless. The phonological, morphological, and syntactic integration of non-native components are the criteria provided by Poplack (1980) for evaluating the status of non-native elements in bilingual speech. Non-native objects can only have one kind of integration that meets the criteria for "code swapping" (e.g. morphological integration). Borrowed elements are those that have been properly integrated into the host language's phonology, morphology, and syntax (Poplack 1980). Since Poplack's rejection of phonological integration due to its malleability, the term "nonce borrowings" has been used to refer to this intermediate category. In certain cases, the morphological and syntactic integration of borrowed words into host languages is more nuanced than in others (Botzrepe 2003). This study agrees with Myers-Scotton (1993), who claims there is little to no functional difference between code switching and borrowing. This research, however, does not adhere to Poplack's ideas. In its stead, it conforms to the Myers-Scotton typology (1993). While distinguishing between code switching and borrowing was acknowledged, the focus of this study was on the former phenomenon in the educational setting. A difference between code switching and borrowing was highlighted by the researchers. Code swapping is the only term allowed here.

2.5.4 Reasons for Code Switching

Code swapping has received heavy criticism from purists, although there are still some scholars who see it as a useful means of communication. Mncwango (2004) draws on the work of Leshite (1988) to argue that a person need not be unable to articulate themselves in either language for them to switch between them. It is the easiest term or phrase to come up with at that given time for a variety of reasons, and it is the one that is being used. The following are some of the reasons why people code swap, as cited by Baker (1996). There are many situations in which it would be beneficial to use a word or phrase from another language in place of one that is unfamiliar, such as when making a request or expressing authority; when clarifying a point, as is often the case in the classroom; when expressing friendliness or interest in a conversation; when trying to diffuse tense situations with humor; when trying to leave someone out of a discussion; and when trying to speak more quickly and clearly. A person's usage of code switching may have a causal relationship to certain topics, contexts, or participants. Metaphorical code switching and situational code switching are distinguished in the works of Wardhaugh (2006), Myers-Scotton (1993), and Monte-Alcala (2001). Situational code switching occurs when a person switches from one language to another in the same discussion but in different contexts. This is common when one of the speakers does not comprehend the language being spoken by the other speaker(s). For instance, there are circumstances that call for a modification to the code in order to improve clarity and comprehension of the subject matter.

2.5.5 Code-switching use in class

The majority of individuals engage in the linguistic technique known as code switching while they are interacting with one another in order to express a whole thought or concept. Some research suggests that code-switching may help pupils learn English as a second language and succeed in the classroom. Several code switching techniques are used to facilitate efficient information flow between senders and receivers (Skiba, 1997). However, Ellis (1994), Cook (2001), and Richards and Rodgers (2001) argue that, although exposure to the target language (L2) may not always be successful, it may still help learners succeed overall. For instance, learners would experience dissatisfaction and worry if they were in a classroom where only English was spoken since they would not get sufficient and appropriate intelligible information. During the process of learning, the learners' intelligible input would be improved as a result of the many beneficial functions of code-switching, such as the explanation of new vocabulary, grammar, and ideas, as well as the relaxation of learners (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009). Classrooms have also been used for the purpose of researching the functions of code flipping. The majority of this study was carried out in a bilingual environment, which means that the participants were exposed to the L2 in the majority of their courses, if not all of them. For instance, Merritt and colleagues (1992) conducted research on primary schools in Kenya with the intention of making observations on the ways in which instructors used many languages when instructing and the ways in which they code switched inside the classrooms.

2.5.6 Functions of Teacher Code Switching

According to Gurmperz, who is quoted in Setati (2002), code switching is a verbal method in which a teacher might, for example, utilize a student's native language as a code for encouragement. This is one example of how code switching can be used. In order to refocus

pupils' attention or reinforce previously taught material, code flipping may be motivated by cognitive and classroom management concerns (Setati, 2002, citing Merritt, Cleghorn, Abagi, and Bungi's hypothesis). Meyer (1997) claims that almost all African pupils have not been taught in their mother tongue. Instead, teachers use strategies like code-switching in the classroom to guarantee that all pupils understand content provided in English (Sert, 2005) citing Changing subjects, making an emotional effect, and repeating tasks are all examples of what Mattson and Burenhult (1999) call "instructor code switching." In the instructional method known as topic flipping, the instructor modifies his or her language in accordance with the subject matter being covered and adapts it to the pupils' native tongue. In this scenario, the attention of the pupils is focused on the newly acquired information. In other words, a bridge is built between the student's native language to their second language so that new information may be transferred to the student in a more relevant fashion, which in turn will impact the student's academic achievement. Affective functions are essential for the expression of feelings, as well as for developing a sense of community and developing close connections with pupils. The instructor will code switch in order to explain the meaning of a term in the pupils' native language, but will also emphasize the significance of the second language in order to ensure that the pupils are able to comprehend the material effectively.

2.5.7 Functions of Student Code Switching

According to Eldridge (1996, as cited in Sert, 2005), the purposes of student code switching include equivalence, holding the floor, reiteration, and conflict management. The student may use equivalence as a protective mechanism, and it provides the student with the chance to communicate without the gaps that would otherwise emerge from a lack of proficiency in a second language. It is called floor-holding when a student cannot recall a word in the second

language and instead utilizes his or her native language to continue communicating without disrupting the flow of the conversation. The learner is better able to comprehend the material of the topic when meaning is attached to it in the student's native language via the process of repetition. There is a possibility that the message will not be conveyed precisely when translated into the second language. It is common for pupils to utilize conflict management strategies like code switching when they are having a discussion with someone and they do not know the exact meaning of a phrase being used.

2.5.8 Constraints Related to Code Switching

Code switching is a typical habit among bilingual speakers when they employ either language in the same speech. This occurs when they transition between the two languages. While there are many individuals who support the use of code swapping in educational settings, there are also many others who fiercely oppose it. The following is a list of some of the limitations that code switching poses in second language classrooms: Code switching in multilingual classrooms when pupils do not all speak the same first language may be a major problem since certain kids, albeit numerically minor, will be left out of the conversation.

When studying a second language, pupils may often hear the term "third code" used to allude to code switching. The learner does, in point of fact, have his or her first language, and at this point in time, they are working toward being proficient in their second language. An oversimplification would be to say that merely introducing mixed language into the learning process would be beneficial. The reason for this is because it's possible that the pupils who are learning a second language have never come across some of the terms that are a combination of both languages.

If a teacher is not fluent in the pupils' native language, then they will not be able to learn sufficient subject matter knowledge via the use of the code switching instructional method. However, the expense of hiring professional instructors who are proficient in the pupils' native language and are able to teach in that language might be significant. The development and promotion of a first language may be undermined by code switching. Pupils who have relied only on second-language research to understand new concepts may struggle to find equivalents in their first languages. Costs associated with recording and translating from one language to another may thus outweigh any benefits in terms of improved cognition.

2.6 Different definitions of code switching

Over the course of time, several academics have characterized code flipping in a variety of different ways, each of which is dependent on the perspective from which they approached their study. There are occasions when the language is the same, and there are also times when the terminology is utilized in a different way by other scholars (Milroy and Myusken 1995). Beginning in the 1970s and continuing today, code swapping has developed into its own distinct area of study, complete with a multitude of papers and organizations (Kovacs 2001). Nevertheless, despite the fact that an increasing volume of research has shed light on a number of elements of switching, it has also produced a terminological jungle since each researcher has a tendency to define the words in a little different way (Kovacs 2001). In the 1990s, an organization called the "Network on Code-switching and Language Contact" made an effort to bring some order to this confusing maze of terminology (funded by the European Science Foundation). But as it turned out, this was a very difficult undertaking to do. (Milroy and Mysken, 1995). The fact that the phrase "code switching" itself is written in a variety of ways by various scholars is only one illustration of the challenges associated with defining appears.

The following variations of spelling are acceptable: switching between codes and code switching. The term "code switching" was standardized for use in this research.

Code switching is "the alternative employment of two or more languages in the same statement or discourse," according to one definition of the term (Grosjean 1982). Code flipping, as defined by Myers and Scotton (1988), occurs when two or more languages are utilized in the same conversation without any clear phonological assimilation between them. A combination of components from two different codes might be considered, in a broad sense, one of the prerequisites for code switching (Winford 2003). The term "code switching" can refer to the alternating use of two or more languages. However, in the field of multilingualism, it is most commonly used to refer to the alternating use of two languages. Multiple registers of a single language are often referred to as "code switching." For instance, monolinguals may switch between formal and informal speech (Romaine 1995). This research accepts that monolinguals may employ code switching when changing styles; nevertheless, the scope of code switching is limited here to alternation between two languages, namely English and Kiswahili.

A significant amount of research has been done on code switching. As stated by Bailey (2000), the bulk of studies on code switching have focused on the following concerns: 1) grammatical functions, 2) discourse/conversation management functions, and/or 3) figurative/social functions. Syntactic approaches to code switching concentrate on the language features that limit code switching and the sorts of code switching that are permissible. Social methods, such as discourse management functions and social/metaphorical functions, have shown, however, the wide variety of social and discursive applications of code switching (Bailey 2000). These three distinct methods of researching code switching each show one of the two methods that are used while looking into code switching. These are linguistic and sociological ways of

approaching the problem (Winford, 2003). The linguistic method examines a sentence, with the goal of determining the language rules and limitations that control the development of code switched utterances. This is done by focusing on the phrase (Winford, 2003). The social approach examines the reasons for code switching as well as the social connotations associated with it. According to this theory, code switching is seen of as a kind of communication and is understood to take place between different speakers (Winford, 2003). This study will use the social method, since classroom discourse may be seen as a kind of communication, and as code switching is often considered to be a part of the social approach, it will also look at its possible purposes.

2.6.3 Other concepts related to code switching

Researchers (Myers-Scotton 1993) examining code flipping between two languages have proposed the existence of a matrix language that provides the structural norms and to which items from the other language, the embedded language, are borrowed. This theory was proposed by Myers-Scotton. In certain circles, the matrix language is also referred to as the basic language. But there are scholars who dispute the existence of a fundamental language. If there is a base language, as Muysken (1995) argues, defining it is tricky since the answer changes depending on whether you approach the question from a discourse-, statistics-, psycholinguistics-, or grammatics-oriented perspective. If there is a fundamental language, defining it is problematic due to the fact that the answer changes depending on the viewpoint adopted. To those who hold a discourse-oriented approach, the language of interaction serves as the foundational tongue. While those with a focus on statistics may assume that the language in which the bulk of words are spoken is the base language, psycholinguists hold that the speaker's proficiency level is the decisive factor. In order to determine the speech's foundational

language, linguists concentrate on the utterance's introductory phrases since they may "guide" the utterance (e.g. governing verbs). In the context of classroom discourse, it may be unclear which language serves as the "base language" and which serves as the "embedded language" (Simon 2001). It's possible that the language used in a certain activity will differ from that used in another. It's possible, for instance, that Kiswahili may serve as the primary language of discussion during grammar lessons, but English will be used in everyday conversations.

Myers-Scotton (1988, 1989) makes a difference between unmarked code switching and indicated code switching in addition to the distinctions that have been detailed above. These words are connected to the many social interactions that the speakers have with one another and with one another's other people. According to Myers-Scotton (1989), the selection of a certain code during a speech event would reflect "an anticipated rights and duties set amongst participants," which means that it adheres to the standards established by the community. This code is the one that has not been marked. On the other hand, a marked code causes the participants to shift from the anticipated connection they would have with one another to readjusting the social distance between them (Myers-Scotton 1989). A marked code is an unexpected kind of coding. In the context of picking up a new tongue, an unmarked code may be seen as the standard, expected one, whereas a marked code would be seen as something completely different. The unmarked code in a Finnish classroom teaching English, for instance, may be English while the pupils are engaged in communicative activities, but Kiswahili when the instructor is presenting grammatical principles to the class.

The concepts of situational and metaphorical code flipping are presented by Bloom and Gumperz (1972). These concepts may also be utilized, although to a lesser degree, in a language school setting. The term "situational switching" is used to describe a shift in terminology that

occurs when "participants' definition of each other's rights and duties" changes (Blom and Gumperz 1972). That's evidence of a clear causal link between context and terminology. One example of a situation in which utilizing an informal code when a formal one is required would be inappropriate use of language in a monolingual setting and hence a breach of generally accepted standards. However, when metaphors are switched, it means that the unanticipated diversity is not related to social contexts but rather to certain classes of topics. This is due to the common use of metaphors to describe singular instances. As a result, the unforeseen variety serves as a metaphor for "the cultural connotations that the variety has come to symbolize" (Heller, 1988). One language is connected with the function of a teacher in the classroom (foreign language), while another language is associated with "non-teacher-guise." This is an example of metaphorical code flipping in the classroom discourse (Simon 2001). The phrase "situational code switching" may be used in a language classroom to a variety of different sorts of activities in which a particular usage of code might be theoretically predicted. For instance, while teaching grammar, the predictable language is the student's home tongue (Simon 2001). The many ideas connected to code switching are taken into consideration in this research. On the other hand, as was said before, not all of them are suitable for significant use in research conducted in the classroom. The current investigation did not use code switching outside of the setting of a classroom at any point.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

The research will be directed by the five assumptions in Stephen Krashen's Model (1985) of second language acquisition: the Acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, and the affective filter hypothesis. The Affective

Filter Hypothesis provided a solid theoretical foundation for this study, as the researcher had anticipated. According to Krashen's theory (as presented in Schurtz, 2007), the process of learning a language is influenced by a variety of emotional factors. According to him, a student is considered to have a low emotional filter if they have low anxiety, strong motivation, and high self-confidence. In turn, this will provide a successful path for the learner to learn the target language. However, if a student's concern levels are high, their motivation is low, or their self-esteem and confidence are low, then the emotional filter will be larger and a mental wall will be created, preventing the student from using all of the information available to them. According to the findings of this study, the mental block may be avoided if instructors use purposeful code switching to help pupils overcome their fears about learning English. As a result, pupils would pick up languages with little to no effort.

