

**CODE-SWITCHING IN THE ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM: A CASE
STUDY OF FOUR RURAL HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN UMBUMBULU,
KWAZULU-NATAL**

BY

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ABSTRACT and KEYWORDS

Due to the multicultural setting of South Africa, eleven languages, which include English, Afrikaans and nine indigenous languages including Xhosa, Zulu, Swati and Ndebele, Southern and Northern Sotho, Tswana, Venda and Tsonga, have been awarded equal status as official languages. Despite the continued support for English as the prestigious language of wealth and success from Black parents, English Second Language (ESL) learners are often found to struggle in developing the expected competency in the language both inside and outside the classroom. The Department of Education expects teachers to be skilled in assisting learners who experience a barrier to learning and understanding English in the ESL classroom. This study argues that teacher's Code Switching (CS) provides solace for learners who struggle to understand what is taught in class. Despite the feeling of justification for CS use in ESL classrooms, teachers feel they are not only breaching the official language policy but, also, what is presented to them as best classroom practice. In this thesis, I attempt to show the necessity and value of CS in such circumstances. Although a large body of research has been done on ESL classroom codeswitching, there is a shortage of such studies in Black rural high schools. This study aimed to explore where, when and how instances of teacher CS occur in four rural high school ESL classrooms, the attitudes teachers have towards it, as well as, their experiences of using it in the classroom. Through utilizing three research instruments, namely, concepts maps, open-ended questionnaires and open-ended audio-recorded telephone interviews, data was collected over a period of six months. Findings in this study indicate that CS is still widely used by ESL teachers and considered successful in clarifying difficult concepts in Literature and Comprehension. Learners were found to enjoy lessons and were actively involved throughout the activities that were performed in class. On the other hand, teachers expressed feelings of resentment towards CS use in ESL classrooms maintaining that it makes learners lazy to independently learn the new vocabulary necessary to develop their competency in English language.

KEYWORDS

Code Switching, English Second Language, Rural High Schools, Teachers of English

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CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF STUDY

1.1 Introduction

It is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the predicament facing English teachers in their teaching of English as Second language. Rural high schools are bound to suffer due to their remoteness from technological advancements and the attention that is awarded schools in the urban areas and in townships. The issue of Code Switching (CS) in an English Second Language classroom is becoming increasingly important due to the body of scholarly research on the topic, as well as the experiences of teachers teaching English Second Language where the learners of English as a second , or additional language, experience difficulties in learning the language and through the language itself. Due to the fact that English is a second language for the majority of rural high school learners, and the fact that they are mostly taught by teachers who are Second Language speakers themselves, they continue to struggle in the classroom, where they often barely understand what is presented to them in the target language. Their real-life and cultural experiences often differ radically from those represented by the second language. Under such circumstances, I argue that teaching of the Second Language (L2) may get assistance from the learners' L1, since learners are already in possession of a language system with its communicative and functional usage. This language system can greatly contribute to their learning of the target language.

This study highlights the significant role that CS plays in accommodating the multicultural context of South Africa by allowing teachers to instantaneously negotiate English as an official language of instruction through code switching between English and home languages to explain difficult or unfamiliar concepts for learners in an ESL classroom (Slabbert & Finlayson, 1999; Nordin, 2013).

This study explores instances of teacher code switching in ESL classrooms in four rural high schools to determine the reasons for these switches and the attitudes that

teachers attach to CS as a strategy of teaching and learning. The study hopes to contribute to the body of knowledge on code switching.

In this thesis, I argued that, although the issue of using English-only in an English Second Language (ESL) classroom has been receiving much attention from scholars in the past years (Auerbach, 1995; Turnbull, 2001) emphasizing the significance thereof, recently, it has been noted that code switching is gaining ground in its role in teaching English as a Second Language. More recent studies indicate that supporters of English-only in the classroom are losing ground as many researchers acknowledge the appropriate use and the positive role that the First Language plays in an ESL classroom (Gulzar, 2014). This thesis attempts to show that, through code switching, learners' understanding of the content taught in the target language is enhanced.

This chapter provides an overview of the current study. The chapter outlines the introduction, rationale, purpose of study, context of study, overview of key studies informing the research, research objectives and questions, overview of the research process, researcher's stance, delimitations, and organisation of the thesis. The chapter also introduces the focus of the dissertation, namely, code switching, that takes place during the teaching of English Second language. The chapter briefly discusses the aim of this study, which was to examine code switching (CS) in the English Second Language classroom as used by teachers during their teaching of English as a subject in their classrooms. It does this by determining what the participants understand CS to be, whether CS is used by the sampled study participants during teaching, when and how these teachers use or have used it, why they use CS in an English classroom, as well as their attitudes towards its use in the classroom.

Past research on the use of CS has highlighted more benefits for academic achievement than failures.

Those that viewed CS use as detrimental to successful learning of learners, such as, Ellis (1984), Wong-Fillmore (1985) and Chaudron (1988), viewed it as a hindrance to the learning process maintaining that it cause learners to over-rely more on the teacher's code-switching, reducing learners' exposure to English, while also hindering

their familiarisation with the second language (L2) subject terminology (Probyn, 2009). More studies indicated the loss of eagerness to learn L2 as well as the ability to guess and infer in new linguistic environments of L2 (Nordin, 2013). CS was seen to have influence on learners' communication skills in L2 (Bhatt, 1997; Martin, 1998; Zhu, 2008), as well as, allowing learners to commit errors while using the language with even realising it (Jingxia, 2010).

Those who favour CS use in teaching ESL acknowledge the positive role that is played by the First Language (L1) in an ESL classroom (Gulzar, 2014).

Functions, such as, classroom management, language analysis, rules-governed grammar, discussion of cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors and checking comprehension have been associated with the use of L1 in ESL teaching (Auer, 1999; Gulzar, 2014). Furthermore, a positive role played by CS in clarifying concepts, explanations of difficult words, checking learner understanding, and reinforcing learners' new vocabulary (Li, 2008; Moodley, 2010; Lin, 2013; Magid & Mugaddam, 2013; Mahofa & Adendorff, 2014; Gulzar, 2014; Madonsela, 2016, as well as, linking learners' existing knowledge in their L1 to the new vocabulary and context in the target language (Tan & Low, 2017) to enhance mutual understanding (Songxaba, Coetzer & Molepo, 2017) has been articulated.

In spite of the positive role that CS is seen to be playing as indicated in the past studies, there seems to be challenges within the South African context when it comes to CS use in the classroom. Although the South African Language-in-Education Policy (1997) signifies use of learners' mother tongue from Grade R-3, while also a vast number of studies have been conducted which support CS use, translanguaging, bilingualism and multilingualism in the educational context, teachers are still found to struggle to embrace the use of learners' mother tongue in instances where this becomes necessary. A study by Probyn testifies that even in circumstances where South African teachers feel justified in using CS in ESL teaching, they become concerned that they may be breaching the official language policy as well as breaching what is presented to them as best practice but the Curriculum specialists (Probyn,

2009). This creates a gap between what ESL theories state and what is practical in the South African classroom.

This study aims to find out what is exactly happening in South African Black schools, especially in the rural areas where mostly lack of resources is often highlighted as an obstacle in learners' academic achievement.

1.2 Rationale

My interest in code switching started while I was doing my Honours degree in Applied Linguistics. I became fascinated with it but I was not sure how it was, or could be, utilised in the classroom. Being a teacher of English Second Language, at the time, I was not sure if I was using it in class or not, or even if what I was doing was code switching or code mixing, or direct translation. Through my experience over the years I have observed cases where teachers would be teaching in English and would then offer certain explanations in isiZulu. I developed an interest in studying these instances, together with the reasons why teachers sometimes code switch. The objectives of this study, therefore, are to determine what code switching entails in the context of the schools under investigation, and to study instances of code switching by teachers during their teaching of English to English L2 speakers in the classroom. The thesis critically examines circumstances under which code switching takes place, by exploring what the teachers understand by CS, the reasons for the utilisation of CS, as well as, the attitudes teachers have towards its usage in the English Language classrooms.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to explore code switching (CS) in the English Second Language classroom as used by teachers during their teaching of English as a subject in their classrooms. The study was conducted with four teachers in four rural high schools. This study intended exploring what code switching entails in the context of the schools under investigation. It sought to find out if teachers in the schools to be

investigated were using code switching and for which reasons. Studies by Probyn (2009) have indicated a shortage of studies of this nature. This study, therefore, has the potential to add to the body of knowledge on code switching.

In a multicultural setting, such as the South African one, learners often find themselves struggling with English as a language of learning, as well as a subject. This is due to various inequities and pedagogic malpractices of the past apartheid system of education, particularly as regards multilingual classrooms. In order to address these imbalances by equalizing all languages in South Africa. Since English is a language that has been associated with wealth and success, most African schools, including rural schools, opt for English as a Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT). In their attempts to teach these learners, teachers often find themselves faced by the predicament of having to get learners to understand the language and the content taught at that particular time. In this study, I argue that it is in such circumstances that teachers often find themselves having to use code switching to teach their learners. Moreover, even where teachers feel they are justified in using CS for classroom interaction, they feel they are breaching not just the official language policy but what is presented to them as best classroom practice by the Curriculum specialists or Department of Basic Education (DBE) (Probyn, 2009).