2.7.1 Second Language Acquisition Theories

The five theories of Krashen about second language learning are currently considered to be the cornerstone of L2 acquisition. Not only have they shown to be effective in the teaching and learning of a second language, but they have also been proved to be useful in the teaching of other areas of language as well as in the learning of pupils in general. They may be used with both children and adults. For example, the intelligible input hypothesis has shown to be particularly helpful in improving reading comprehension in both first and second languages (Krashen, 2003). Another illustration of this is Krashen's Monitor hypothesis, which has been validated by the observation that effective acquisition of a second language cannot be achieved just via the study of formal grammar (Krashen, 2003). Krashen's five hypotheses for second language acquisition are: the *Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis*, the *Natural Order Hypothesis*,

the *Monitor Hypothesis*, the *Input (Comprehension) Hypothesis*, and the *Affective Filter Hypothesis*. All five hypotheses are in more detail below.

2.7.1 The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis posits that there are two distinct routes to language acquisition, namely, innate ability and formal instruction. The process of learning a new language is automatic and takes place below the level of consciousness. Knowledge acquired in this way is not only permanently stored in the brain, but also becomes invisible to the possessor. Children and adults go through the same steps while learning a new language, and this includes both spoken and written forms of communication. It is via language acquisition that we put into practice what we have learnt when we pick up phrases from our environment and then utilize them without giving them any thought (Krashen, 2003).

On the other hand, acquiring a language via language learning involves making a conscientious effort and going through a procedure that is often carried out at educational institutions. This kind of learnt information is consciously filed away in the memory of the brain. When we discuss things like sentence structure or grammatical norms, for instance, we draw on the conscious information we've obtained through the process of learning a language (Krashen, 2003). Correcting errors in either spoken or written language is done with the goal of facilitating language acquisition. When a student makes a grammar mistake and receives a correction from their teacher, the goal of the lesson is to help the student understand that particular rule of the language's grammatical system. On the other hand, Krashen (2003) suggests that the influence of mistake correction on the achievement of good language acquisition may be minimal.

2.7.2 The Natural Order Hypothesis

According to the Natural Order Hypothesis, people tend to learn distinct aspects of a language in the sequence that is hypothesized to be most natural for them. For instance, there is a pattern to the way in which one learns the different grammatical rules. The natural sequence of learning a first language and a second language are similar yet distinct, as shown by Krashen's (2003) research. Krashen (2003) identifies "three startling realities" concerning the developmental trajectory of second-language acquisition: There is no correlation between the sequence in which grammatical rules are learned and their relative simplicity or complexity; for example, this does not indicate that the rules that are simpler and easier to learn are acquired first. As a result, this fact runs counter to the sequence in which grammatical principles are often taught in schools, which typically progresses from the most basic to the most advanced concepts.

Teaching interventions cannot change the logical progression of language learning. The first two pieces of evidence supporting the natural order hypothesis could lead one to conclude that teaching languages in the order in which individuals are most likely to acquire them is the best strategy. However, Krashen (2003) argues that this is not the case, because the "natural order is not the teaching order." (P2).

2.7.3 The Monitor Hypothesis

Language learning and teaching are areas of research that interest the Monitor Hypothesis. Specifically, the Monitor hypothesis states that humans only use the language they have learnt, and that this language serves just one function, either as a "Monitor" or a "Editor." Those findings may be seen in (Krashen, 2003). When we compose a sentence in a foreign language using language that we have learned unconsciously, we immediately perform corrections to

mistakes that we have made, based on language acquisition, a conscious process, and hence named "self correction." Another time this happens is when we use a foreign word or phrase in a statement we are composing in our mother tongue without even realizing it (Krashen, 2003).

Therefore, conscious language acquisition serves no purpose other than that of a language editor; it makes some contribution to linguistic precision, but does not add to linguistic fluency. Language acquisition is the factor that contributes the most to a person's linguistic fluency as well as their correctness, according to Krashen (2003). In order to make effective use of the Monitor, there are three prerequisites that must first be met: The student of the target language Must be familiar with the linguistic rule, Has to consider revising the output language for accuracy and Must have time to make the corrections (Krashen, 2003). According to Krashen, the occurrence of all three of these variables at the same time in real life is very uncommon and can only take place in very specific circumstances, such as when pupils are being tested on their grammar.

However, learning a second language is still helpful since there are dialects of the language that are difficult to learn without formal instruction in the language rule. The process of language creation, on the other hand, will drastically slow down when we place an excessive amount of emphasis on the "correctedness" of the output of our language, which will be at the price of the conversation or writing that is rich in thinking. Krashen (2003) argues that the best time to utilize a computer display is when doing so will not disrupt discussion and when sufficient time permits, such as during the revision process.

2.7.4 The Input Hypothesis

The Input Hypothesis is an attempt to describe the process of how a language is acquired by its speakers. According to the input hypothesis, the only method for humans to learn a language is via "comprehensible input," which simply refers to language that humans are able to comprehend and decipher for themselves. Because of this, if the signals that we are receiving can be comprehended, then we understand, and eventually we will learn language. The input comprehension hypothesis considers the typical progression of language acquisition, suggesting that between the time a student masters rule 'A' and the time he or she is about to master rule 'B' (in accordance with the natural order hypothesis), the teacher must intervene by providing comprehensible input, or a message that can be understood. That is to say, in order for pupils to learn, the instructor must supply information that is easily understood.

According to Lev Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development theory, pupils learn best when they are given tasks that are just beyond their current level of competence but yet manage to be interesting and challenging. Thus, if a student has already learned rule I for example, the teacher is obligated to provide the student feedback comparable to rule I plus one (not less not more). The significance of supplying language learners with material that can be comprehended was eloquently articulated by Krashen (2003), who said the following:

"Now that we have some notion of the input/comprehension hypothesis, I am able to offer two mysterious and astounding facts regarding the process of learning a language. To begin, picking up a new language is a piece of cake. It requires no effort nor energy to do. The only thing required of an acquirer is to comprehend communications. Second, the process of learning a

language is automatic. Given understandable input and the absence of impediments to emotional processing.

2.7.5 The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter Hypothesis puts forward the idea that feelings and emotions play a crucial role in the acquisition of a second language. It's as if the "region of the brain that is responsible for language acquisition" isn't getting the comprehensible information because of an invisible emotional filter. This has been shown to be the case (Krashen, 2003). As a result, if the acquirer is anxious, has poor self-efficacy sentiments, or low self-esteem, the acquirer's emotional filter will block the intelligible information from reaching the brain. This will occur regardless of whether or not the acquirer really has low self-esteem. When a person is calm, satisfied with their life, and has a healthy sense of their own worth, they have a greater capacity for learning intelligible information and for producing higher-quality linguistic output. Explorations in Language Acquisition and Use is the title of the book that he wrote. Stephen Krashen (2003) examines three more theories that are connected to the process of language acquisition. These hypotheses are the Comprehensible Output hypothesis, which was first proposed by Merrill Swain in 1985, the Interaction hypothesis, and the Need hypothesis. When a language learner is trying to convey information to a listener but the listener is unable to understand the learner's linguistic output, the learner will make corrections and try again and again until the listener can understand the learner's linguistic output, as proposed by the Comprehensible Output hypothesis. The student of a language ultimately comes to adopt the language's final, standardized form as it is spoken and understood by its target audience.

2.7.6 The Interaction hypothesis

Unlike the interaction theory, which suggests that language acquisition occurs naturally as a result of our interactions with others, the need hypothesis states that language acquisition occurs only "when we have the 'need' to speak." On page 64 of Krashen (2003). Krashen (2003) argues that while it is true that we pick up some language through the production of understandable output, through interactions with other people, and because we have a "need" to communicate, none of these three hypotheses provides strong evidence that can significantly contribute to language acquisition. Krashen claims this even though all three channels contribute to a learner's linguistic repertoire.

The Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis was proposed by Cummins (1979), and it claims that after children have mastered their native language as a result of receiving native language teaching, they are able to transfer those abilities to a second language (Wolfe, 1992). Bilingual education provides pupils the opportunity to learn both the subject matter and classroom procedures in both their native language and the language of instruction, preventing pupils who speak a home language different than the one used in the classroom from falling behind. The Threshold Hypothesis suggests that children's cognitive development may be negatively impacted if they learn a second language before their native language has reached a certain degree of sophistication, making it clear how crucial it is to educate children's native languages (Cummins, 1976).

Language teaching approaches and methods are based on theories of second language acquisition (LLE), which, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), address two main points: first, the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in L2 acquisition, and second, the

prerequisites for L2 acquisition (pg. 22). This idea underpins two schools of thought: "process-oriented theories," which place an emphasis on the mechanics and psychology of the physical and social environments in which a language is acquired, and "condition-oriented theories," which go beyond this to explain how language acquisition occurs.

2.8 Related Studies

Based on his studies of the MoI throughout Africa, Rubagumya (1994: 1) concludes that the LoI "acts to varying degrees as a barrier to effective learning." Eisemon et al. (1989) found that elementary schools in Kenya were characterized by imprecise and incoherent rhetoric in their scientific lessons. This was because faculty lacked both subject-matter expertise in science and linguistic skills in English. In addition, many Grade 6 pupils struggled to understand and follow directions given in English (Muthwii, 2002). When the medium of instruction (MoI) is a language from Europe, there is a significant barrier to pupils' comprehension and their ability to achieve academically, as recognized by a number of teaching professionals (NCCRD, 2000, and Probyn, 2001).

Only 9.7 percent of Nigerian high school seniors met the English proficiency requirement for university entrance, while 64.3 percent did not (Bamgbose, 2004). In the late 1990s, the Applied Linguistics Institute at the University of Cocody in Côte d'Ivoire conducted a pedagogical experiment that found that when pupils' LoI was familiar, communication was improved not only with teachers (Bergmann et al., 2002) and teachers and learners were able to negotiate meaning effectively (Baker, 2001), but also with parents, and between teachers and parents, allowing for greater participation from the entire family.

In South Africa, black pupils traditionally spent the first four years of elementary school learning in their MTs' until English became the MoI. High failure and dropout rates in programs where a foreign language is employed as the medium of teaching may be linked to the general public's lack of linguistic preparation in the target language (Kamwangamalu, 2000). At an early age, primary school pupils in the area learn to mix Yoruba and English into their daily conversation Ayeomoni, (2006: 93). As a result, the process of the kid becoming multilingual really begins in the early elementary years of schooling. Because of this, children who grow up in bilingual households show signs of code flipping and code mixing in their language development.

Code switching has been studied extensively as a means of teaching, with positive results. Code switching between IsiZulu and English is used in various regions of South Africa (Olugbra, 2008). Not only do social norms and ideals assist to explain why people adopt certain speaking methods, but so do social and psychological aspects (Mazrui,1995). It's possible that speakers' attitudes, intentions, emotions, convictions, and loyalties, as well as their understanding of the inter-group connection context and their familiarity with sociolinguistic norms, play a role here. Understanding that teaching English conversational skills is not a technique but rather an experience is crucial. This isn't just a simple rule-set-transfer. It includes mental states such as appraisals and appraisals. An individual's English instructor may have a significant impact on their student's language development. People who are fluent in more than one language are more used to switching fast between distinct cognitive processes (UNESCO, 1995).

Learning one's native language is seen to be more effective than learning a second language at school (Akinwumi and Olarewaju, cited in Makinde and Olabode, 2006). Pupils at a Nigerian Junior Secondary School (JSS) were subjected to a treatment that included the instruction of

integrated science in both Yoruba and English. The whole thing was a research experiment. Yoruba language exposure had a significant positive effect on the academic performance of the experimental group's pupils compared to those in the control group (English language).

2.9 Summary

The second chapter provides a literature overview of the theories relevant to the study, the conceptual and theoretical frameworks, and the research gap in regards to the use of a first language in the classroom while teaching English.

The debate over Kenya's linguistic diversity is discussed in this chapter. The idea of bilingualism in its broadest sense was examined, including both additive and subtractive forms of the language proficiency, and some of the positive effects that bilingualism may have on the development of pupils' English-speaking abilities were highlighted. The methods of Second Language Acquisition for creating bilinguals were examined, as were the connections between bilingualism and code switching, with an emphasis on the fact that code switching occurs solely among bilinguals. Code switching as a teaching and learning strategy for pupils learning a second language was extensively examined, as were its benefits and applications in the classroom. Last but not least, the approach that is used in the classroom while instructing pupils in the English language was discussed as a major component in determining how pupils feel about the language. The next Chapter looks at research design and methodology.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research design that was used in the study to answer the research questions that were posed in the previous chapter. To be detailed are the methodology, the research design, the locality or the region of the study, the target population, sampling techniques, research instrument validity and reliability, data collecting procedures, data analysis procedures, and ethical issues.

3.2 Research Design

Research design, as defined by Kothari (2004), is the overarching theoretical plan for how a study was conducted. It's the plan that everyone follows as they gather, analyze, and share their data. Code switching was studied as an instructional strategy in the context of teaching and learning English at the standard 7 level in Homabay County, Kenya, using a descriptive survey approach. Because it is representative of a wide range of primary schools in Kenya as well as a variety of Kenyan ethnic groups, the county was selected for the research. The descriptive survey methodology was selected because it allows for the most precise description of behavior, attitudes, views, beliefs, and perceptions, as well as the determination and reporting of how things are now and how they came to be that way. It attempts to understand the type of the components that are engaged in a certain scenario, ascertain the extent to which those factors are present, and locate the connection that exists between those factors. Because of this, the design of this study assists the researcher in determining whether or not code switching

should be used as a method of instruction when introducing pupils to English at the standard 7 level.

3.3 Location of the Study

The study was conducted in Homa Bay County which is one of the counties found in Nyanza region of Kenya. Luo, kalenjin, and Kisii are only few of the people that make up the diverse ethnic makeup of the County. The people who live in Homabay County are involved in a variety of occupations, including fishing, cash crop farming, producing maize and millet, and running small businesses. The research focused on Homabay County, which is located in Nyanza, Kenya. The selection of the County is based on the variety of primary education options available there, which include both public and private schools. It is also a focus of the research due to the fact that a sizeable number of primary schools, both public and private, are partially located within its administrative boundaries. These varied settings for primary schools easily made available the necessary data required for the investigation, which focuses on individuals with multilingual backgrounds. This study was done selected primary schools of Homabay County, Homabay County borders Kisii, Kisumu and Migori counties

3.4 Target Population

The population of the study consisted of pupils and teachers of English in public and private primary schools, and the research was carried out in Kanda Sub County, which is located within Homabay County. Kanayada Sub County, located within Homabay County, got eleven primary schools as a result of population growth.

3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique

In a research study, a group of people called a sample is chosen at random from a larger population to serve as a representation of the whole (Neuman, 2000). The people that are chosen to represent the sample, while the larger group that was used to pick them represents the population as a whole (Mugenda, 2003). The primary schools in Kanyada Sub County, located inside Homabay County, which are located within the Nyanza region of Kenya was the focus of this research. According to the results, simple random sampling is the best approach to take since it gives each unit an equal chance of being chosen. Out of the 121 primary schools (public and private) in the County, the researcher chose 36 for the study. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) state that a sample is deemed to be 30% representative of the population being studied.

A stratified random sampling technique was used to choose both public and private institutions. The term "stratified random sampling" refers to a technique in which a population or sample frame is divided into many distinct "strata" (subgroups) based on some defining attribute that is assumed to be representative of the study variables of interest. Stratified random sampling is a technique that was developed by the University of Michigan. Following the division of the population or the sampling frame into the relevant strata, samples was collected using a simple random method from inside each stratum. Therefore, in order to guarantee that the sample is a fair representative of the population as a whole, it is chosen from within each subgroup based on the presence of traits that are identical to or comparable to those of the other subgroups (Mugenda, 2003). The example summary is shown below in table 3.1.

Total Sample size = **900**

Table 1: Sample Size

Respondent Category	Public schools		Private schools		Total	
	Population	Sample	Population	Sample	Population	Sample
Schools	94	28	27	8	121	36
Pupils	–	560	–	160	–	720
Teachers	–	56	–	16	–	72
Lessons	–	56	–	16	–	72
Total						900

Source: Researcher (2023)

To conduct this research, the researcher utilized a technique called simple random selection to choose 28 public and 8 private primary schools from among the 121 primary schools in Kanyada Sub County, Homabay County. There are 36 chances, so each of the 121 institutions has a fair chance of being picked. This was done by employing random generator where the first 36 schools were selected using Microsoft Excel Rand () function from a list of 121 (Choi & Kim, 2010). Each school was assigned a random number therefore, sorting was done in ascending order. When you need to gather information on a large population but don't have the manpower or funds to have in-depth conversations with each and every one of them, a simple random sampling technique is adequate. Each of the 36 participating primary schools had at least two academic tracks, allowing the researcher to sample two standard 7 classrooms from each. Due to variations in student enrollment from school to school, this choice was crucial in achieving consistency.

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

The questionnaires, observation schedule, and interview schedule were the most essential sources of data for the project. These topics are going to be covered in the following sections:

3.6.1 Questionnaire

When it comes to collecting data from a sample, questionnaires are not only more cost-effective but also more time-efficient and do not need an official authorization. When it comes to gathering information on a population, questionnaires play an especially significant role in the domains of education and the social sciences. Questions concerning the subject's feelings, motivations, attitudes, and achievements, as well as those about their personal experiences, may be used to glean information that is not immediately apparent. Studying the prevalence of L1 instruction in English classes that is led by the instructor requires the use of a questionnaire. Researchers utilized a questionnaire to obtain information from English language instructors.

3.6.2 Interview Schedule

The data necessary to satisfy the study's particular goals may be obtained via the use of an interview schedule, which makes this feasible. Interviews, if they are carried out correctly, have the potential to yield more in-depth data than other instruments. On the other hand, interview schedules are sometimes more costly and time-consuming than other methods, and they tend to include fewer participants overall. On the other hand, in contrast to the questionnaire, the interview is adaptable; during the interview, the circumstances may be adapted to each individual subject. The researcher had the opportunity to request immediate clarification on a number of important aspects that are relevant to the study via direct face-to-face engagement with the principals or head teachers, making this method an appropriate one. Additionally, because of this, the researcher was able to follow up on replies that were confusing or incomplete by asking extra in-depth questions. Pupils in class 7 are the ones who were interviewed. Teachers' L1 usage and attitudes about it in the classroom was explored via interviews with pupils. The interview schedule was useful for probing all three goals: learning

about the conditions under which L1 is used in the classroom, uncovering the variables that inspire pupils to utilize L1, and gauging how pupils feel about L1 usage on the part of their instructors.

3.6.3 Classroom Observation Schedule

According to Gebhard (1999), the definition of classroom observation is the "non-judgmental reporting of classroom happenings that may be analyzed and given meaning" (p. 35). In the framework of this research project, the goal of observation is to observe actual English classes as they take place. The usage of code switching in English classes in standard seven was evaluated by seeing the instructors in action, which offered a mechanism of doing so. The researcher observed class conversations for 35 minutes. When it comes to obtaining information from people who are taking part in natural settings, observation is a useful method. Not only does direct observation in their native environment result in a better comprehension of the context, but it also records the behavior of the participants in their natural environment (Patton, 2002). Observation in the classroom is a good method for gathering in-depth knowledge on a variety of topics, such as linguistic phenomena, according to Mackey and Gass (2005). Second, using observation allows the researcher to get first-hand reports of the situation and the people involved, which stimulates inductive thinking while they are actually at the location (Merriam, 1998). Thirdly, the observer is in a unique position to get insight about practices that the participants in the event may not be aware of. Patton (2002) argues that observers may glean information from interviews that subjects might be reluctant to provide.

In light of the benefits that have been outlined above, the researcher who is doing this investigation gathered data through observing classrooms. The researcher took detailed notes

on her observations of each session, documenting everything from the instructors' instructional activities and classroom demeanor to the pupils' verbal responses to the instructors. The researcher also made observations of the classroom's layout and the instructors' pedagogical methods. For instance, the study's observer recorded data on how both educators and pupils perceive the introduction of code swapping. In addition, the researcher was able to make notes on the events that occurred in relation to the teaching practices of the instructors, such as pupils who arrive unexpectedly late to class or the weather conditions, both of which may have an impact on the teaching as well as the learning that takes place. The researcher was able to analyze, interpret, and present the data thanks to the observation notes, which assisted in developing a more in-depth comprehension of the code-switching behavior of both the pupils and the instructors.

3.7 Reliability and Validity

3.7.1 Validity of the Instruments

The correctness and significance of the conclusions that are drawn from the findings of the study is what we mean when we talk about validity. (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999) At its core, validity refers to the process of determining whether or not the questionnaire content really measures the things that it is intended to test. Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure or numerous measurements of the idea properly measure the concept. Validity may be established via a variety of methods. Validating the content of the questionnaire via the use of a non-statistical approach known as content validity is described here. As a first step in determining the instrument's authenticity, it is recommended to consult with relevant supervisors or specialists to get their take on the document's veracity. When evaluating the

instruments with relation to the information that they contain, there was a panel of three experts involved. The validity of the instruments' content was reviewed and approved by specialists from the School of Social Sciences.

3.7.2 Reliability of instruments.

High dependability in a research instrument is defined as the degree to which it yields the same or similar outcomes across several trials (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). The study used a test-retest or co-efficient of stability method to ensure consistency in results by repeatedly gauging the accuracy of the same concept using the same instrument. This was done to predict how closely further measurements of the same idea provided the same findings. A Pearson's product moment correlation co-efficient was used to ascertain how well the questionnaire's constructs predictably elicit the same answers over several administrations of the instrument. This allowed for the determination of the degree to which the questionnaire can be considered consistent. A correlation coefficient of 0.7 was selected so that the questionnaire could achieve an acceptable degree of reliability and so that it could guarantee that it meets the objectives of the research. If the instrument's reliability falls short of the target, it would undergo additional refinement by adding components until it reaches the required standard.

3.8 Pilot study

It was very important to conduct a pilot study to determine whether or not the research instruments that were built would measure what they meant to achieve. The Kanyada Sub County of the Homa Bay County served as the location for the trial project. Pilot research is conducted on individuals who are part of the target demographic, but it does not include participants from the actual sample that was to be used. This is due to the fact that it may have

an effect on the participants' subsequent behavior, which in turn might impair the validity and reliability of the study tools. It is a scaled-down version of a full-scale study, during which certain research tools are put through their paces in a controlled environment. It offers the researcher very helpful and insightful information (Polit et al, 2001). It is the process of putting a certain research instrument through preliminary testing or trial runs (Baker, 1994). The following are some of the justifications for carrying out a pilot study, as outlined by De Vaus (1993): creating and validating adequate research equipment; assessing the viability of a project; the design of a research protocol, the assessment of the feasibility of the protocol, the viability of the sampling frame and technique, the assessment of the potential for success of proposed approaches, the identification of potential logical problems that may arise from the use of such approaches, and so on and so forth. Preliminary research for this project was conducted in the Homabay Central sub-county. It was conducted among three primary schools first. The results of the pilot research informed future adjustments.

3.9 Administration of Research Instruments.

Prior to beginning the study, a letter to the provincial Administration and the ministry of Education requesting permission to carry out the research and requesting a research permit was requested. Following the receipt of a response or approval from the appropriate authorities, an introductory letter was created and sent to the responders in order to solicit their participation in the research. These letters were handed to the responders in person by the researcher. The researcher handed out the questionnaires to the responders.

3.10 Data Analysis

The kind of data that was gathered in this research was qualitative in nature. Through coding and tabulation, the raw data was organized into categories. The coding of the data went through some editing in order to increase its quality. It is planned to make use of descriptive statistics. The usage of frequency tables, percentages, means, and standard deviations were all part of the descriptive statistics presented. Particularly in situations when the Likert scale was going to be utilized, inferential statistics were used.

3.11 Ethical Consideration

It is planned to contact the County Education office in Homabay municipality to request permission to conduct research at the schools chosen for this project. Any data or findings gleaned from other sources must be cited, and the researcher must provide proper credit for any previously published materials used. In addition, participants were made aware that they are free to stop participating in the study at any moment, and that doing so would not lead to any repercussions. The research team assured participants that their confidentiality would be maintained and their personal information protected by limiting access to the raw data to just the study team.

3.12 Chapter Summary

Methodology, including the study's design, is discussed in Chapter 3. research site, sample size and selection, sampling techniques, data sources, measurement tools, pilot testing, instrument validity and reliability, data processing, and ethical concerns.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This study sought to investigate the influence of the use of first language on teaching and learning of English language in selected public primary schools which finally affect the performance of English in Kanyada Sub-County, Homa-Bay County, Kenya. It investigated the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county, Kenya; to establish implementation of the national language policy in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county, Kenya and to find out the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub County Homabay county, Kenya.

4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate

Nine three questionnaires were administered to the sampled respondents. Seventy-four questionnaires were returned, this represents a response rate of 79.6%. According to Hughes, Bath and Noble (2010), a response rate of over 60.0% is satisfactory. Therefore, there was adequate data to conduct analysis. This is as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Questionnaire Return Rate

Administered	Returned	Response Rate
93	74	79.6%

Source: Researcher (2022)

4.3 Influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English

The first objective of the study was to determine the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county, Kenya.

4.3.1 Existence, Formulation and Implementation of School Language Policy

All sampled respondents affirmed that their schools have language policy which as an influence on teaching and learning English. Further, the study sought to find out who is responsible for formulation and implementation of school language policy. The results are as shown in Figure 1.0

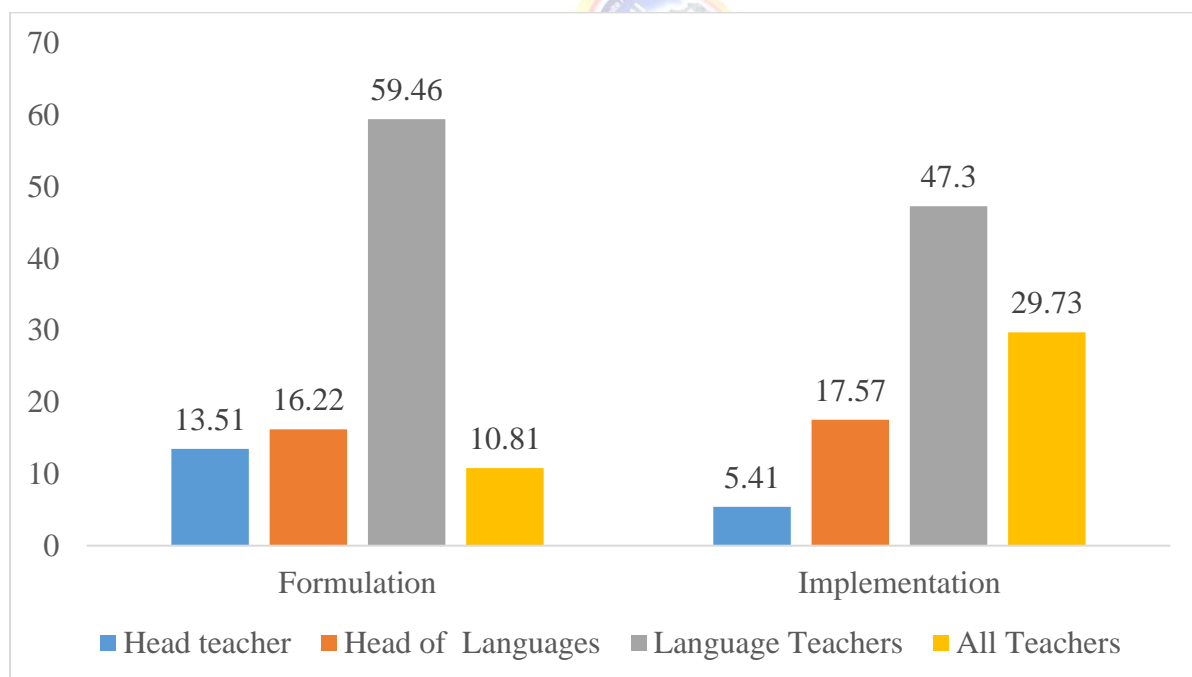


Figure 1: Formulation and Implementation of School Language Policy

As indicated in Figure 1, majority of the respondents indicated that school language policy should be formulated by languages teachers as shown by 59.5% while 16.2% of the respondents indicated that head of languages should formulate the policy, 13.5% School head teacher should formulate and 10.8% indicated all teachers in the school should participate in the formulation of school language policy.