1.4 Context of Study

1.4.1 Perspectives of Rurality in the South African Context

The term rurality in South Africa does not constitute a uniform structure, but includes various contexts and theorisations (Langa, 2013). Rurality in a South African context may be characterised in three ways. In the first context, it refers to settings that are inadequately populated and where agriculture is the main economic activity as well as source of living (Zama, 2014). In a second South African context, rurality is depicted as those areas consisting of many 'ethnic' lands under the rulership of traditional leaders (Mahlomaholo, 2012). Lastly, rurality has been depicted as an aspect that can

be understood through the exploration of the South African historical settlement on land ownership of rural areas as occurred before and during apartheid, and the policies of insufficiency which were imposed at the time (Hlalele, 2012). These three concepts of rurality define the context of the three rural schools in this study, schools which were historically dispersed through apartheid policies of insufficiency, areas that are inadequately populated, with agriculture being the main source of activity and living, and which are ruled by tribal leaders.

1.4.2 Literacy and Rurality

Even after twenty-five years after the first democratic elections, rural schools in South Africa continue to face challenges with regards to literacy development (Zama, 2014). A previous study indicated the attempt that has been made after the end of apartheid to focus on rural development, rural education, as well as on the attempt at improving people's lives (Nkambule, 2011). In spite of this, the teaching of reading in rural schools was found not to have improved and literacy levels were of great concern (Mather, 2012).

The Department of Education (2008) noted that South Africans at the time were experiencing many challenges in developing literacy, and that most schools lacked good libraries, while many families could not afford books to support literacy development. Although the Department of Basic Education (DBE) is aware of the challenges facing rural schools, most of these schools do not obtain the necessary support. This has a possible negative effect on the linguistic competence of learners.

In his exploration of the findings in the report of the Ministerial Committee on Rural Education, Gardiner (2008) states that rural schools are facing challenges of not being frequently visited by the Department's personnel for evaluation and monitoring of curriculum delivery. Officials were often found to be unprepared to travel long distances on gravel roads (Zama, 2014).

The lack of improvement with regards to reading, the lack of support from DBE, as well as the Department of Education officials' inability to come and evaluate and

monitor curriculum delivery in these schools greatly impacts the teaching and learning in English second language classrooms in rural schools (Zama, 2014).

Despite the situation of poverty that usually prevails in rural schools, it is expected by the Department of Education that teachers make every effort to ensure that rural learners learn and maintain standards of academic performance (Zama, 2014). Teachers are urged to use whatever available resources they have to teach in these schools. According to Porteus and Nadubere (2006), teachers are expected to exert more determination into their work even without resources.

There are teachers who strive to improve education in rural schools in spite of the existing rural challenges and conditions (Salojee, 2009). These teachers adopt an engaged pedagogy in rural teaching. Engaged pedagogy involves the recognition of the significance of “making real world connections between the subject material taught and the learners’ experiences by engaging learners to develop their reflexive and critical thinking skills” (Naidu, 2014, p. 1). Knowledge informs and enriches both teachers’ and learners’ lives because it is meaningful. These teachers cultivate this form of pedagogy through constant consideration, and by engaging in practices within the formal teaching time, during lunch breaks, and beyond the formal teaching time (Salojee, 2009). A previous study by Emerging Voices (2005) found that there are well-qualified teachers who work hard and co-operatively to provide high-quality education, and voluntary extra lessons for struggling learners. These teachers have been constantly incorporating excellent adaptations when teaching in South African rural schools.

1.4.3 The South African Constitution and Languages

In 1996 the South African Constitution recognized the historically diminished use and status of indigenous languages. While language during apartheid South Africa was utilized as an instrument of division and separation of people into Bantustans, the Constitution of South Africa (1996) embraced unity and language freedom by stating that “all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably” (South African Constitution, 1996, p. 4). A post-apartheid South Africa is now

characterized by eleven official languages which include English, Afrikaans, as well as, nine indigenous languages, which include, Xhosa, Zulu, Swati and Ndebele (the Nguni languages), Southern Sotho, Northern Sotho and Tswana (the Sotho languages), and Venda and Tsonga. As different communities come into existence, so does the need for interlingual intensity between them. As a result, people began to embrace code switching so as to express themselves as individuals and groups, thus breaking down and transcending the institutionalized ethnic barriers of apartheid (Slabbert & Finlayson, 1999). In the absence of a single dominant lingua franca, all eleven official languages of South Africa may be involved in the practice of CS in different places and social contexts. The range of languages involved in CS itself mostly depends on a number of factors, such as the geographical area which is determinant of the languages that are dominant, the patterns of urbanisation, and the historical migrant labour laws (Slabbert & Finlayson, 1999).

During the Apartheid era schools were racially separated. However, democracy, which came into effect in 1994, brought about an integrated or 'mixed' schooling system. The linguistic and cultural composition of these schools has been drastically changed. The Language in Education Policy (LiEP, 1997) recognizes this change and is formulated in line with the inclusivity and equity clauses in the South African Constitution. It stipulates that the LoLT decided on by the school governing body (SGB), together with the community, should be one of the eleven official languages, and that the decision regarding the LoLT, where “reasonably practicable” be based on certain criteria related to numbers of learners in a class, or proportions of the total learner body sharing the same home language. The school and teachers are bound by the decision on the school’s language policy, “which is limited by the demands of the community”. However, of particular relevance to this study, the LiEP stipulates that the SGB “is also required, in terms of the norms and standards, to promote multilingualism in the school” by means of:

... the adoption of more than one language as the medium of instruction, through teaching different languages as the first additional language and the second additional language, through language immersion programmes, or through any other means approved by the head of the provincial education department. (LiEP, 1997 as cited in Stein, 2017, pp. 208 - 210).

However, the reality is that parents, who elect the SGB, overwhelmingly want their children to be taught in English. In such schools where “the community” votes for English as the LoLT of the school, English would be used as a language of teaching and learning. Research on this situation shows the power that has been- and continues to be - associated with English, where most South African parents, whatever their home language, have the perception that their children’s success accessing higher education and the job market, and in their society and internationally greatly depends on their proficiency in English (Mawasha, 1995). Since English is associated with wealth and social status in the sense that it is perceived to provide entry to middle class jobs and status, English has been perceived as the high-status language, while the other languages have been and are viewed as low status languages (Kamwangamalu, 1998).

CS has found its way into those South African classrooms where, more often than not, and due to the school’s language policy, second language interaction becomes a barrier to effective teaching and learning across the curriculum. According to Adendorff (1996), Probyn (2001, 2009), code switching is presently not generally accepted as a legitimate classroom strategy by Curriculum specialists, nor has it been sanctioned in teacher training. Teachers, therefore, often refer to their surreptitious use of CS in their English lessons as smuggling the vernacular into the classroom. Many academic commentators, after observing and analysing classroom CS, have concluded that, far from being dysfunctional, as many policy makers maintain it to be, it is in fact a pedagogically useful communicative resource (Ferguson, 2009).

Large volumes of research have been conducted on teacher code switching in the classroom, both globally and in South Africa. Although studies have been conducted on CS in rural schools, these are few. This study adds to the existing body of knowledge on the use of CS in rural high schools.

1.5 Overview of key studies dealing with the topic

In spite of the various definitions of code switching provided in the literature, this thesis will use the definition of Code switching (CS) as a context in which a shift takes place

between two or more different languages and this process may incorporate an insertion of a word, phrase(s) and clause(s) within the same conversation to find better ways of conveying meaning (Rodman & Fromkin, 1998, Myers-Scotton, 2006; Itmeizeh et al., 2017). Throughout this thesis, the abbreviation CS will be used to refer to code switching. The following terms will also be used throughout this thesis: First Language (L1), English Second Language (ESL/L2) and English Foreign Language (EFL). The abbreviation ED1, ED2, ED3 and ED4 will be used to refer to the four respondents in this study.

This study draws and builds on various other research studies. However, the following studies have been identified and examined as the key studies that shaped this study.

The issue of using English-only in an English Second Language (ESL) classroom has received much attention from scholars in the past years (Auerbach, 1995; Turnbull, 2001). However, there are those who feel that the First Language (L1) plays a critical role in the learning of the target language (Levine, 2003). While most studies highlight the critical success factors for the use of CS in an ESL, other studies continue to indicate negative attitudes towards the utilisation of CS in an ESL classroom.

Early studies, such as those conducted by Ellis (1984), Wong-Fillmore (1985) and Chaudron (1988), viewed CS as detrimental to successful learning as they argued that it may hinder the learning process and would therefore cause learners to depend more, or acquire an over-dependence, on the teacher's code-switching. Additionally, teachers become concerned with reducing learners' exposure to English, as well as with hindering learners' familiarisation with the second language (L2) subject terminology (Probyn, 2009). Furthermore, teachers in these studies felt that their learners might lose their eagerness to learn the second language and the ability to guess and infer in new linguistic environments of the second language (Nordin, 2013). It is, moreover indicated, particularly in earlier studies that CS use might have an influence on the way learners communicate in the second language (Bhatt, 1997; Martin, 1998; Zhu, 2008). Accordingly, learners may commit to language use without the realisation that they have committed errors (Jingxia, 2010). Moreover, even where teachers feel they are justified in using CS for classroom interaction, they feel they are

breaching not just the official language policy but what is presented to them as best classroom practice by the Curriculum specialists (Probyn, 2009).