Further, as indicated in Figure 1, majority of the respondents indicated that school language policy should be implemented by languages teachers as shown by 47.3% while 29.7% of the respondents indicated that all teachers in the school have a role to play in regards to implementation of school language policy. In addition, 17.6% of the respondents indicated that head of language should implement and 5.4% indicated that head teachers should implement school language policy.

The study noted that all the language teachers should have the authority to make its school language policy. Hence, it is necessary to address their views on the micro level while formulating school language policies. Some of the reasons given for this include: the fact that the department is best suited to determine what policies will work; the fact that this is an internal matter; the fact that, in contrast to other councils, the department's members are likely to be experts in the field of English; the fact that the department can construct, test, and refine these policies until they're perfected; and lastly, the fact that it can generalize these policies on a national level. Regarding these replies, it does make sense to let English departments create their own school language policies, as they are most equipped to know what works in the workplace and how to implement strategies that will help students succeed.

4.3.2 School Language Policies

To ensure pupils spoke English in school, headteachers reported that schools had their own language policies. In some of the schools, it was compulsory for learners to speak English from Monday to Thursday, and Kiswahili on Fridays. In other schools, Kiswahili speaking was allowed for two days and for the rest of the week learners were expected to speak English. Learners were encouraged to communicate in English in school as English was the medium of instruction and also the language of examinations. The school administration said they set an example for learners by making announcements in English at morning assembly and using English during meetings and in the classrooms to teach. To promote the standards of English, pupils who excelled in English would be awarded gifts and prizes.

To discourage speaking vernacular languages, schools used discs and monitors to catch those who broke the rule. Sometimes those found speaking Mother Tongue would be rebuked by teachers or issued with English storybooks to read. Despite these efforts to promote English, teachers reported that English was facing stiff competition from Kiswahili, which was also the national language and a compulsory subject at primary and secondary school levels. Kiswahili was also an official language and continues to gain prominence internationally.

4.3.3 How important is it for School Language Policy to Exist in School?

The respondents were asked to indicate how important is it for school language policy to Exist in the school. The results are as shown in Table 3

Table 3: Importance of School Language Policy that Exist in School

	Frequency	Percentage
Create Suitable Working Environment	55	74.3
Create a suitable learning environment for Pupils	52	70.3
To maintain uniformity across departments, establish clear, concise guidelines for the appropriate use of English in all interactions.	28	37.8
Inspire the staff members to make more frequent use of the English language.	22	29.7
The workers should be allowed to continue to retain their language proficiency.	9	12.2
Allow pupils to maintain their linguistic competence	74	100.0

No one in Homa Bay County who took the survey disagreed that elementary schools should have a school language policy. According to their reasons, school language policies can do a lot of different things. For example, they can make the workplace more pleasant for everyone (74.3%), make the classroom more conducive to learning (70.3%), help teachers keep their language skills up to date (12.2%), establish consistent guidelines for when to use English across departments (33.8%), encourage teachers to use English more frequently (29.7%), and, most importantly, help students keep their language skills up to date. Further the study sought to find out whether English language teachers abide by English language policies. The results are shown in Figure 2

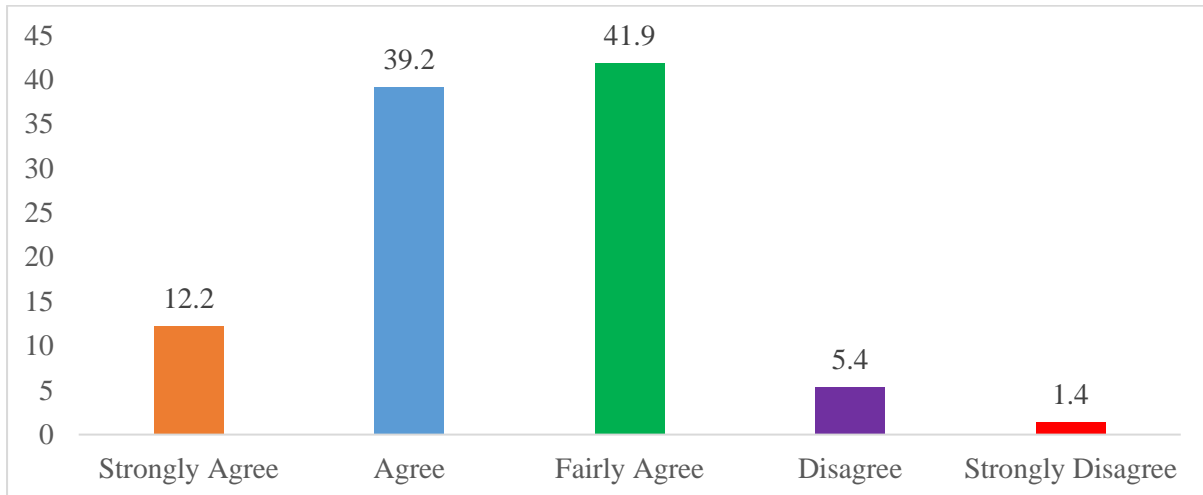
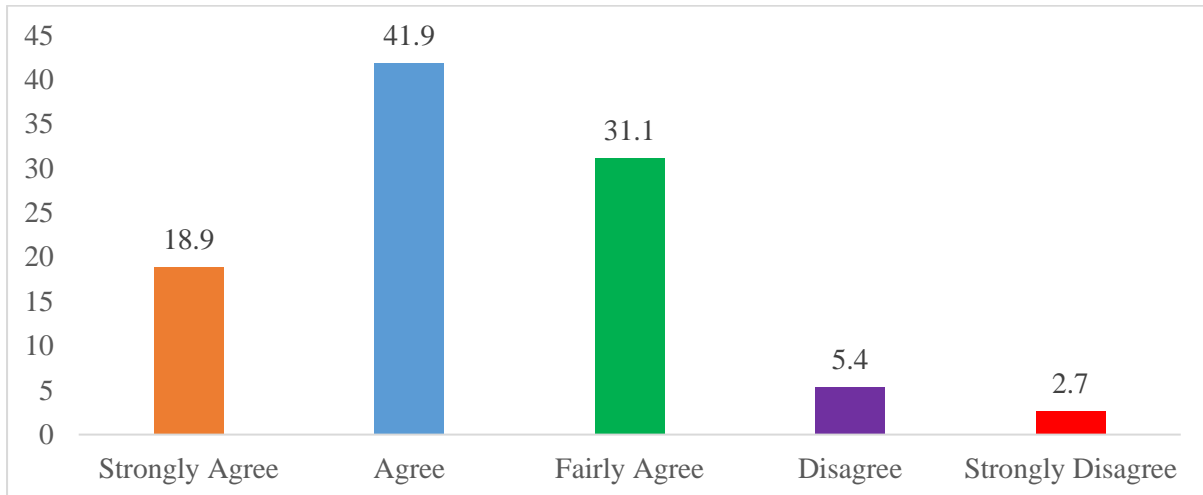


Figure 2: English language teachers abide by English language policies

As indicated in Figure 2, 41.9% of the participants expressed a moderate level of agreement, while a greater percentage of 39.2% expressed a higher level of agreement with this statement (refer to Figure 2). Hence, a staggering 93.2% of all participants said that school language policy should be strictly adhered to by staff members. Therefore, it seems that English departments and their staff members consider school language to be significant. A minuscule proportion of participants (6.8% of the population) either expressed disagreement with the statement or exhibited uncertainty, indicating a possible lack of understanding towards the need of implementing a school language policy. Alternatively, it is more probable that they saw no justification for having such policies in place.

4.3.4 Staff Members' Familiarity with School Language Policies, If Any, Will Contribute to Accomplishing Institutional Goals



Regarding this statement, a significant portion (41.9%) of the participants agreed, along with another substantial portion (31.1%) who somewhat agreed with it (refer to Figure 3). This implies that a total of 91.9% of the population believed that being familiar with school language policies can help achieve institutional objectives. This implies that language policies implemented by schools may have a beneficial influence on the overall functioning of the institution. Consequently, it can be concluded that school language policies have significance within English departments. Furthermore, it implies that in the presence of school language regulations, it is essential for staff members to familiarize themselves with these policies. A minority of respondents, comprising 8.1% of the population, either disagreed with the statement or expressed uncertainty. This might be attributed to their lack of exposure to or understanding of the school language policy, leading them to not fully grasp its importance. Alternatively, this might indicate that these participants did not place significance on the implementation of language policies at the department level within the school.

4.3.5 Medium of Communication

The participants were asked to specify the mode of communication used by instructors and students while at school. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Medium of Communication

	Staff		Pupil	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
English	45	60.8	39	52.7
English and Kiswahili	25	33.8	13	17.6
Kiswahili	9	12.2	7	9.5
English, Kiswahili and Mother Tongue	6	8.1	19	25.7
Kiswahili and Mother Tongue	2	2.7	11	14.9
Mother Tongue	1	1.4	5	6.8

The majority of school staff members speak English (60.8% of the time) or a mix of English and Kiswahili (33.8% of the time), according to Table 4. The data also show that most students communicate in school using English (52.7% of students), Kiswahili (25.7% of students), or a mix of these languages (25.7% of students). According to the findings, students' native languages are hardly taught in the classroom.

4.3.6 Likert Scale Responses

The following statements are meant to elicit information from you about the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Homabay county.

Pick the most appropriate rating from SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U(undecided), D (disagree) and SD (strongly disagree).

Table 5: Influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English

	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean	SD
My school has a language policy in place	36 (48.6)	28 (37.8)	6 (8.1)	3 (4.1)	1 (1.4)	4.3	0.9
The language policy in this school is functional	24.3 (18)	27 (20)	16.2 (12)	20.3 (15)	12.2 (9)	3.31	1.13
Language policy influences teaching and learning of English in our school	29 (39.2)	36 (48.6)	6 (8.1)	2 (2.7)	1 (1.4)	4.2	0.8
Pupils in this school are aware of the existence of language policy	32.4 (24)	24.3 (18)	9.5 (7)	24.3 (18)	9.5 (7)	3.46	1.41
Language policy is part of the school rules	25.7 (19)	29.7 (22)	6.8 (5)	23 (17)	14.9 (11)	3.28	1.45
Teachers in this school are at the forefront of the implementation of the language policy.	23 (17)	33.8 (25)	9.5 (7)	23 (17)	10.8 (8)	3.35	1.349
The teaching and learning of English in this school has been largely improved through the effective language policy	28 (37.8)	34 (45.9)	7 (9.5)	2 (2.7)	3 (4.1)	4.11	1.0
The school administration is key in the implementation of language	28.4 (21)	24.3 (18)	9.5 (7)	32.4 (24)	5.4 (4)	3.38	1.34

The study results indicate that 48.6% (36) of the respondents expressed strong agreement on the presence of a language policy in their school, while an additional 37.8% (28) agreed with this statement. at addition, 8.1% (6) of the participants were uncertain, 4.1% (3) had a different opinion, and 1.4% (1) strongly disagreed on the existence of a language policy at the school.

The school had a mean of 4.3 and a negligible standard deviation of 0.9, indicating the absence of a language policy.

Nevertheless, the findings indicated that 24.3% of the participants strongly concurred that the language policy at this educational institution is ineffective, while 27.0% agreed with this sentiment. In addition, 16.2% of the participants expressed indecision on the effectiveness of the language policy at this school. In contrast, 20.3% of the participants expressed disagreement, while 12.2% strongly disagreed with the same statement. The language policy in certain schools is not functioning, as shown by a mean of 3.31 and a substantial standard deviation of 1.13.

The table above demonstrates that among the survey respondents, 39.2% (29) strongly agreed that language policy has an impact on the teaching and learning of English in our school. Additionally, 48.6% (36) agreed, 8.1% (6) were undecided, 2.7% (2.7) disagreed, and 1.4% (1) strongly disagreed with the notion that language policy influences the teaching and learning of English in our school. The statement received a mean score of 4.2, with a negligible standard deviation of 0.8. This indicates that the language policy has no substantial impact on the teaching and learning of English at our school.

Regarding the statement on the awareness of the language policy among pupils at this school, 32.4% highly agreed, 24.3% agreed, 9.5% were uncertain, 24.3% disagreed, and 9.5% definitely disagreed. The average awareness level of kids at this school about the presence of language policy is 3.46, with a notable standard deviation of 0.41.

In addition, 25.7% of participants strongly agreed that language policy is included in the school regulations, while 29.7% agreed and 6.8% were uncertain. In contrast, 23.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed, while 14.9% disagreed with the notion that Language policy is included in the school regulations. Thus, in some schools, language policy is not included in the school regulations, as shown by a mean of 3.28 and a considerable standard deviation of 1.45.

The data shown in the table indicates that 23.0% of the participants strongly agreed, and an additional 33.8% agreed, that the instructors at this school are leading the implementation of the language policy. In addition, 9.5% of the participants expressed uncertainty, while 23.0% disagreed and an additional 10.8% strongly disagreed with the notion that instructors at this school are leading the implementation of the language policy. Teachers in some schools are not leading the implementation of the language policy, as shown by a mean of 3.35 and a substantial standard deviation of 1.35.

The statement that the teaching and learning of English in this school has been significantly enhanced through the effective language policy was strongly agreed upon by 37.8% (28) of participants, while 45.9% (34) agreed, 9.5% (7) were undecided, 2.7% (2) disagreed, and 4.1% (3) strongly disagreed. Similarly, the statement had a mean of 4.11 and a substantial standard deviation of 1.0, indicating that the teaching and study of English at this school has greatly improved due to the successful language policy.

Finally, a significant proportion of the participants, namely 28.4%, expressed strong agreement, while an additional 24.3% agreed, regarding the pivotal role of the school administration in the execution of language adoption. In addition, 9.5% of the participants

expressed uncertainty, while 32.4% disagreed and an additional 5.4% strongly disagreed about the importance of the school administration in language adoption. The school administration's involvement in language implementation is not considerable, as shown by a mean of 3.38 and a negligible standard deviation of 1.34.

4.4 Implementation of the National Language Policy in Public Primary Schools

The second objective of this study was to establish implementation of the national language policy in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay County, Kenya. The study was guided by the research question. What is the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in kanyada Homabay county? The research instruments used in getting response to this question were questionnaires to the teachers of English.

4.4.1 National policy on the teaching English as an integrated subject

The study's overarching goal was to provide light on the extent to which English is being taught as an integrated topic, with a focus on the development of students' listening, reading, speaking, and listening abilities working in tandem with one another. The inclusion of English as a topic is mandated by national policy. During English classes, the researcher used observation schedules. The researcher observed a typical English class by sitting quietly and paying close attention to the instructor and students. The researcher sat at the far back of the classroom so as not to draw attention from the students. In order to determine whether the lesson integrated hearing, speaking, reading, and writing, the researcher used the observation schedule checklist. The researcher's goal was to help students develop their listening abilities by monitoring their attentiveness while the instructor or another student read or spoke. In order to assess the

students' proficiency in public speaking, the researcher used a checklist to verify whether the class was engaging in activities such as role playing, oral storytelling, debates, oral reports, songs, proverbs, tongue twisters, or riddles. According to the results, 56 percent of the teachers surveyed cover all of the English abilities outlined in the guideline.

In order to determine whether these skills were really being taught, the researcher decided to observe lessons. While the class was in session, the researcher sat quietly and made note of everything that seemed out of place on an observation checklist. The researcher made sure that the listening and speaking abilities were integrated. Reading skills and writing abilities throughout the class. The students were to listen carefully without making any unnecessary interruptions, and then they would use their speaking abilities to provide a response based on what they had heard. One student may read an excerpt that relates to the course's theme, while another could write about it; this way, the four skills would be integrated into a single session.

While most responders were instructing their students in all four skills, the observation revealed that listening was one of the abilities that was often neglected. The results showed that 81% of the classes did not place a high priority on listening comprehension. According to further interviews with English language department chairs, instructors often don't put much focus on listening skills because they aren't tested by KNEC. This demonstrates that some English skills are prioritized in school curricula over others.

According to official government policy, students should not just study English while ignoring social concerns; rather, they should learn English alongside lessons on these topics. Students might read a comprehension about corruption, for instance, to improve their reading comprehension abilities. This study set out to answer the question, "Does the curriculum cover

current events?" The results showed that yes, all of the participating teachers did cover some current events in their English classes, including topics like religion, citizenship, civic education, corruption, child abuse, drug abuse, HIV/AIDS, and many more.

The researcher did an analysis on the teachers' preference on teaching English as an integrated subject. The results are shown in Figure

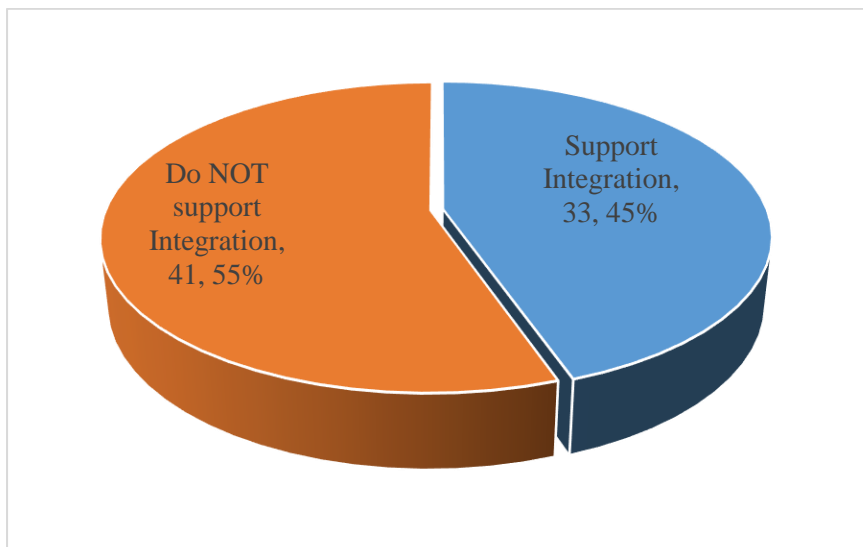


Figure 3: Support of Teaching English as an Integrated Subject

Figure 3 revealed that 55% of the participants expressed opposition to the integration of English as a topic, while 45% were in favor. Hence, considering the lack of support from the majority, one questions if they would persist in enforcing this government policy. Due to the evident absence of the appropriate mindset among instructors, there is a potential for this policy to be inadequately executed. This might be attributed to insufficient training in including English as a comprehensive topic or to the negative mindset of English instructors who are resistant to change.

4.2.2 Implementation of National policy on the teaching of English for communicative competence

Additionally, the research aimed to determine the extent to which secondary school English language programs adhere to official government policy by focusing on students' communicative competency rather than their expressive language abilities. In order to ensure that all aspects of the English class were well-attended, an observation check list was used.

Teaching English with the purpose of developing competent communicators is central to this philosophy on the purpose of teaching English. This research set out to examine what goes on in an English class, both in terms of instruction and student development. The objective was to see whether they were designed to help students reach their long-term objective of becoming fluent English speakers. Teaching and learning activities that enhanced communicative competencies were checked out using observation schedule checklists in the research. The capacity to convey one's thoughts and emotions via the medium of spoken or written word is known as communicative competence.

Role plays, in which students act out various parts of a story and use English to describe what they learned, were one kind of instructional activity that the observation schedule checklist sought for throughout a class. Poems, oral reports, narratives, tongue twisters, riddles, and pronunciation exercises were among the other areas where students' use of English was recorded on the observation checklist. The majority of these activities were implemented throughout the teaching and learning of English in all the various types of schools, as indicated in Table 6.

Table 6: Communicative Competence Practices

Communicative Competence Practices	Percentage (36 schools)
Role play	48.6
Debates	22.9
Listening	97.1
comprehension	88.6
Oral narratives	42.9
Pronunciation drills	51.4

The analysis clearly showed that majority of the school practices listening and comprehension as compared to debates and oral narratives. The reason for this is because instructors sometimes feel pressured to finish the English curriculum quickly so they have plenty of time for review, despite its breadth. Because there aren't many opportunities for students to practice speaking and listening effectively in English, they may only ever have experience with written English exams and struggle to express themselves fluently in spoken English.

4.4.3 Implementation of National policy on the English syllabus coverage in public secondary schools

Each class shall complete the English curriculum in a year, under the K.I.C.D. The study's data came from surveys sent to the English department chairs at the participating institutions. The number of English classes each form had each week was one of the questions posed by the survey. Additionally, they wanted to know whether the schools included in the study had a policy on the covering of the curriculum and, if so, what it said. The results showed that every single school in the sample adhered to the policy regarding the amount of lessons taught in each class. In order to verify that the English curriculum was adequately covered, the researcher also used document analysis. The researcher compared the students' English textbooks with

their two homework books. The researcher also reviewed the instructor's syllabi to ensure that the English language was adequately covered.

An examination of student workbooks revealed, without a doubt, that instructors did not adhere to the material presented in the textbooks. Thus, in order to finish the curriculum within 'their' scheduled time frame, the instructors disregarded the course book's speaking and listening ability tasks.

Because there were not enough opportunities for professional development, some educators chose to disregard sections of the curriculum in which they lacked the necessary expertise. Because of this, students' knowledge was incomplete. Since speaking entails reacting to what has been heard, Gathumbi and Masembe (2005) remark that speaking is an essential component of hearing. The students face several challenges as a result of this contact. Teachers of English should make it their mission to ensure their students speak with confidence and precision. A communication breakdown occurs when students are unable to listen and speak with fluency and accuracy. Students struggle to articulate their ideas on tests, and teachers at the Kenya Institute of Education stress the need of reading critically and taking note of linguistic devices.

The learner's interests and life experiences should inform the writing assignments. Writing may be made more approachable via the use of pre-writing activities, such as group discussions (KIE, 2002). It is clear that the government's syllabus policy was not being followed when it came to coverage.

4.4.4 Restructuring of the National Language Policy

In order to gauge interest in potential changes to the language policy, we polled our respondents. When asked how badly they think the language policy needs reorganization, two

people (6% of the total) said extremely badly, ten people (31% of the total) said somewhat badly, four people (13% of the total) said they weren't sure, thirteen people (41% of the total) said somewhat badly, and three people (9% of the total) said poorly. We may infer from these findings that most educators felt the language policy needed some kind of update. This data is summarized in Figure 4.

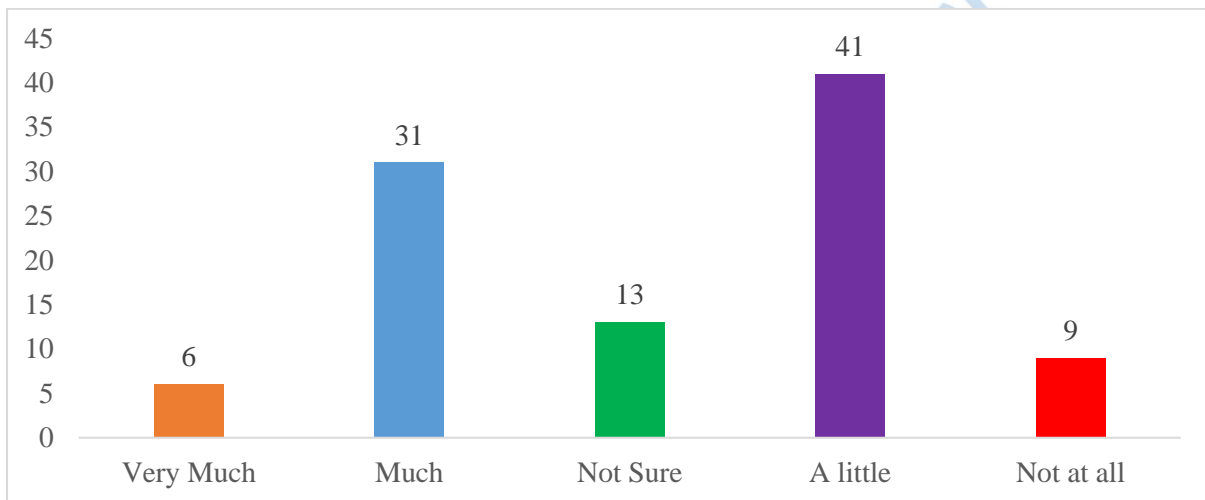


Figure 4: Restructuring of Language Policy

If the language policy were to undergo a change, the respondents were asked to identify their preference. When asked about their desired language policy, 28 people (or 88% of the total) said they would want to see English used from grades 4-8 and Kiswahili and mother tongue used from grades 1–3. The use of Kiswahili in elementary school textbooks was also suggested by one responder. Three percent of those who took the survey wanted English to be the language of instruction in all elementary schools from first through eighth grade. Two people (6% of the total) said they would like English as the language of instruction (LOI) in all elementary schools from grades 4-8 and MT from grades 1-3. From pre-K through eighth grade, one respondent (3%) wanted English to be the language of instruction in all elementary

schools. A language policy with Kiswahili as the medium of instruction in lower primary and English in upper primary was the chosen choice of most teachers.

4.4.5 Likert Scale Response

The following statements are meant to elicit information from you about the influence of national language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Homabay county. Pick the most appropriate rating from SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U(undecided), D (disagree) and SD (strongly disagree). The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Likert Scale Response- Influence of National Language Policy on Teaching and Learning of English in Primary Schools

	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean	SD
Ministry of education through K.I.C.D frequently assess language policy	18.9 (14)	36.5 (27)	9.5 (7)	25.7 (19)	9.5 (7)	3.30	1.30
Ministry of education through K.I.C.D frequently adopt language policy implementation in schools	28.4 (21)	33.8 (25)	5.4 (4)	24.3 (18)	8.1 (6)	3.50	1.35
Ministry of education through KICD do not adopt supervision of language policy implementation in schools	36.5 (27)	27 (20)	4.1 (3)	25.7 (19)	6.8 (5)	3.61	1.38
Ministry of education through KICD assess language policy continuously in schools	32.4 (24)	23 (17)	8.1 (6)	32.4 (24)	4.1 (3)	3.47	1.35
Teachers of this school are always reminding pupils of the national language policy	24.3 (18)	29.7 (22)	12.2 (9)	27 (20)	6.8 (5)	3.38	1.30
Pupils in this school are aware of language national policy	33.8 (25)	29.7 (22)	5.4 (4)	18.9 (14)	12.2 (9)	3.32	1.44
There is similarity between language policy and National	23 (17)	29.7 (22)	10.8 (8)	24.3 (18)	12.2 (9)	3.27	1.38

According to the findings of the research, 18.9% of the respondents strongly agreed that ministry of education through K.I.C.D rarely assess language policy and another 36.5% agreed on the same statement. Moreover, 9.5% of the respondents were undecided, 25.7% disagreed while 9.5% strongly disagreed that ministry of education through K.I.C.D rarely assess language policy. With a mean of 3.30 and a significant standard deviation of 1.0, ministry of education through K.I.C.D moderately assess language policy.