A recent study, however, indicates that supporters of English-only in the classroom are losing ground as many researchers acknowledge the appropriate use and the positive role that is played by the First Language in an ESL classroom (Gulzar, 2014). Research has not only acknowledged the positive role played by the mother tongue in an ESL classroom but has also highlighted a few more functions, such as, classroom management, language analysis, rules-governed grammar, discussion of cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors and checking comprehension (Auer, 1999; Gulzar, 2014). Studies have confirmed the role that CS plays in clarifying concepts, explanations of difficult words, checking learner understanding, and reinforcing learners' new vocabulary (Li, 2008; Moodley, 2010; Lin, 2013; Magid & Mugaddam, 2013; Mahofa & Adendorff, 2014; Gulzar, 2014; Madonsela, 2016). More recent studies also refer to CS as a useful tool when teachers attempt to link learners' existing knowledge in their L1 to the new vocabulary and context in the target language (Tan & Low, 2017) to enhance mutual understanding (Songxaba, Coetzer & Molepo, 2017).

While these studies are explored in detail in the Literature Review, the studies are mentioned at this point to contextualise the research related to the topic of this thesis.

1.6 Research objectives and questions

The main focus of this study to explore code switching in the context of ESL teaching in rural high schools. Four teachers in four rural high schools were selected for this purpose.

The objectives of this study are:

1. To understand where, when and how code switching is used by teachers of English as a subject in four rural high school classrooms in South Africa.

2. To explore the various reasons for teachers' utilisation of code switching the teaching of English L2 in four rural high school classrooms.
3. To understand the attitudes that teachers of English as a subject have towards the use of code switching in four rural high school classrooms.
4. To explore the teachers' experiences of using code switching in their teaching of English in four rural high school English classrooms.

The thesis seeks to address the following questions:

- a) Where, when and how is code switching used by teachers of English as a subject in four rural high school English classrooms?
- b) Why is code switching used by teachers of English in four rural high school English classrooms?
- c) What are the attitudes of teachers of English towards code switching in four rural high school English classrooms?
- d) What are the experiences of teachers' use of code switching in four rural high school English classrooms?

1.7 Overview of the Research Process

The study is guided by the interpretivist paradigm which advocates knowledge as a social construct. The study employed a qualitative case study design to conduct detailed, in-depth data collection which would involve multiple sources of information rich in context. For purposes of this study, purposive sampling was selected. The sample of respondents in this study were selected because of their relevant knowledge, interest and experience in the case. All standard ethical procedures were followed, with particular sensitivity to issues of confidentiality and anonymity regarding the participants in this study. Ethical clearance was obtained through the University of KwaZulu-Natal Research Ethics committee. The data collection strategies included a visual methodology, namely concept mapping, open-ended questionnaires and open-ended interviews. A thorough description of the design, methodology as well as the processes involved in the study is detailed in Chapter 4.

1.8 Researcher's stance

My stance on CS use in an ESL classroom is that I sometimes used it while I was still teaching English at high school for twenty-five years. From my experience as a teacher and a trained language specialist up to Masters level at University, I never had a struggle with using English when I taught my learners. My colleagues and I would be concerned about teachers who used a lot of learners' L1 to explain content through most of the lesson. However, when some of my learners failed to understand certain concepts presented in English, and I had to make real-life examples when teaching literature, I would use CS for clarification and explanations. I usually chose to use English only as a language of teaching and learning, but in occasional instances, a few of my learners would get stuck when I tried to explain certain concepts in English. I could see in the faces that they would never understand unless I resorted to their L1. I used it rarely, and would do it for the relatively few learners who were left behind due to their limited English language competence. I would argue that judicious use of CS is useful for those who struggle because, through CS, I considered that they can end up understanding what is taught in class. My occasional use of CS resulted in my classes producing good results.

When I used it, I experienced a sense of satisfaction because I could see the relief in my learners' faces once they understood what they were obviously not able to understand in the target language. For me, CS is fine as long as it does not constitute most of the teaching time, or is the primary teaching strategy used, and also, as long as it assists in learners understanding concepts in preparation for examinations. What I have experienced is that learners always find relief when they understand what is taught in class. CS provides that. From my point of view and experience, CS use does not imply language deficiency from the side of the teacher.

1.9 De-limitations

Although this study aimed to explore instances of teacher code switching and the reasons why it was being used in the four ESL classrooms, it however, did not aim to explore:

- Teachers' use of code switching in all South African rural high schools (due to the duration of study).
- Teachers' current knowledge and experience in implementing the LiEP in their teaching because the research incorporated a case study of only four teachers' experiences with CS.
- Generalisation of the findings of the study, as the study was limited to only four rural high schools.
- Teachers' code switching practices and how they fit into, or align with, the LiEP.

1.10 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis has been divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 provides an overview of this study. In this chapter, the research topic, purpose of study, and the need for the study were discussed in detail. The research design, sample size, the research instrument, site of study and delimitations were briefly described and discussed, and are dealt with in more detail in Chapter 4. Chapter 2 begins by laying out the theoretical dimensions of the research. Chapter 3 provides a synthesis and evaluation of the literature informing this study. In this chapter, the background to code switching, and reasons why teachers code switch when teaching, are discussed in detail. Chapter 4 discusses the methodology utilised in this study. In this chapter, the research design, sampling, ethics, data collection strategies and methods of data analysis are discussed in detail. Chapter 5 then discusses the findings from the data as obtained from the concept maps, open-ended questionnaire, as well as open-ended telephone interviews. Chapter 6 is the final chapter that provides a summary, implications drawn from the research findings and makes recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the theoretical framework that guides the research. In the process it determines the particular concepts the researcher intends exploring, how these concepts are interrelated, and the kinds of relationships the study focuses on in answering the research question. The chapter begins by outlining and discussing the structural and sociolinguistic approaches to code switching. A discussion of the relationship between literacy and rurality follows, given that the study is conducted in rural high schools. The terms 'Code', 'Bilingualism', 'Translanguaging', 'Code mixing', 'borrowing', and 'Code Switching' are defined and explained. The chapter ends with a discussion of Gumperz's Semantic Model of Conversational Code Switching (1982) and Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model of Code Switching (1993), and their specific contributions to the current study and its analysis of the findings.

2.2 The structural and sociolinguistic approaches to code switching

The structural approach to code switching (CS) focuses mainly on the grammatical aspects of CS (Boztepe, 2003), and thus represents an attempt to categorise syntactic and morphosyntactic limitations on CS. On the other hand, the sociolinguistic approach has as its focus questions on the creation of social meaning, as well as the explicit discourse purposes the approach serves (Boztepe, 2003). The two approaches can be said to complement each other as the structural approach attempts to identify the structural features of morphosyntactic patterns underlying the grammar of CS, while the sociolinguistic approach builds on this in its attempt to explain why bilinguals speak the way they do, in other words, attempting to supply specific, evidenced and social reasons for this (Boztepe, 2003). The relevance to the current study of these phenomena and approaches is based on the sense that the current study explores the ways in which social meaning, through code switching between English (L2) and IsiZulu (L1), is created, as well as the discourse functions it serves.

2.3 The code in Code Switching

According to Myers-Scotton (1993), when people communicate, they sometimes, in the course of an exchange or utterance, want to communicate exclusively with individuals only known to them or known only to a community to which they belong, and they wish to exclude anybody else who may try to interfere or change the power dynamic of a social situation. In doing so, they may choose to use a language with which the other party may not be familiar. This means they select a code, meaning that the language they will use in this social situation will be a secret or unfamiliar to the other party that does not belong to the group. This means the members of the chosen group switch from the known language (or register) to the unknown, or known only to them, or vice versa, thus communicating in more than one language in a single conversation or utterance. This action is referred to as code switching, a term central in this study.

When individuals communicate, they often choose a code that will specifically express how they feel, or expresses their own opinion. In this context, Stockfell (as cited in Fitria, 2014) defines a code as something that symbolises 'nationality' and which is utilised by individuals to communicate using a particular language or dialect, register or style for various occasions and purposes. This means that these individuals use a particular code as a unifying agent, a strategy that unites them and creates a common understanding amongst themselves, and they use this code to suit particular occasions and purposes. For instance, when discussing work or school at home, they may use a technical/formal language that relates to the field of work or profession, or school instead of using language which is used in daily communication in the home context (Fitria, 2014, p. 3).

Similarly, Wardhaugh (2006, p.101) defines a 'Code' as a system used by two or more parties to communicate on any social occasion. According to Wardhaugh (2006), when two people communicate with each other, the system of communication they use is termed a 'code'. Since individuals can select the code they wish to utilise when communicating with each other, they can also choose to switch or mix codes to their liking or to suit their purpose. In doing this, they create a new code by either selecting

a specific code to interact, or switch from one code to another or even mix these within short utterances, thus creating a new code (Wardhaugh, 2006, p.100).