However, the results revealed that, 28.4% of the respondents strongly agreed that ministry of education through K.I.C.D rarely adopt language policy implementation in schools while 33.8% agreed on the same. Also, 5.4% of the respondents were undecided on that ministry of education through K.I.C.D rarely adopt language policy implementation in schools. On the other hand, 24.3% of the respondents disagreed and 8.1% (6) strongly disagreed on the same assertion. With a mean of 3.5 and a significant standard deviation of 1.35, ministry of education through K.I.C.D rarely adopt language policy implementation in schools.

As illustrated in the table above, of all the individuals who responded to the survey, 36.5% strongly agreed that Ministry of education through KICD do not adopt supervision of language policy implementation in schools, 27.0% agreed, 4.1% were undecided, 25.7% disagreed, while 6.8% strongly disagreed that Ministry of education through KICD do not adopt supervision of language policy implementation in schools. This statement had an average score of 3.61 and an insignificant standard deviation of 1.38 showing that the Ministry of education through KICD adopt supervision of language policy implementation in schools.

On statement that ministry of education through KICD assess language policy continuously in schools, 32.4% strongly agreed with the statement, 23.0% agreed 8.1% were undecided, 32.4% disagreed, while 1.4% (1) strongly disagree with the statement. With a mean of 3.47 and a significant standard deviation of 1.30, ministry of education through KICD moderately assess language policy continuously in schools.

Furthermore, on statement that teacher of this school are always reminding pupils of the national language policy, participants who agreed strongly were 24.3% while those who agreed were 29.7% and respondents who were undecided were 12.2%. Conversely, respondents who disagreed were 27.0% and those who strongly disagreed that teacher of this school are always reminding pupils of the national language policy were 6.8%. Therefore, with a mean of 3.38 and a significant standard deviation of 1.30, teacher of this school moderately always reminding pupils of the national language policy.

Results on the table above revealed that, 33.8% of the respondents strongly agreed and a further 29.7% agreed that pupils in this school are aware of language national policy. Moreover, 5.4% (4) of the respondents were undecided and 18.9% disagreed while another 12.2% strongly disagreed that pupils in this school are aware of language national policy. With a mean of 3.54 and a significant standard deviation of 1.44, pupils in this school are aware of language national policy

Regarding the assertion that there is similarity between language policy and National language policy in this school, participants who agreed strongly were 23.0% while those who agreed were 29.7%, 10.8% were undecided, 24.3% disagreed, while 12.2% strongly disagree with the statement. Similarly, the statement had a mean of 3.27 and a significant standard deviation of

1.38, which indicate that there is similarity between language policy and National language policy in this school.

In Kenya, the language policy mandates that the Language of Instruction (LOI) in lower primary education up to the end of Grade Three shall be the child's first language, which is often either their Mother Tongue (MT) or the language generally spoken in the school's catchment region, such as Kiswahili or English. According to the policy, English and Kiswahili must be taught as topics in the early years of primary school, and English shall be the language of instruction starting with grade four.

Therefore, in lower elementary education, it is mandatory for students to get instruction in English, Kiswahili, or any of the local languages. A significant number of parents, even those residing in rural regions, have a preference for their children to be educated in either English or Kiswahili, rather than in local languages, since they believe the latter provide limited advantages to their kid.

Teachers at lower elementary schools often have a predicament over which language to employ, mostly due to the students' limited comprehension and communication skills in English or Kiswahili, as well as the teacher's own inability to speak the local language of the region. Teachers often use a combination of the native language, Kiswahili, and English as the Language of Instruction (LOI) in lower elementary education.

Kenya is linguistically diverse, with more than 40 languages spoken across its area (Barasa, 2016). In addition to local languages, Kiswahili is used as both the official and national language, while English functions as the official language and the medium of instruction in schools (Mutai, 2006). Kenya's polyphonic setting presents challenges, intricacies, and disputes

when it comes to selecting and using language(s) for educational purposes. In Kenya, the overall Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) follows a bilingual approach to education. This means that the child's mother tongue (MT) or other local languages are used as the language of instruction (LOI) in lower primary classrooms, while English is taught as a separate topic. During the higher primary grades, English replaces the mother tongue as the language of instruction (Muthwii, 2002).

An in-depth examination of Language in Education Policy (LiEP) in Kenya at this level uncovers a language policy conundrum. In this dilemma, English, as a language with more resources, poses a challenge for children who use their mother tongue (MT) since it does not have the opportunity to generate school-based knowledge beyond lower primary schools. Moreover, English continues to be the prevailing language in Kenyan politics and trade. Kembo-Sure and Ogechi (2009) argue that the colonial history of Kenya solidified English as the most esteemed, influential, and esteemed language, whereas MT was relegated to everyday communication. Additionally, they highlight that the adoption of an autonomous language policy in education has strongly reinforced the previous colonial model, to the degree that the mother tongue (MT) is used only as a medium of instruction and taught as a topic for a mere three years throughout a student's academic journey. Ambiyio (2017) confirms that Kenya lacks a single comprehensive document specifically dedicated to language policy. However, there are provisions in the constitution and other policies, such as the education policy on languages of instruction, that address language usage. Additionally, there are other sessional papers and studies from different education commissions, such as the Mackay Report (1981) and Gachathi Report (1976), which have examined the issue of language usage and management throughout history, starting from the time when Christian missionaries first arrived in the early 20th

century. These rules serve as the foundation for the planning of language usage in the education sector.

The role and characteristics of language in the field of education are a crucial aspect of the connection between language and social dynamics, which governments carefully consider when making decisions. The topic being referred to here is often referred to as language-in-education policy or acquisition planning (Baldauf, 1990; Kaplan & Baldauf, 2002; Paulston & McLaughlin, 1994; Cooper, 1989). Kenya, like other governments, has developed comprehensive policies that address languages in education. However, language-in-education planning is typically incorporated into various documents such as policy papers, curriculum and assessment documents, and other official documents that impact the language teaching profession.

Prior to delving into the topic of LiEP in Kenya, it is crucial to highlight that language policies in Kenya primarily focus on institutions such as education, legislative, mass media, and the court, where certain languages have been designated for certain purposes. Given that this research explicitly examined FLiEP, it is essential to provide a concise remark on the language policy in Kenyan education.

Since gaining independence, Kenya's Language in Education Policy (LiEP) has been primarily focused on bilingual education. However, it has been widely recognized that these policies are often simply theoretical and lack practical application in most areas (Bamgbose, 2000; Heugh, 2002; & Roy-Campbell, 2000). However, Mose (2017) identifies the first appearance of language-in-education policies for elementary schools in Kenya as dating back to 1976, specifically during the implementation of the Gachathi report. The commission implemented

the use of mother tongues as the main languages of instruction in lower elementary education. The Ominde Commission of 1964 had previously suggested that these languages were not adequately prepared to fulfill this duty. MT, for the first time in Kenya's history as an independent nation, received formal approval and recognition from the government to be used in the school system.

The research noted a lack of oversight from school principals and Head of Departments, which had a significant impact on the execution of government policy for the teaching of English in secondary schools. Inadequate supervision by the principals presented a hindrance to the efficient teaching and learning of English, hence impacting students' performance in the subject. According to Hereld (1994), administrators should oversee the work of their instructors by observing their lessons, providing professional guidance, and discussing their plans for teaching. Teachers clarified that slow learners sometimes experienced confusion and, due to time constraints, fell behind. Another obstacle encountered was the absence of adequate teaching and learning materials in some institutions. While the study indicated that all schools had the prescribed resources (books), it was observed that some schools lacked teaching and learning aids, which presented a difficulty for instructors in executing government directives.

The latest educational white paper (Republic of Kenya, 2012) and the new Kenyan education sector plan Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) (2014) have both confirmed the importance of using the mother language in lower elementary schools in rural regions. Despite the national mandate, many schools in rural regions in Kenya do not use the mother tongue as the primary language of teaching (Begi, 2014). A research conducted by Githinji (2014) provided evidence to support this stance, showing that English was the predominant language of teaching in elementary schools in Nyeri County. Code switching and

code mixing were also often used, whereas Kiswahili and Kikuyu were less frequently used. Furthermore, a research conducted by Khejeri (2014) found that English, Kiswahili, and the native language are used for instructional purposes, with the native language being the least favored choice. There is a discrepancy between the language policies and actual implementation in schools, suggesting that children are being taught in a language that they are not yet acquainted with when they start school.

Webb (2004) found that students who get instruction in a foreign language throughout their schooling are prone to have adverse effects on their learning process. Additionally, students who have difficulties comprehending lessons in a foreign language are more prone to absenteeism, grade repetition, school dropout, and academic underachievement compared to those who are instructed in their native language. A previous research conducted by Colclough, et al. (2000), examining gender disparities in primary education, revealed that the instructional language used in schools is a significant factor that contributes to student attrition. Despite a discrepancy between language policy and implementation, research suggests that instructors have a significant influence on determining the language of instruction employed (Chiori & Harris, 2001). Additionally, the decisions made by instructors may be influenced by a combination of variables including their own language preference and proficiency, their attitude and beliefs, the social and cultural settings of the learners, as well as the influence of parents and the wider society (Muthwii, 2002).

4.5 Effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools

The third objective of this study was to find out the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub County Homabay county, Kenya. The study was guided by the research question. What is the the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county? The research instruments used in getting response to this question were questionnaires to the teachers of English.

4.5.1 The Nature of Code Switching among Pupils

The research aimed to determine the characteristics of code-switching by determining the use of the two primary forms of code switching and three subordinate forms among the students. Regarding the primary categories, figure 5 illustrates that 78% of the instances of code-switching occurred inside a single sentence, whereas 22% occurred between different sentences. This corroborates Romaine's (1995) assertion that both inter-sentential and intra-sentential code switching are the two primary forms of code switching. The students verified that the majority of code-switching occurrences among the males were at the level of switching between sentences, whereas the majority of code-switching occurrences among the girls in the Dholuo language were at the level of switching inside a single sentence.

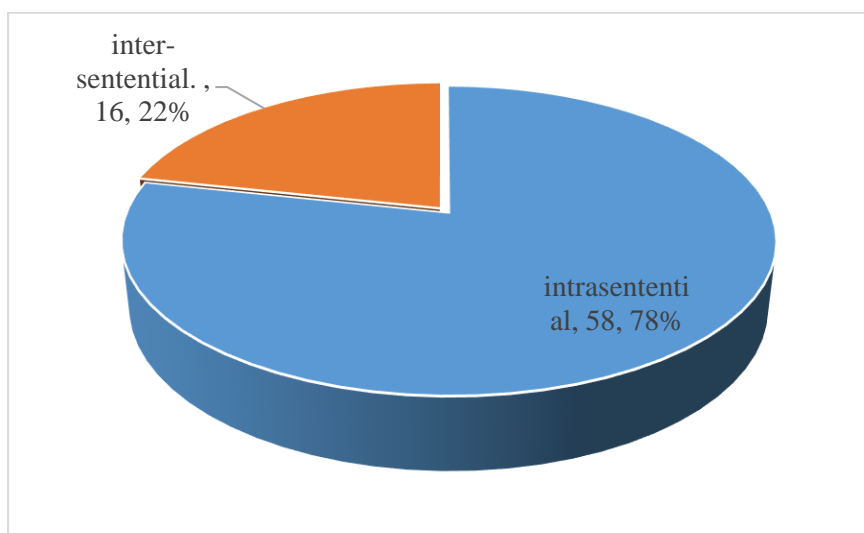


Figure 5: Nature of Code Switching among Pupils

4.5.2 Factors Influencing Code Switching in Spoken and Written Discourse among Pupils

The researcher used focused group discussion guide to gather the data on code switching behaviour among pupils. The pupils' responses revealed that four languages are used in the school environment. The four languages are used mostly during out of class activities.

4.5.2.1 Language Competence

The research aimed to determine the pattern of code switching as an indicator of language proficiency. Specifically, it investigated whether code switching among the kids started from English to Dholuo or vice versa. The data from each school are shown in Figure 4.8. The data indicates that 74% of the translations are from English to Dholuo/Swahili, while the remaining 26% are from Dholuo/Swahili to English. Hence, it is apparent that the most frequent occurrence of code flipping is the transition from English to Dholuo/Swahili. This may be ascribed to a restricted lexicon in English. The students encounter a communication barrier during their chat, so they go back to either Dholuo or Swahili. This aligns with the assertion

made by Theo et al. (1984), who highlighted that code switching serves as a manifestation of linguistic deficiencies in code switchers. These individuals resort to switching codes because they lack the necessary vocabulary in the second language conversation.