2.4 Defining Bilingualism, Translanguaging, Code mixing, Borrowing and Code Switching

2.4.1 Bilingualism

According to Wardhaugh (2006, p. 101), when individuals are able to use two or more languages to communicate with each other, they can be said to be bilingual. There are three ways in which individuals can become bilingual, namely, through membership of a particular group, education, and administration (Hoffman, 1991, p. 3). Bilingualism through membership is demonstrated when an individual uses the language or code to signal her or his membership of a particular group of people, while bilingualism through education and administration occurs when the language is used during discussions regarding and specific to technologies, business or academics (Hoffman, 1991). Even when bilingual communities have at their disposal the use of more than one language through which to express themselves, they face several challenges which often hinder or prevent clear or successful communication amongst themselves. For instance, in a study conducted on bilingual community education in 'ethnolinguistic communities' in New York, challenges arising from all efforts made to accommodate these bilingual communities were found to be in the form of inadequate or inappropriate teaching material provided to schools, unqualified teachers, poor training, and limited opportunities for professional development of teachers (Garcia, Zakharia & Otcu, 2013, p. 40). The main reason for the project's lack of success was the foreign nature of context in the learners' books, contexts which were unfamiliar and remote from their everyday lived experience. The authors found that it was challenging for teachers to use these books while helping learners to understand the content (Garcia et al., 2013). Their study further indicates that many teachers are unfamiliar with, or untrained in, bilingualism in education, or insufficiently aware of the role that home language plays in developing bilingualism, or of the potential of translanguaging in the classrooms, or about scaffolded instruction, or providing multiple entry points to the lesson for individual learners (Garcia et al., 2013, p. 40). These findings, and findings of similar studies, suggest that some teachers have not

yet been trained in ways of using learners' home language to achieve successful bilingual communicative results. The study done by Garcia et al. (2013) found little attempt on the part of the teachers in the study to recognise the language resources of those who speak various languages at home.

2.4.2 Translanguaging

Once bilingual individuals have selected the code or linguistic means to use when communicating with their counterparts in particular social/communicative situations, they can also select various language features from a range of languages described as autonomous languages (Garcia, 2009, p. 141), and organise their language practices in ways that fit their communicative situations. These bilinguals no longer work as distinct monolinguals but now occupy a linguistic third space with one linguistic repertoire comprising all the languages they speak (Cummins, 2010; Flores & Garcia, 2013; Guzula, Tyler & McKinney, 2016). The space these bilinguals occupy is termed a translanguaging space (Wei, 2018).

Garcia et al. (2013), see bilinguals as having the ability to incorporate different codes relevant "to the particular communicative situation in a seamless and complex network of multiple semiotic signs in their attempt to adapt their languaging to accommodate their immediate task or social context" (Garcia & Kano, 2013, p. 261). Translanguaging thus emerges as a unique and organised communicative mechanism, that is able to satisfy local contextual constraints, while also creating interdependence among all components of the system (Kloss & Van Orden, 2009). According to Garcia and Kano (2013), in translanguaging, teachers and learners engage in complex discursive practices using all the language resources and practices of learners with the aim of developing new language practices while also sustaining old ones in the process. In this way they communicate suitable knowledge, appropriate to their level of understanding and life experiences and give voice to new socio-political realities by questioning linguistic inequality (Garcia & Kano, 2013, p. 261). In a South African context this represents an attempt to award indigenous languages unrecognised during the apartheid era the same status as the two official languages – English and Afrikaans - enjoyed during apartheid. Baker (2011, p. 288) posits that translanguaging involves meaning making and shaping experiences, as well as gaining understanding

and knowledge through the utilisation of various languages. In a classroom situation translanguaging draws on all the linguistic resources of the learner/learners in an attempt to maximize communication, understanding, and achievement (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012). In translanguaging, languages are dynamically and functionally integrated to organise and mediate processes in understanding, speaking, listening and learning (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 655).

2.4.3 Code mixing

The early studies provided various definitions of code switching. For instance, according to Gumperz (1982), code mixing referred to a more general form of language contact than the formal context that may incorporate cases of code switching and the other forms of contact that emphasise the lexical items (Gumperz, 1982). Later on Wardhaugh (1986, p. 103) noted that code mixing goes further than incorporating lexical items and allows speakers to change from one language to the other in the course of a single utterance without changing the topic, but also involving various levels of language that include morphology on top of lexical items. Morphology involves a “mental system involved in word formation or study of the internal structure of words and how they are formed or modified” (Aronoff & Fudeman, 2011, pp.1-2).

Agreeing with Wardhaugh, Muysken (2000, p. 109) indicated that code mixing involved individual cases of lexical item and grammatical features from two languages appearing in a single sentence. A decade later, Ncoko et al. (2010) noted that code mixing can move from morphology and lexical items to a mixture of suffixes, phrases, and clauses from two or more languages within the same utterance. In this context, different switches are incorporated in the same discourse. More recently, code mixing has been perceived as intra-sentential mixing which occurs within a single sentence, at word, phrase or clause level (Songxaba, Coetzer & Molepo (2017, p. 1). Geetha (2010) notes that the theoretical differences between code mixing and code switching are that, in relation to language and social groups, code mixing occurs amongst bilingual or multilingual societies or groups, and involves utilising two or more languages with two or more cultures; code switching, while it also constitutes the use of two or more languages in a single utterance, also includes shared beliefs, customs, traditions, and social norms of the particular community.

2.4.4 Borrowing

Borrowing, also known as lexical borrowing, involves the introduction of single words or short frozen idiomatic phrases from one variety to another (Bokama, 1988). These words and phrases are merged into the borrowing language's lexical system (Bokama, 1988). Borrowing has been traditionally defined as an interaction of the grammar and lexicon of language A with the lexicon (and not the grammar) of language B (Treffers-Daller, 1994, p.259). Muysken's 1995 view on borrowing, on the other hand, was that it is an interaction where only the lexical elements of one language are integrated into the lexicon of another (Muysken, as cited in Southwood & Van Dulm, 2015). The reason for this is because, when the speaker uses the word for the first time, it is termed code switching, but when it begins to be used frequently later on instead of the original word in the native language, it then becomes a borrowed word. So, this word will enter the lexicon of the recipient's language as a new word. Examples of these are words such as 'lemon' – an Arabic word – that is so frequently used in English as if it originated from it. The second example is 'anonymous' – Greek origin. These may also be termed loan words.

2.4.5 Code switching

In general, taking into consideration the various definitions offered at various times, code switching has been defined as an alternate use of two or more languages or varieties of language in sentences or conversations. Gumperz (1982) noted 37 years ago that code switching is defined as "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (p. 59). This means speakers make use of the grammatical systems and subsystems of two different languages to make associations and comparisons in their interactions. Other studies during the 1980s perceived code switching as a shift "between two or more languages simultaneously or interchangeably within one conversation" Grosjean (1982, p. 145). Later Myers-Scotton (1993) defined CS as a context where two or more languages within the same conversation are used, normally within the same conversational turn, as well as, "the insertion of a word or phrase of a language other than that being spoken into a single sentence, or the movement back and forth between two languages or dialects" (Rodman & Fromkin, 1998, p. 522).

Adding to this 1998 definition, and earlier definitions, both Rodman and Fromkin, (1998) and Myers-Scotton (2006) perceive code switching as the use of more than one language or dialect or two languages in the same conversation. Myers-Scotton (1993; 2006) and Cook (2000) agreed with Grosjean (1982), Cook (2000) adding that code switching involves “going from one language to the other in mid speech when both speakers know the same two languages” (Cook, 2000, p.83). All these definitions place emphasis on the shift to another language as occurring within the same speech event or conversation.

Arifin (2011, p. 220) sees three contextual factors as contributing to code switching taking place: the relationship amongst the speakers, the setting where the talk or communication takes place, and the topic being discussed. According to Wang and Liu (2013), code switching involves an exchange of two sets of linguistic units in a non-ambiguous, flexible and contextually-free manner (Wang & Liu, 2013) in bilingual societies where individuals have the prospect of using two or more languages to converse (Itmeizeh, Ibnian & Sha'fout, 2017). What is interesting in this kind of context is that bilinguals no longer perceive their L1 as a deficiency, but, through code switching, are able to switch codes using their languages as resources to find better ways to convey meaning. In this regard, code switching is used by bi- or multilinguals to serve certain pragmatic functions in certain social situations, such as forming and consolidating solidarity, establishing social status, when quoting someone or a proverb in one of the languages, adding emphasis, exerting authority, or expressing feelings (Auer, 1999; Holmes, 2001). When CS occurs, the contrast between one code and the other is meaningful and interpretive only to the speakers involved in the conversation (Auer, 1999).

The use of more than one language in a conversation has been defined by various linguists as either "language mixing (Plfaff, 1979), "code meshing" (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2008), "translanguaging (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Guzula & McKinney, 2017), "fused lect" (Auer, 1999) and "code mixing" (Ncoko et al., 2010).

Although these terms all possess an element of an act of mixing or fusing codes, the current study prefers and embraces the definition of CS as a practice of using more than one language in an ESL classroom during any interaction between teachers and

learners. This is in line with the topic of research of this study because it specifically focuses on code switching as used by teachers in classrooms using ESL (target language/LoLT) and isiZulu as a First Language or mother tongue when they are teaching English (L2) or content subjects using English as the preferred LoLT in their classrooms. To be more specific, this study, from amongst the many studies on, and definitions of, CS draws on Rodman and Fromkin (1998), Myers-Scotton (2006) and Itmeizeh et al. (2017) to define code switching as a social and/or communicative context which involves a language shift between two or more different languages, incorporating the insertion of a word, phrase(s) and clause(s) within the same conversation to find better, richer and more equitable and inclusive ways of conveying meaning.

A close study of the use of code switching in a classroom situation is central to this study because teachers in many parts of the world where there are multilingual communities and/or classrooms have been found to be using code switching in various forms as a teaching strategy. For instance, bi- and multilingual researchers, such as Ferguson (2006, 2009) and Lin (2013) have highlighted different taxonomies of classroom code switching functions based on Halliday's (1978) theory of socio-semiotics. Halliday's theory postulates that the choice of language is driven by ideational, interpersonal and textual functions of linguistic communication within specific social systems (Halliday, as cited in Tan & Low, 2017, p. 106). Ideational theory of meaning refers to "the theory according to which meanings of words are individual or subjective ideas, while textual function has to do with written words (Chitsaz & Hodjati, 2012, p. 450). The ideational and textual function relates to the use of CS by teachers in order for them to utilise learners' existing knowledge in their first language (Tan & Low, 2017). Learners' existing real-life experiences have been found to greatly assist in the learning of new vocabulary and concepts in the content subject lesson (Lin, 2013). Textual meaning relates to how meanings are generated within the socio-semiotic system. The two functions assist in explaining the reason behind the use of the learners' First Language to learn English. Interpersonal function defines the use of CS to explain the relationship between the speakers.

In his study Ferguson (2009) identified three categories of classroom CS functions, namely, knowledge construction, classroom management, and interpersonal relations. Halliday (1978) saw the function of knowledge construction and transmission as relating to ideational and textual functions in the socio semiotic model. In simpler terms, knowledge construction refers to how learners create ideas or new understandings while carefully considering their value, which then enables them to think critically and creatively. When code switching in the ESL classroom, teachers are able to transmit the new information to learners in a more effective manner, and in the end produce better ESL learning outcomes (Tan & Lou, 2017, p.107). Brophy (2006) defines classroom management as actions taken in creating and maintaining a learning environment that will be conducive to successful instruction. In this scenario, CS serves as a communication tool between teachers and learners that enables the “arrangement of the physical environment of the classroom, establishment of the rules and procedures, as well as maintaining the learners’ attention to lessons and encouraging engagement in activities” (p. 17). ‘Interpersonal relations’ refers to the social relationship that exists between a teacher and the learner(s) (Opic, 2016). Through the use of CS when teaching, teachers have been found to be able to create positive interpersonal relationships with learners. This enables a more thorough understanding of the content taught in class. A good quality interpersonal relationship between teachers and learners enables learners to be creative and successful in their academics (Klarin, Lukić & Ušljemberka, 2003 in Opic, 2016).

2.5 Gumperz’s Semantic Model of Conversational Code Switching

The current study is grounded in the original Gumperz (1982) semantic model of conversational code switching. The model emphasises the right of speakers to use more than one code or language in the course of, or within, a single speech event (Gumperz, 1982, p. 304). As has been described, according to the model, the code switching that takes place may constitute single words or larger portions of language. Gumperz (1982) proposes that his semantic model incorporates the “multiple relations between linguistic means and social meaning” (Gumperz, as cited in Onyango, 2009, p.153). This means that speakers are awarded an opportunity to use language to

create different relationships, associations or identities using linguistic means, and thus create shared meaning amongst the speakers involved in the communicative act. In other words, through language, speakers change a context with no shared meaning (marked) to a specific context (shared), thus making it unmarked. Through the use of a semantic model, speakers are able to account for why they often switch languages in a specific context. The semantic model is central to this study as it calls for participants to supply reasons for the particular switch that they make from one language to another during a classroom interaction. In addition, the importance for this study is the emphasis of the semantic model on the use of more than one code in a conversation. In the speakers' use of CS, single words or large portions of language may be used. In a classroom situation, speakers who involve teachers and learners in communicating often create different relationships or identities using linguistic means as they interact during teaching and learning. The semantic model accounts for the reasons why speakers often switch languages in particular contexts, and this study explores the reasons why teachers code switch while teaching using English as a subject, and using English as the LoLT in the ESL classroom.

Gumperz's 1982 semantic model, even though proposed more than three decades ago, remains a useful tool in explaining code switching in foreign and second language classes, as has been done in classes using Chinese (Zheng, as cited in Then & Tin, 2011) and German (Seidlitz, as cited in Then & Tin, 2011) and in science classes (Then & Ting, 2009).

Gumperz's 1982 semantic model also conceptualises the functions of code switching as situational and metaphorical. According to Bloom and Gumperz (1986), code switching that encompasses an alteration in the social situation is labelled *situational* code-switching, while code-switching which does not accommodate a change in setting, topic or participants is known as *metaphorical* code switching. A good example of situational code switching is provided by Blom and Gumperz (1986) in their study conducted in Norway, where teachers at the time were conducting formal lectures in Brokmal but were then shifting to Ranamal in order to inspire open and free discussion among their students. This shift in language is redefining the situation. Onyango (2009) clearly provides a good example of metaphorical CS. For Onyango (2009), code switching is a form of discourse strategy used by speakers when they

decide not to speak that way because of social identities or situational factors; instead they usually exploit linguistic choices to express the meaning they intend conveying to each other. In this way, they are able to manipulate language to suit their intentions instead of favouring the situation at hand. For example, Blom and Gumperz (1986) in their study in Norway observed residents conducting business transactions with the clerk using the standard language, but when discussing family matters involving the same clerk, they used dialect because it introduced a more personal and local relationship (Blom & Gumperz, as cited in Then & Ting, 2011). In this kind of social/communicative context, the relative social status of the speakers changes according to their language use: using the standard language for a clerk and customer relationship and using dialect for close relationships.

Furthermore, in metaphorical code switching, CS has been found to be used for the following functions: *“quotation, addressee specification, interjections, reiterations, message qualification, and personalisation vs. objectivisation”* (Then & Tin, 2011, p.304). Firstly, a quotation refers to a direct or reported speech act. In this case, a speaker may insert a word, or words, or phrase from his/her first language into his/her English discourse. Secondly, an addressee specification refers to a speaker’s address to several speakers. This is relevant to the classroom situation, where a teacher may be addressing the whole class. Thirdly, such insertions or interjections occur when a brief conversation in English occurs. Gumperz (1982, p.77) demonstrates this kind of scenario in the following conversation where the two speakers, whose mother tongue is Spanish, are saying goodbye to each other:

A: Well, I’m glad I met you.

B: Andale pues (O.K. swell). And do come again. Mm?

(Gumperz, 1982, p.77)

Fourthly, in metaphorical code switching, reiteration refers to the repetition of “a message from one code to another code, either literally or in somewhat modified form” (Then & Ting, 2011, p.304). An example of this kind of CS is shown in Gumperz (1982, p.78) when a father repeats his statement to the son in Hindi as he walks through a train compartment:

‘Keep straight. Sidha jao [louder] (keep straight)’.

Gumperz highlights a few examples of cases where CS was used by teachers while they were teaching their learners in class. In one study, where the teachers and learners were German-English bilinguals, teachers were found to code switch for reiteration in their attempt to address their learners' difficulties in understanding the lesson, and to focus their attention on matters outside the subject matter which encompassed signalling the desire to speak German rather than English and, also directing learners' attention to a particular instruction. This current study intends investigating whether a similar case, or cases, can be found amongst IsiZulu-English bilinguals. In a study by Ruan (as cited in Then & Tin, 2011), which involved Chinese/English bilingual learners in a Chinese language programme in the US, the teacher was found to reiterate particular words (*hua yuan*: a garden) to establish the relationship between the English lexis and the Mandarin Chinese lexis in '*hua yuan jiu shi you hen duo hua, shi garden*' (A garden has lots of flowers, is a garden).

In Ruan's study (as cited in Then & Tin, 2011), the repetition was explained as a metalinguistic device for the learners and their teacher to expand and monitor the teaching and learning taking place. Metalinguistic skills involve the awareness and control of linguistic components of language. Simply put, this set of skills implies the ability to think and discuss language. These skills require an awareness of others as listeners and an ability to recognise significant details that indicate changes in speech. For example, you do not usually speak to a teacher in the same way you would to a friend. In addition, you do not typically speak in a restaurant in the same way you would speak in a museum. Noticing, or being aware of, what kind of speech is appropriate in various environments with various speakers is also reflective of metalinguistic skill.