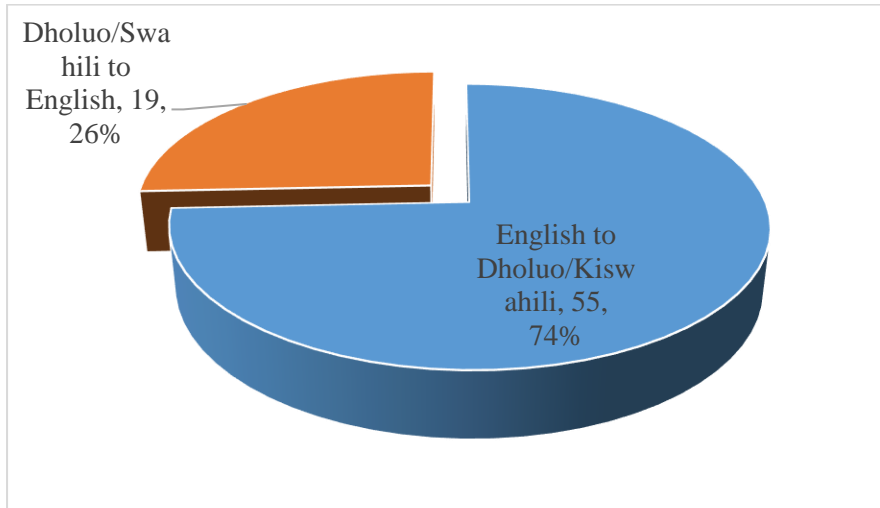


Figure 6: Language Competence

4.5.2.2 School Context

The research aimed to determine whether the occurrence of code switching among the students differed depending on the circumstance. Figure 7 demonstrates that the kids used code-switching in 100% of instances during games time and in 57% of instances at meals. According to the questioned children and instructors, the main reason for the high frequency of Dholuo use is that the pupils feel that they may speak the language without severe supervision in their surroundings. English language instructors reported that code-switching occurred in 14% of instances while physical tasks, classroom debates, or casual discussions. The majority of the issues being discussed were informal, therefore the students adhered to Giles' (1973) notion of Convergence. The findings corroborate the results of the Nyanza Provincial scientific Congress

Report (2008), which indicate that students prefer to alternate between using their first language (L1) and second language (L2) during scientific activities.

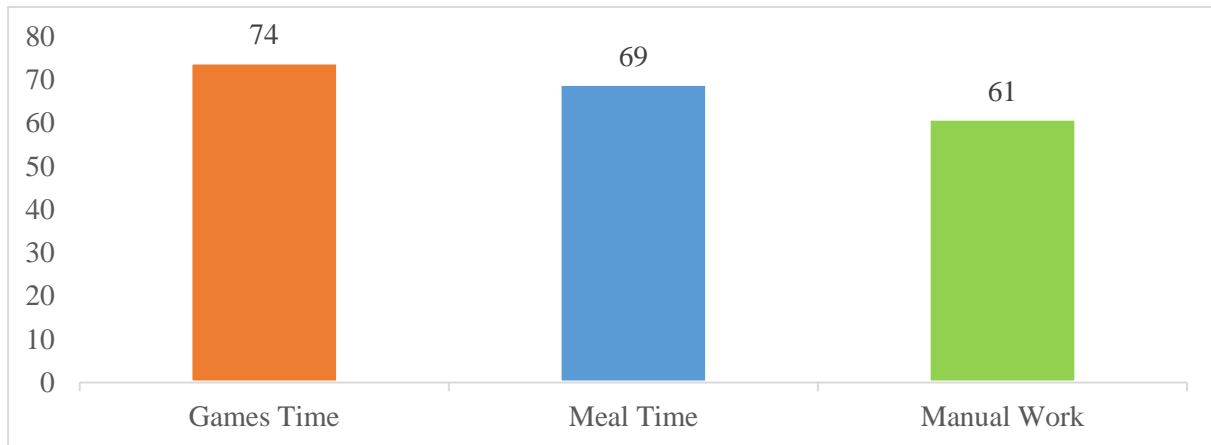


Figure 7: School Context

4.5.3.3 Pupil Social Environment

To assess the effect of a student's social milieu, the respondents were asked for their view on whether a student's socio-economic background affects their use of code switching. The data shown in Figure 8 indicates that 43% of the participants agreed, while 29% strongly agreed. However, 14% of the participants had a neutral stance, while an additional 14% held a contrary opinion. The students verified that Day Scholars engage in code switching more often than Boarders. This phenomenon is ascribed to the day scholars' connection with the local community and the casual chats that students partake in while commuting to and from school on weekdays. The vernacular of the community permeates the structure and organization of the institution. The results align with the study conducted by McAlister, de Klerk, and MacSwan (2006) on Spanish and English-speaking school-age children in America. The study examined the impact of a code-switching environment and concluded that it indeed influenced the English language proficiency of the students.

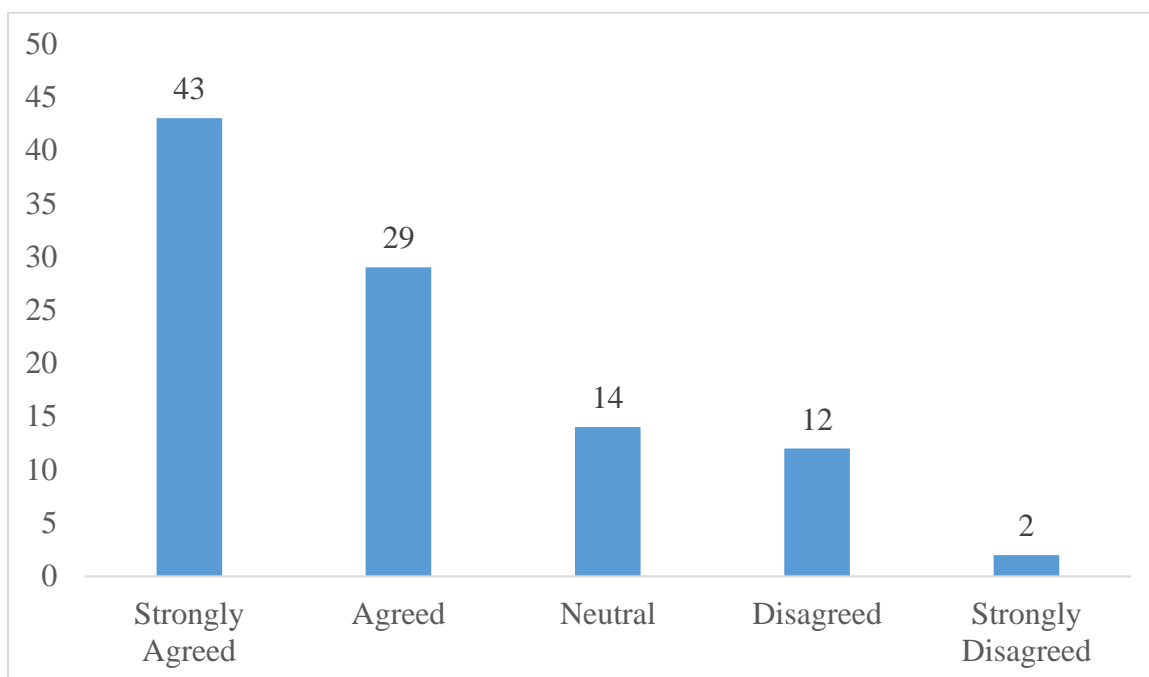


Figure 8: Pupil Social Environment

4.5.3 The Impact of Code Switching on the Oral and Written Discourse of Pupils

An evaluation was conducted to determine the effect of code switching on the English language proficiency of students at two different levels. The two types of performance are oral and written. The assessment of oral performance included the evaluation of lexical mistakes, phonological faults, prosodic errors, and syntactic errors. Lexical, syntactic, and phonetic faults were reviewed for written assignments. The instructors' perspectives were also gathered on prosodic faults and other effects of code switching on the students' academic achievement.

4.5.3.1 Impact of CS on Oral and Written Tasks

The most common kind of lexical mistake was direct translation, which accounted for 8% of oral performances and 3% of written assignments, as shown in the figure. Next came syntactic mistakes (incorrect grammar), which were found in 3% of written work and 4% of spoken

work, respectively. Finally, 3% of the written work had phonetic problems, but no prosodic faults (incorrect intonation or emphasis) were found. This finding is in line with earlier work by McAlister, de Klerk, and MacSwan (2006), who analyzed the frequencies of syntactic, morphological, and lexical errors among American school-aged children who spoke Spanish and English, and found that these errors had an impact on the children's performance. The tiny number of mistakes found in this research, however, suggests that code flipping had little effect on the English language skills of most students.

4.5.3.2 Views of Teachers on Prosody Errors

The study sought to establish from the teachers whether there were English words which pupils pronounced like Dholuo. The results shows that 71% of the respondents said no whereas only 29% said yes. Therefore, majority of the pupils did not pronounce English words like Dholuo. This implies that the impact of code switching on prosody was minimal.

4.5.3.3 Other Indirect Effects of CS on Language Performance

Beyond lexical, prosodic, phonetic, and syntactic indications, the research aimed to determine additional language-related effects of code flipping on the students. The majority of the students' deficiencies in fluency (86%), wordiness (43%), and speaking problems (43%), as shown by the findings, were a consequence of code switching. The learners' lack of proficiency in the target language may be the reason for their reliance on literal translation or overuse of words when a single word would do. The findings corroborate the claim made by Theo et al. (1984) that code switching is an indicator of innate linguistic inferiority. Pupils code-switch because they don't have enough vocabulary in their second language, making it difficult for

them to communicate successfully in their second language. Hence, it is clear that the students' oral and written communication is influenced by their mother language.

4.5.4 The Strategies Teachers and Pupils Employ to Navigate Code Switching

In this section, the strategies of navigating code-switching such as learning activities, language policies and teaching methods were assessed.

4.5.4.1 Learning Activities

The question sought to establish which language activities the school offered to help pupils navigate through code-switching. The figure shows that giving pupils extra essay writing (86%) followed by extensive reading (71%) and language days (57%). Other strategies cited includes the establishment of debate (29%) and drama (9%). The findings imply that the learning activities gave more weight to oral language competence than written ones.

4.5.4.2 Language policy enforcement

When evaluating the implementation of school language policy, participants were requested to specify the measures taken against students who engage in code switching. The findings indicated that all schools used physical punishment as a disciplinary measure, but 86% of the schools also mandated students to engage in novel reading. Merely 29% of the educators requested their students to compose additional essays, however none of the educational institutions penalized the students who engaged in code-switching.

4.5.4.3 Teaching Methodology

The survey examined the views of participants about whether students engage in code-switching outside of courses due to their exposure to professors who also code-switch. The

findings indicated that 57% of the participants expressed agreement. Nevertheless, 29% expressed disagreement while 14% strongly expressed disagreement. Hence, the majority of the participants concurred that students engaged in code-switching due to the fact that their educators also engaged in code-switching. The results are consistent with a prior investigation done by Then and Ting (2009) that examined the phenomenon of teacher code switching in secondary education for English and science subjects in Malaysia. Although proponents of code switching argue that it is a necessary technique for teachers to enhance understanding among students who have limited proficiency in the instructional language, this study's findings indicate that teacher code-switching had a negative impact on students as they imitated their teachers.

4.4.5 Likert Scale Response

The following statements are meant to elicit information from you about the to find out the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub County Homabay county, Kenya. Pick the most appropriate rating from SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U(undecided), D (disagree) and SD (strongly disagree). The results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Effect of Codeswitching Involving First Language on Teaching and Learning of English

	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean	SD
The School through English language department rarely adopts code switching at school.	31.1 (23)	36.5 (27)	12.2 (9)	18.9 (14)	1.4 (1)	3.77	1.13
The school through English Language department rarely	40.5 (30)	31.1 (23)	12.2 (9)	8.1 (6)	8.1 (6)	3.88	1.26

assess code switching at school.							
The school through English language does not adopt code switching at school	39.2 (29)	40.5 (30)	13.5 (10)	5.4 (4)	1.4 (1)	4.11	0.93
The school through English language department continuously assess switch coding at school	18.9 (14)	27 (20)	14.9 (11)	31.1 (23)	8.1 (6)	3.18	1.29

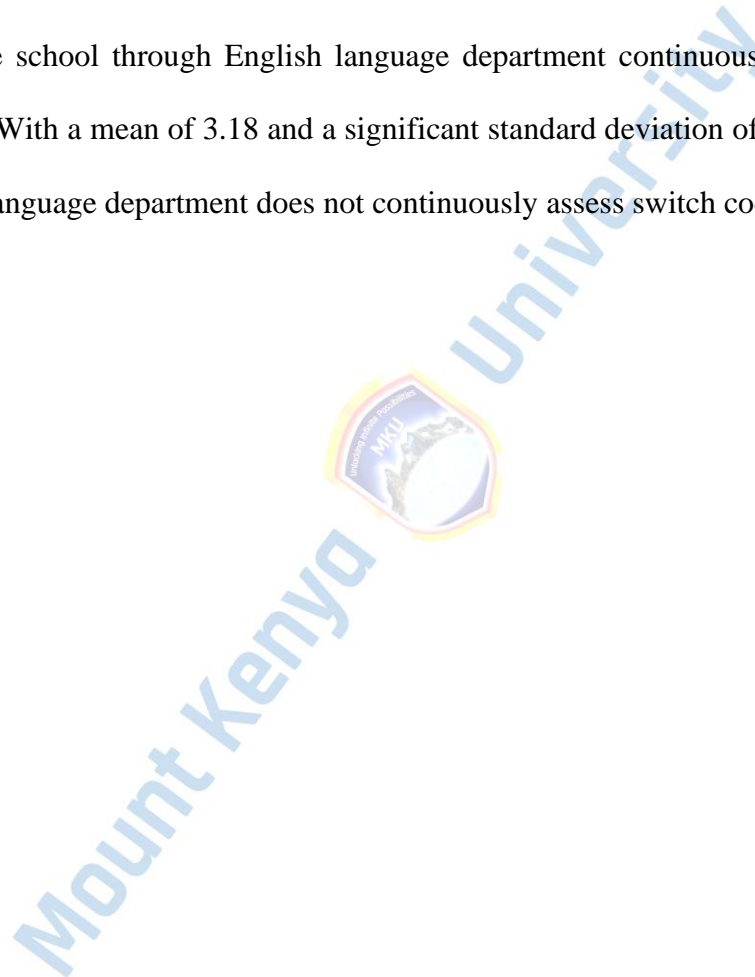
According to the findings of the research, 31.1% of the respondents strongly agreed that the School through English language department rarely adopts code switching at school and another 35.5% agreed on the same statement. Moreover, 12.2% of the respondents were undecided, 18.9% disagreed while 1.4% (1) strongly disagreed that the School through English language department rarely adopts code switching at school. With a mean of 3.77 and an insignificant standard deviation of 1.13, the School through English language department adopts code switching at school.