A study conducted by Then and Ting (2009) in Malaysian secondary schools found that reiteration co-occurred with message qualification to assist teacher explanations of referential content. While reiteration has been seen to be serving a variety of functions in the classroom, translation has often been used to assist comprehension (Then & Ting, 2009). Translation has been perceived to turn an expression from the source language to another language with lexical, syntactic and cultural accuracy preserved to maintain the translation as close as possible to the source utterance (Then & Tin, 2011). The translation from the target language into the L1 of the learners

retains the meaning, form, register and style of the source sentence. As Then and Ting (2011) used Gumperz's (1982) semantic model of conversational code switching in their study, the translation was coded as reiteration. For the reiterative function the analysis considers the form of the language change or repetition in terms of whether the original form is retained (translation) or modified (reiteration).

Message qualification is the fifth function of metaphorical code switching. This indicates the qualification of constructions, for instance, sentence and verb complements or predicates following a copular (Gumperz, 1982). A copular verb has been defined as a main verb which, like the verb 'to be', links ,or "couples" a subject to a subject complement" (Leech, 2006, p. 29). Copular verbs are also known as copulative or linking verbs (Leech, 2006, p. 29).

This is shown when a statement explains a preceding statement, as in the following example:

'The oldest one, la grande la de once anos (the big one who is eleven years old)'
(Gumperz, 1982, p.79).

Finally, code switching for personalisation and objectivisation distinguishes between talk about action and talk as action, the degree of speaker involvement in, or distance from, a message, whether a statement reflects personal opinion or knowledge, and whether it refers to specific instances or has the authority of generally known fact (Then & Tin, 2011). Within Gumperz's (1982) semantic model of conversational code switching, the interest of this study lies in both situational and metaphorical code switching.

Figure 2.1 below is a graphic representation of Gumperz's (1982) Semantic Model of Conversational Code Switching:

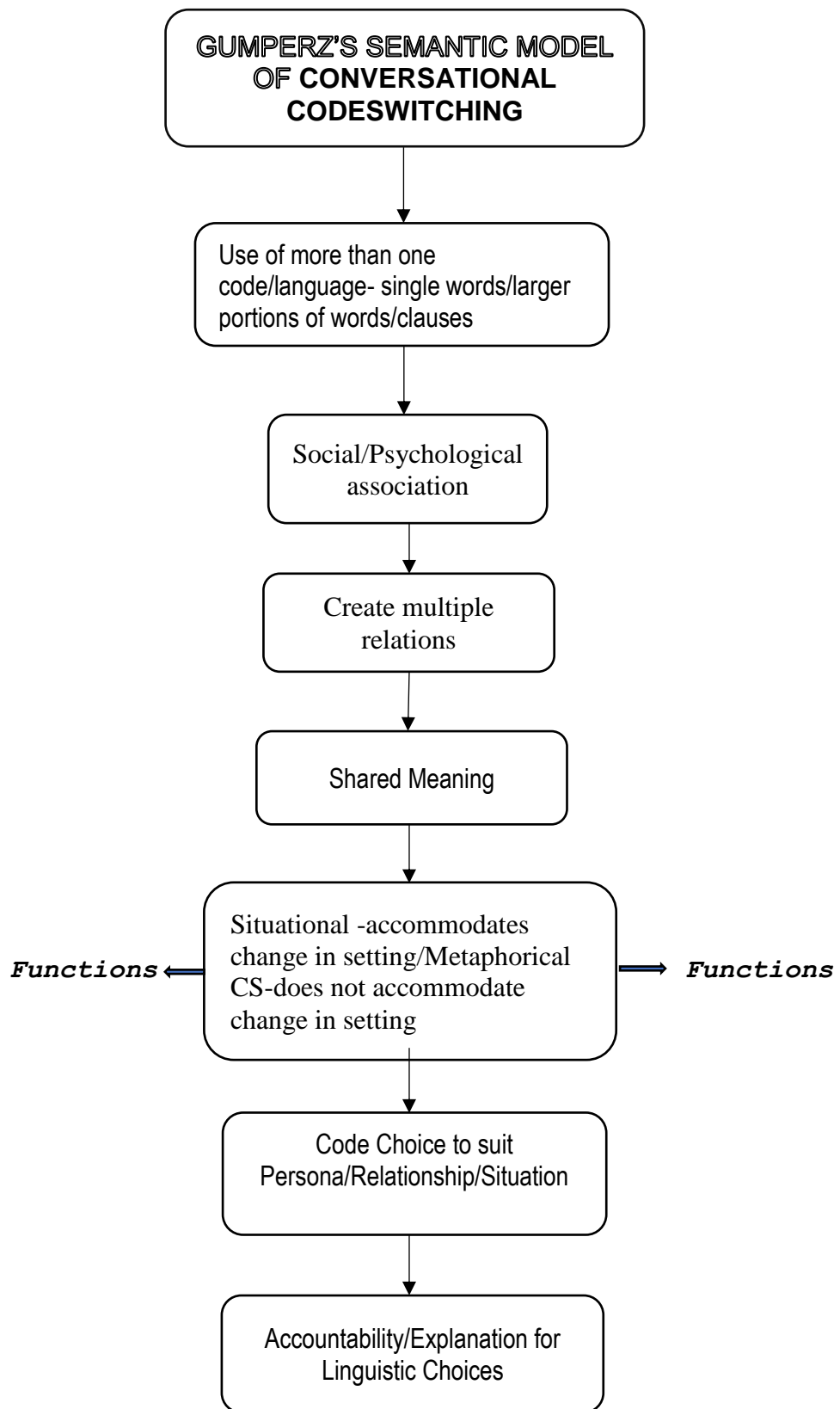


Figure 2.1 Adaptation of Gumperz's Semantic Model of Conversational Codeswitching

2.5.1 The Significance of Gumperz' Semantic Model of Codeswitching and its relationship to the current study

Gumperz's 1982 semantic model of code switching emphasises the use of more than one code in a conversation. This makes the semantic model significant in this study whose focus is an investigation of code switching, defined as involving the use of more than one code in a conversation, which, in the case of the current study, takes place in a classroom interaction situation. In the speakers' use of CS, single words or large portions of language may be used, which is what the semantic model of conversational code switching emphasises. In a classroom situation the speakers, that is teachers and learners, often create different relationships or identities using linguistic means as they interact during the teaching and learning process. The Gumperz's semantic model to second language learning is grounded in teachers displaying cultural competence. This refers to the ability of teachers to teach in cross-cultural or multicultural settings when they teach a second language. As teachers create multiple relationships or identities they also incorporate the cultural context, an understanding of the type of learners they teach and their background. This knowledge enables them to encourage learners to relate what they learn in class to their cultural contexts. All in all, the whole interaction considers not only cultural context but also the social and psychological contexts.

While this current study investigates teacher CS during classroom interaction while the isiZulu speaking teacher is teaching isiZulu speaking learners using English as the LoLT, the understanding of the cultural context of learners and the teaching and learning situation becomes inevitable. This enables teachers to know how to manipulate the teaching and learning situation where necessary to enable learner involvement in the teaching of English. This study also aspires to study the reasons why the teachers at the four rural schools, which constitute the site of this study, code switch while teaching in English in the classroom and to explore their reasons for, and attitudes towards, their action of code switching. The semantic model works well with this study as it accounts for the reasons why speakers, such as the sampled participants in the current study, often switch languages in particular contexts.

2.5.2 Criticism of Gumperz' Semantic Model

In a study of verbal behaviour in Hemnesberget, a settlement of about 1300 people in northern Norway, Blom and Gumperz (1986) compared the use of two dialects, standard literary Bokmål, and the more colloquial Ranamål, to the use of standard and local dialects of Hindi in northern India. Their study concluded that two distinct codes existed amongst the Norwegian speakers. This conclusion, however, contrasted with the views of other scholars who felt that Blom and Gumperz had provided scant details of the actual use of the language in their attempt to describe the verbal repertoire of Hemnesberget. One such scholar, for instance, argued against the conclusion of Blom and Gumperz that Bokmål and Ranamål consist of separate codes, and maintained that in other rural areas of Norway local and standard dialects are not nearly as discrete as Blom and Gumperz suggest (Maehlum, 1996). She maintained that local and standard dialects in other areas of Norway do not actually occur as experimentally measurable, unique codes, but as flawless units. It is their reality as standard dialects which is significant (Maehlum, 1996, p. 753).

Moreover, Gumperz (1982, as cited in Nilep, 2006), in spite of his previous claim that switching may be classified as either situational or metaphorical, realised the challenge analysts would experience in their attempt to categorise certain linguistic choices as either situational or metaphorical. He then posited that, since the association between the linguistic form and the settings, activities, and participants is mostly unpredictable, attempting to define these in terms of invariable models would be challenging for analysts (Gumperz as cited in Nilep, 2006). After analysing several speech communities, he realised that conversational code switching may not be defined in terms of "intuitive methods and strictly applicable macro-sociological categories, but may be categorised into six functions which encompass all language situations, namely, quotation marking, addressee specification, interjection, reiteration, message qualification, and personalization versus objectivization" (Gumperz, 1982, p. 80). These are common functions of conversational code switching (Nilep, 2006). However, this categorisation also posed problems for analysts as, at the time, it remained unclear what the individual speaker actually achieves in a conversation through using codes. In quotations, for instance, it is not clear what is accomplished besides the fact that speakers mostly report utterances in the language

in which they were originally spoken (Boztepe, 2003). Moreover, in interjections and message qualification, the question of what specific discourse functions are fulfilled by inserting, for instance, an English sentence filler in an otherwise Spanish utterance remains largely unanswered (Boztepe, 2003). Auer (1995) suggested earlier that reiteration also fails to define exactly what is repeated, or why it is repeated. Lists also tend to combine linguistic structures (such as interjection) and pragmatic or conversational functions (message qualification, addressee specification) without attempting to trace the relationship between forms and functions (Boztepe, 2003). The conclusion is that, although such lists may provide a useful step in the understanding of conversational code switching, they fail to answer the question as to why switching occurs as and when it does, as well as failing to define the functions the switching serves in conversation.

2.6 Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model of Code Switching

The current study also employs Myers-Scotton's 1993 Markedness Model to explain bilingual code switching. The model stresses the social and pragmatic context as well as the speaker orientation of the CS (Amuzu, 2012, p. 4). Myers-Scotton (1993a, p.18) believed that every speech community has more than one way of speaking. Accordingly, each speech community possesses at least two speech styles, more than one language, and more than one dialect of spoken language (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p.18). Thus, social and psychological associations are embedded in all linguistic codes or varieties in the speech community in which these codes are used.

According to the Markedness model, codes are viewed as marked versus unmarked depending on how much the usage matches community expectations for the type of interaction that is made. According to Myers-Scotton (1993a), whatever the community norms would predict would be unmarked, while that which community norms would not predict would be marked (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 5). The Markedness Model theoretically displays the marked versus the unmarked distinction in order to explicate the social and psychological motivations behind the choice of one code over another. The term 'Markedness' is connected to the choice that the speaker makes of one linguistic variety over other possible varieties (Myers-Scotton, 1993a p.

4). According to Myers-Scotton (1993a), the Markedness evaluator permits a language user to (i) recognise a range of linguistic varieties and (ii) realize that language users will react in various ways.

A central theoretical construct used by Myers-Scotton (1993a) to distinguish levels of Markedness of code choices is the rights and obligations (RO) set. The RO set comprises “rights and obligations upon which a speaker-hearer bases his/her expectations in any given interactional setting” (1993a, p. 23). According to Myers-Scotton:

... the RO set accounts for codes of behaviour and norms established and maintained in social communities, and the unmarked RO set for a given interaction type initiates from prominent situational features, namely, age, sex, occupation, socio-economic status, and ethnic group. (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 24).

The RO sets which are socially appropriate can be linked to speaker inspirations, which explain the linguistic choice made. Speakers are allowed to select and switch codes to mark the various RO sets. Speakers are able plan their dialogues in accordance with the listener's or addressees' expectancies, while they base their linguistic patterns on the language selection of a particular social group (Myers-Scotton 1993a, p. 5).

Thus, the central theoretical underpinning of the model is 'markedness' or 'indexicality', which assumes linguistic varieties to be socially indexical, meaning that, through their accumulated use in particular social relations, they tend to index or invoke those relations (also called rights-and-obligation sets /RO sets), taking on an air of natural association (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p. 85). The Markedness Model defines speakers as having a 'sense of Markedness' with regards to linguistic codes available for interaction. They have a choice of selecting code/s that suit the persona and/ or relationships they have in place. For instance, and of relevance to the current study, the codes chosen to be used are relative to the relationship between teachers and learners in the context of teaching and learning and occupation.

According to the Myers-Scotton (1993a) model, in a classroom situation teacher would recognise the language variety or code to be used in code switching with their learners, and would be aware of how learners will react. Myers-Scotton posits that, even where speakers may be aware of the underlying set of rules determining why they should choose one code over another, and even whether they are aware that they are following these rules or breaking them, they determine the RO set they want to be in force between them and the addressee(s) (1993a). Accordingly, the Markedness Model indicates that the linguistic choices speakers make are motivated by the social consequences that (they know) may result from making those choices.

The choice of a marked variety diverts the addressees from the expected RO sets into recognizing the newly negotiated RO sets represented by the marked choice. This means that marked varieties are utilized to “negotiate a change in the expected social distance holding between participants, either increasing or decreasing it” (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 132). According to Losch (2007, p. 28), the employment of marked choices can clarify social distance, provide a means for ethnically based exclusion strategies, account for aesthetic effects in a conversation (that is, highlighting a certain creativity in language choice), or emphasize a point in question through repetition. According to Myers-Scotton (1993a), a marked code choice on the part of the speaker makes a statement with respect to the expected RO set knowingly pushing addressees into recognizing the newly negotiated RO sets which the marked choice represents (Amuzu, 2012, p. 11).

In differentiating the unmarked choices, and CS as an unmarked choice, the unmarked choices are classified as inter-changeable usage of two or more codes which are unmarked or expected for the particular interaction variety (Myers-Scotton, 1993). This means that CS, as unmarked choice, as the bilingual language variety in itself, is the default medium of the given interaction. The expectation in this regard is that, if speakers make unmarked choices, they will successfully invoke only the anticipated “social relations (RO sets) between them and their addressees” (Amuzu, 2012, p. 5).

According to this model, the unmarked choice occurs under particular conditions. Firstly, the speakers must be 'bilingual peers', meaning speakers who perceive their mutual bilingualism as a marker of their solidarity (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 119).

Secondly, the interaction should be of an informal type (speakers must be in-group members). Thirdly, both speakers must be proficient in the languages involved in the CS. Lastly, if proficiency in the languages is insufficient, the participants have to evaluate the social values attached to those languages (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 119).

Speakers also select the linguistic code based on the social context of their linguistic interaction, and the addressees. The community-based norms permit for the speakers to recognize the penalties of constructing marked choices (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 75). Speakers are also allowed to intentionally make such choices with specific social aims in mind, and they will choose a particular linguistic code expecting the addressee to recognise the choice with its particular intention. The speaker's objective would be to enhance the rewards and minimize the costs of that choice (Myers-Scotton 1993, p. 18). In most cases, speakers have to utilise a blend of choices and evaluate all existing evidence so as to come up with the best approach for the intended interaction (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 20). Speakers check before selecting the code or RO set as they seek more to advance rewards than incur costs in their usage of a specific linguistic code.

Thus, for any user of CS to be considered as competent in its usage, they should have the ability to assess the suitability of a given social context and base their decision on this (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p.79). The Markedness Model possesses a Markedness metric that assists speakers to decide if the code choice is marked or unmarked for the intended context of interaction (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 79-80). The metric serves as a universal feature which allows all code choices to be perceived relative to their Markedness. The Markedness of a specific code choice is, however, only valid in the social context of a specific community (Myers-Scotton, 1993b, p. 80).

2.6.1 Types of code-switching

Markedness as an organising device accounts for all types of code-switching and their social motivations (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p.113). The Markedness Model has as its base the negotiation principle with the maxims that follow from the principle, namely, (i) the unmarked-choice maxim (ii) the marked-choice maxim and (iii) the exploratory-choice maxim. The code switching that results from the employment of one of these

maxims may then be classified as (i) code-switching as a marked choice, (ii) code-switching itself as an unmarked choice, (iii) code-switching as a sequence of unmarked choices, and (iv) code-switching as an exploratory choice (Myers-Scotton 1993a, p.113).

2.6.1.1 Code-switching as an unmarked choice

The unmarked-choice maxim allows the speaker to use the linguistic variety expected by the addressees based on the societal norms that govern the situation or context at hand (Myers-Scotton, 1993b, p.114). The unmarked choice maxim is considered a safer one, because, in well-defined role relationships, it indexes the expected interpersonal relationship between the speakers (Jagero & Odongo, 2011). The two types of code-switching that result from the unmarked-choice maxim are code-switching as a sequence of unmarked choices, and code-switching itself as the unmarked choice (Myers-Scotton, 1993b). Both types occur under diverse circumstances but possess related motivations. When unmarked CS ensues during a conversation, the situational factors remain unaffected. The presence of these factors, however, in a conversation where unmarked CS is used/occurs, according Myers-Scotton (1993), would depend more on the participants' attitudes toward themselves, as well as the social attributes indexed by the codes and their alternation. In both cases, though, code-switching is the unmarked choice for the unmarked RO set, given the participants and other situational facts (Myers-Scotton, 1993a). The virtuosity maxim and the deference maxim are two auxiliary maxims to the unmarked-choice maxim which direct the speaker to a seemingly unmarked choice (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p.113). The virtuosity maxim stipulates that, in the absence of linguistic competence between speakers in an unmarked choice conversation, they may choose any other codes relevant to the speakers present, and use them for the benefit of those speakers. While this is being done, the competence of the listener must be considered. The deference maxim indicates the choice made by the speakers to defer from the unmarked or expected choice and to opt for the marked choice which is unexpected (Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Nilep, 2006). When speakers make marked choices they first consciously assess potential costs and rewards and then make unconscious decisions that overlook the societal norms that govern the unmarked context but favour the relationship between the two speakers in that situation (Myers-Scotton, 1993).