However, the results revealed that, 40.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that the school through English Language department rarely assess code switching at school while 31.1% agreed on the same. Also, 12.2% of the respondents were undecided on that the school through English Language department rarely assess code switching at school. On the other hand, 8.1% of the respondents disagreed and 8.1% strongly disagreed on the same assertion. With a mean of 3.88 and a significant standard deviation of 1.126, the school through English Language department rarely assess code switching at school.

As illustrated in the table above, of all the individuals who responded to the survey, 39.2% strongly agreed that the school through English language does not adopt code switching at school, 40.5% (30) agreed, 13.5% (10) were undecided, 5.4% disagreed, while 1.4% (1) strongly disagreed that the school through English language does not adopt code switching at

school. This statement had an average score of 4.1 and an insignificant standard deviation of 0.93 showing that the school through English language adopt code switching at school.

Lastly, 18.9% of the respondents strongly agreed and a further 27.0% agreed that the school through English language department continuously assess switch coding at school. Moreover, 14.9% of the respondents were undecided and 31.1% disagreed while another 8.1% strongly disagreed that the school through English language department continuously assess switch coding at school. With a mean of 3.18 and a significant standard deviation of 1.29, the school through English language department does not continuously assess switch coding at school.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of major findings of the study, conclusions, recommendations and the suggested areas for further research.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The study was intended to investigate the influence of the use of first language on teaching and learning of English language in selected public primary schools which finally affect the performance of English in Kanyada Sub-County, Homa-Bay County, Kenya. The summary of Key findings are as follows:

The first objective of the study was to determine the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county, Kenya. Most school have language policy, however, there functionality is indeterminate. Formulation and implementation of school language policy is mainly undertaken by language teachers however, school administration plays key rule during its implementation. Interview results indicated that school have language policies which favor the use of English during formal communication as compared to Swahili. Majority of the respondents affirmed that school language policy creates suitable working environment, create a suitable learning environment for pupils and allow pupils to maintain their linguistic competence. Inferential analysis revealed that there is significant positive relationship between school language policy and teaching and learning of English ($R=0.533$, $P=0.000$). Therefore,

school language policy has positive influence on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County.

The second objective of the study was to establish implementation of the national language policy in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay county, Kenya. The study findings showed that 56% sampled teachers teach all the integrated English skills. To enhance communicative competence practices, the researcher observed that schools mainly implemented listening and comprehension policy at the expense of role play, debates and oral narratives. Majority of teachers ignored areas in the syllabus they did not feel confident enough teaching due to lack of professional development courses. These results indicate that the majority of teachers were of the opinion that the language policy should be restructured. Ministry of education through K.I.C.D rarely assessed national language policy. Teachers rarely remind pupils of the national language policy meaning they are not aware of language national policy.

Inferential analysis revealed that there is significant positive relationship between national language policy and teaching and learning of English ($R=0.664$, $P=0.000$). Therefore, national language policy has positive influence on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County.

The third objectives of the study was to find out the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub County Homabay county, Kenya. Majority of the code-switching cases were intra-sentential as compared inter-sentential. The pattern of code switching was from English to Dholuo/Kiswahili. Code switching was found to have significant impact on the oral and written

discourse of pupils. The results showed that the pupils' performance as a result of code switching manifested mostly in terms of lack of fluency (86%), wordiness (43%) and/or speaking difficulties (43%). Inferential analysis revealed that there is significant positive relationship between codeswitching involving first language and teaching and learning of English ($R=0.605$, $P=0.000$). Therefore, codeswitching involving first language has positive influence on teaching and learning of English in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County.

5.3 Conclusion of the Study

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that:

English teachers are tasked with the formulation and implementation of school language policies in public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay County, Kenya. The school language policy focuses mainly on what languages are to be used while in school. In this case, school language policy creates a suitable learning environment for pupils since it influences the teaching and learning of English in our school.

The national language policy requires English to be taught as an integrated subject so as to achieve communicative competence. The study concluded that listening skills were ignored by the majority of public primary schools in Kanyada Sub-County, Homabay County, since they were not examined by KNEC. The majority of the respondents indicated that there is a need to restructure the national language policy in Kenya to enhance its implementation. On communicative competence, the policy is not being fully implemented as there is a lack of evaluation of both the speaking and listening skills. The study also concluded that the Ministry

of Education, through K.I.C.D moderately assessed language policy, and Ministry of education through KICD do not adopt supervision of language policy implementation in schools.

Lastly, the study found that most switched codes were at the inter-sentential level for boys, while most Dholuo codes were at the intra-sentential level for girls. The main things that affected code switching were how well the student knew the language, where they went to school, and what their social life was like. The study concluded that code switching affected the oral and written discourse of pupils. The school encouraged extensive reading of story books, extra essay writing, and language days, in addition to providing negative assistance through code-switching. The study concluded that the school's English language department rarely adopts code switching at school. However, the school's English Language Department rarely assesses code switching at school.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

The following recommendation emanated from the conclusion of the study:

For School, the study recommended that the school administration should come up flexible and functional school language policy where all teachers are tasked with its implementation. Also, for pupils who do not adhere to the school's language policy, the administration should devise consequences that encourage them to become more competent communicators.

In order to improve students' ability to communicate, the Ministry of Education should establish a policy mandating the implementation of language policies in all secondary schools. An oral exam and a listening test should be developed by the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC) to evaluate students' proficiency in spoken and written English. By increasing

the level of effort put in by both instructors and students, communicative competency may be attained.

The ministry of education should consider upgrading seminars and workshops to continuous Teacher Development Programmes as they go a long way to address the challenges the teachers face during implementation of the national language policy. Further, Ministry of education through K.I.C.D should frequently assess National language policy implementation.

Lastly in regards to code switching, the school through English Language department should frequently assess code switching at school. English department should come up with learning activities strategies to address code-switching. The strategy should not be limited to extra essay writing, extensive reading and language days but also dramas and debate

5.5 Suggestions for the Further Studies

1. Further research should be conducted on how to implement the national language policies on the teaching of English in other counties since these findings were only limited to Kanyada Sub-County, Homa-Bay County hence it cannot provide a conclusive summary of their entire primary school in Education.
2. A comparative study should be conducted between public primary schools and private primary schools so as to compare the outcome.
3. A study to determine the influence of school language policy, national language policy implementation and code-switching on performance of English subject in primary schools



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: CONSENT FORM

I am Hylean Okoth Katie a master student at Mount Kenya University. Am conducting a study on “An Assessment of the Influence of The use of first Language on Teaching and Learning of English in selected Primary Schools in Kanyada Sub-County Homa-Bay County, Kenya”.

I am writing to inform you that the upcoming research that you are going to take part in is going to count toward one of the prerequisites for my master's degree. I would want to enlist your help in conducting this study in an easy and unfettered way, and before I do so, I would like to ask for your consent. The use of code numbers rather than real names will guarantee that secrecy will be maintained, and the information that is obtained will not be disclosed to any other individuals or organizations. Participation in this research project is entirely optional. The initiative in question does not in any way put the participants in danger.

Please sign the declaration below before I include you in this research project. Thank you for your cooperation.

I have been informed of the objectives, and based on that information, I either consent to or decline to take part in this research.

Respondent (coded)

Sign.....

Date.....

Principal investigator

Name: Hylean Okoth Katie

Sign.....

In case of any complains or further clarification, kindly contact the;

The Chairman

Mount Kenya University,

Ethics Review committee (MKU-ERC)

P.O Box 342-0100

THIKA



APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. What is the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Kanyada Sub County, Homabay county?

II. What is the implementation of the national language policy in primary schools in Kanyada Sub County Homabay county?

III. What is the the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Kanyada Sub County, Homabay county

APPENDIX III: QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION ONE: SCHOOL LANGUAGE POLICY

The following statements are meant to elicit information from you about the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Homabay county.

Pick the most appropriate rating from SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U(undecided), D (disagree) and SD (strongly disagree).

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
My school has a language policy in place					
The language policy in this school is not functional					
Language policy influences teaching and learning of English in our school					
Pupils in this school are aware of the existence of language policy					
Language policy is part of the school rules					
Teachers in this school are at the forefront of the implementation of the language policy.					
The teaching and learning of English in this school has been largely improved through the effective language policy					

The school administration is key in the implementation of language					
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SECTION TWO: NATIONAL LANGAUAGE POLICY

The following statements are meant to elicit information from you about the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Homabay county.

Pick the most appropriate rating from SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U(undecided), D (disagree) and SD (strongly disagree).

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
Ministry of education through K.I.C.D rarely assess language policy					
Ministry of education through K.I.C.D rarely adopt language policy implementation in schools					
Ministry of education through KICD do not adopt supervision of language policy implementation in schools					
Ministry of education through KICD assess language policy continuously in schools					
Teacher of this school are always reminding pupils of the national language policy					

Pupils in this school are aware of language national policy					
There is similarity between language policy and National language policy in this school					

SECTION TWO;CODE SWITCHING

The following statements are meant to elicit information from you about the influence of school language policy on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Homabay county.

Pick the most appropriate rating from SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U(undecided), D (disagree) and SD (strongly disagree).

	SA	A	U	D	SD
The School through English language department rarely adopts code switching at school.					
The school through English Language department rarely assess code switching at school.					
The school through English language does not adopt code switching at school					
The school through English language department continuously assess switch coding at school					

I. What is the implementation of the national language policy in primary schools in Homabay county?

II. What is the implementation of the national language policy in primary schools in Kanyada Sub County Homabay county?

III. What is the the effect of codeswitching involving first language on teaching and learning of English in primary schools in Homabay county

APPENDIX IV: WORKPLAN

The following work schedule will guide implementation of this study.

MONTH	ACTIVITY
1. February, 2019	Preparation of proposal
2. March, 2019	Proposal defense
3. April, 2019	Submission of corrected proposal
4. April, 2019	Data collection
5. May, 2019	Data analysis
6. July, 2019	Writing of first draft of thesis
7. August, 2019	Presentation of the first draft.
8. September, 2019	Presentation of the second draft.
9. October, 2019	Submission for examination

APPENDIX V: BUDGET

No.	Activity	Unit cost	Total cost Kshs.
1.	Report proposal; typing and photocopy	7@ 1,000	7,000.00
	Binding	7@ 120	840.00
2.	Data collection		
	Piloting		20,000.00
	Transport and subsistence		60,000.00
	Questionnaires	150@ 50	7,500.00
3.	Data analysis		10,000.00
4.	Report writing:		
	Typing and printing	6@ 1,000	5,000.00
	Building	6@250	1500.00
5.	Miscellaneous		10,000.00
	Grand total		110,840.00

APPENDIX VI: DIRECTORATE OF POST GRADUATE STUDIES



DIRECTORATE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

MENG/2014/69904

23rd November, 2022

*The Director, Research Coordination Division
National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation
Utalii House, 8th & 9th Floor
P.O Box 30623- 00100
NAIROBI*

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: HYLEAN OKOTH KATIE - REGISTRATION NO. MENG/2014/69904

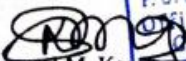
The purpose of this letter is to introduce the above named student who is pursuing **Master of Arts in English and Linguistics** in the department of **Psychology, Languages and Humanities** in the **School of Social Sciences**.

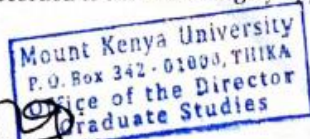
The title of his research is "*Assessment of the Influence of the Use of First Language on Teaching and Learning of English in Selected Primary Schools in Homa Bay County, Kenya.*"

She has been cleared by the University's Ethics Review Committee (Certificate attached) and now has to proceed to the field to collect data for her research between **November, 2022 and February, 2023**.

Any assistance accorded to her will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.



Dr. Samuel M. Karenga, Ph.D
Director, Graduate Studies
Enc.



Main Campus, General Kago Road, P.O. Box 342-01000 Thika.
Tel: 020-2878 000, Call: +254 709 153 000
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APPENDIX VII:ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE



Mount Kenya University

REF: MKU/ERC/2089
TO: HYLEAN OKOTH KATIE

Date: 10 February 2022

REG: MENG/2014/69904

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: ASSESSMENT OF THE INFLUENCE OF THE USE OF FIRST LANGUAGE ON TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ENGLISH IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN HOMA-BAY COUNTY, KENYA

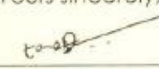
This is to inform you that **Mount Kenya University** has reviewed and approved your above research proposal. Your application approval number is **1162**. The approval period is **10/02/2022 - 09/02/2023**.

This approval is subject to compliance with the following requirements;

- i. Only approved documents including informed consents, study instruments, MTA will be used
- ii. All changes including amendments, deviations and violations are submitted for review and approval by **Mount Kenya University**
- iii. Death and life threatening problems and serious adverse events or unexpected adverse events whether related or unrelated to the study must be reported to **Mount Kenya University** within 72 hours of notification
- iv. Any changes, anticipated or otherwise that may increase the risks or affect the safety or welfare of study participants and others or affect the integrity of the research must be reported to **Mount Kenya University** within 72 hours
- v. Clearance for export of biological specimens must be obtained from relevant institutions
- vi. Submission of a request for renewal of approval at least 60 days prior to expiry of the approval period. Attach a comprehensive progress report to support the renewal
- vii. Submission of an executive summary report within 90 days upon completion of the study to **Mount Kenya University**

Prior to commencing your study, you will be expected to obtain a research license from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) <https://research-portal.nacosti.go.ke> and also obtain other clearances needed.

Yours sincerely,


The Chairman
Mount Kenya University
Ethics Review Committee
P. O. Box 342 - 0100, Thika

Dr. Peter G. Kirira
Chairman, Mount Kenya University IERC

Main Campus, General Kago Road, P.O. Box 342-01000 Thika. Tel: +254 67 2820 000,
Cell: +254 730 700 700, 0700 150 000