2.6.1.2 Sequential unmarked code-switching

When some of the situational factors change as the conversation progresses, the unmarked RO set may change (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p.114). As the arrangement of the participants making up a conversation, or the topic changes, so does the unmarked RO set. In a situation where such factors affect the unmarked RO set, the speaker needs to switch codes if he/she wishes to index the new RO set. As the speaker makes the unmarked choice, he/she is compliant with the status quo and acknowledges the indexical quality of the unmarked code (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p. 114). According to the Markedness model, speakers will normally choose to accept or negotiate the new RO set, and this prediction is motivated by a number of factors, the most significant of which is the costs/rewards model (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p. 115). The switch in the Markedness of RO sets, which trigger sequential unmarked code-switching, is external, but the emphasis should still be on the speaker who has the choice to respond to this switch. It should, therefore, be indicated that the change in codes is speaker-motivated and not necessarily driven by the situation or the addressee(s).

A good example in Myers-Scotton (1993) which explains sequential unmarked code-switching is indicated in a context where two office colleagues have a conversation (Myers-Scotton (1993, p.116). While for both, English and Swahili are the unmarked choices, they opt to address each other in English. However, when the secretary is addressed by one of the gentlemen, the unmarked choice code is Swahili. The speaker (the gentleman) switches from one language (English) to another (Swahili) as the person, and possibly the social or work status of addressed person changes (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p.116).

2.6.1.3 Code-switching itself as the unmarked choice

According to Myers-Scotton (1993b, p.117), many bi/multilingual communities make use of two or more languages within the same conversation, and in this way, follow the unmarked choice maxim for such speakers. The unmarked choice maxim incorporates the speakers' use of the linguistic choices expected by both the speaker and the addressee(s), choices which are relevant to the societal norms of the context in which interaction has to take place (Myers-Scotton, 1993b). In such a case, both

the speaker and the addressee would understand the code choices that are made and the reason(s) for making these choices. Most urban Africans often switch between the 'official', or hegemonic language, and the indigenous language(s), which become their preferred unmarked choice in various social contexts and for various communication purposes.

2.6.1.4 Code-switching as a marked choice

In code switching as a marked choice, the speaker takes a different path. Instead of following the unmarked choice maxim she/he chooses not to identify with the expected RO set (Myers-Scotton, 1993a p. 131). The speaker creates a marked choice instead of recognizing the expected societal norms governing the context so that he/she may identify with the addressee or listener, so that they can understand each other. For instance, in a classroom situation, where by default or in line with societal norms and expectations (or the chosen LoLT as in the case of the current study), teaching and learning should be conducted in English, the situation is unmarked because both the speaker (teacher) and the addressee(s) (learner(s)) know that they have (according to the language policy adopted by the school) to use English as a language of interaction. However, when the speaker realises that the addressee(s) has/have a challenge in understanding some of the words spoken or concepts presented during the interaction, she/he chooses to use the addressee's/addressees' first language for purposes of increasing understanding. The speaker has thus been able to create an unmarked choice that will suit the addressee(s) because of their relationship. Myers-Scotton (1993a) posited that a speaker has a right to create a new RO set which is unmarked for that interaction if he/she so desires (Myers-Scotton (1993a)). What makes this type of interaction unmarked is the fact that the speakers, both the speaker and the addressee(s), are familiar with the linguistic code used for their interaction, in this case, the use of the addressee's/addressees' first language. The speaker creates a RO set that will be both relevant and helpful to the context of that interaction.

2.6.1.5 Code-switching as an exploratory choice

When speakers themselves are not sure of the communicative intent, the exploratory choice maxim (Myers-Scotton 1993b, p.142) may be used in an interaction. The

exploratory choice maxim indicates that, when the unmarked choice is not clear, speakers would code switch in such a way as to make substitute exploratory choices to establish an unmarked choice as an index of the RO set favoured by them. This process is exploratory because speakers are not sure of the relevant social norms that would apply in that particular interaction, especially when there is little information about the social identities of new acquaintances or addressees (Jagero & Odongo, 2011). According to Myers-Scotton (1993b, p.142), even though this type of CS does not happen very often, its occurrence is often due to a clash of social or relationship norms, for example, a conversation between two speakers where it is not clear which norms apply, for instance, when little is known about the social identity of a new social contact.

The following figure depicts Myers-Scotton's 1993 Markedness Model as discussed in this study.

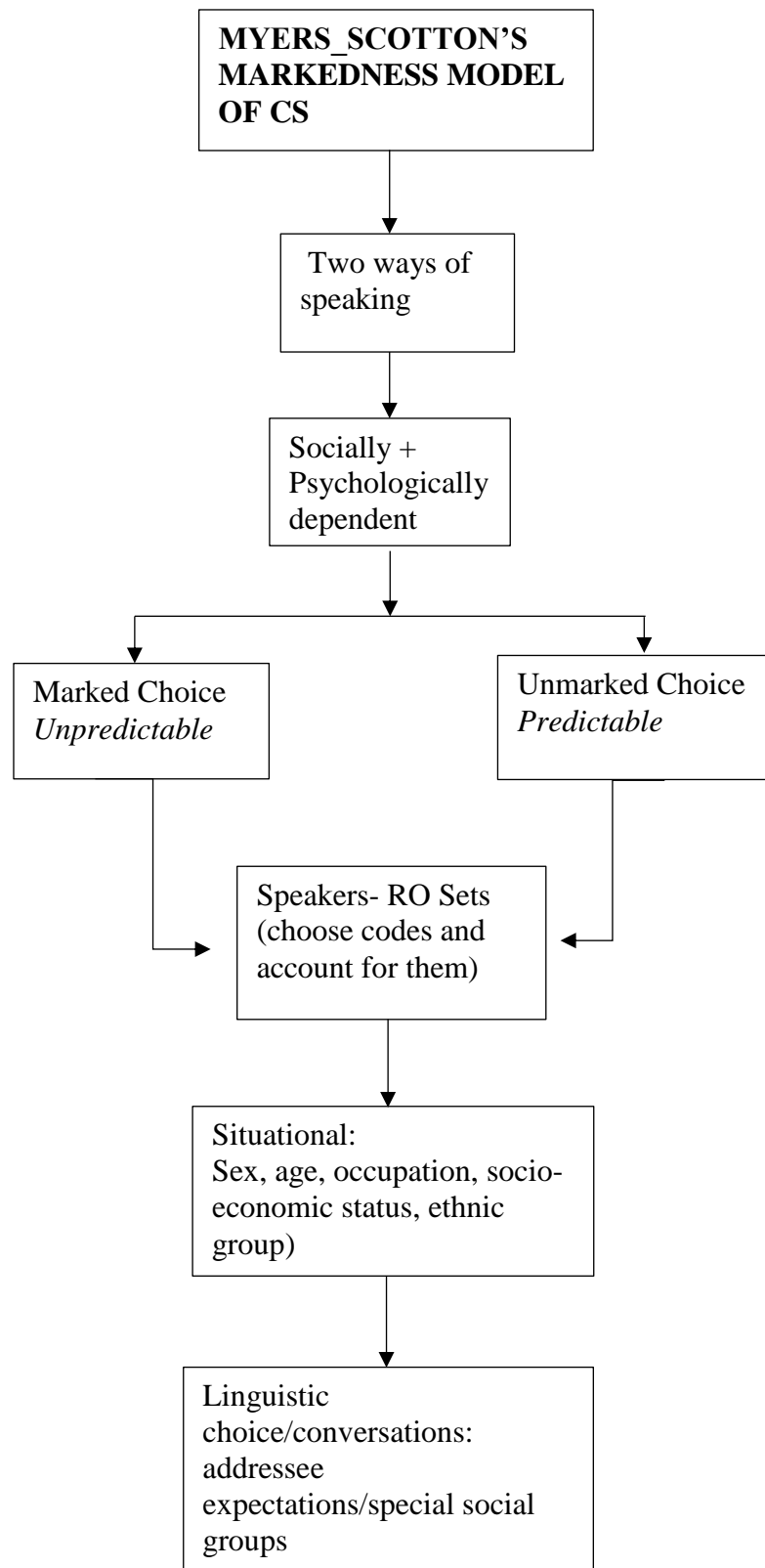


Figure 2.2 Adaptation of Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model of Code Switching

2.6.2 The significance of Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model

The Markedness Model defines speakers as having a sense of markedness with regards to linguistic codes available for interaction. According to the model, the context of an interaction is important. The speakers have a choice of following the expected societal norms that govern the context at the time, a choice which, according to the model, is termed an unmarked choice maxim, or to deviate from the expected societal norms and create their own linguistic choices which embrace the relationship that exists between the speaker and the addressee(s). They have a right to evaluate the costs and benefits of using the existing code choices. In this situation they can select code/s that suit the persona and or relationships they have in place. In the current study the Markedness Model is central because the research explores the interactions between teachers and learners where teachers choose codes to use as they teach using the ESL as the LoLT. The researcher considered that would be of benefit to the study to use the Markedness Model to categorise the participating teachers' code choices into the relevant maxims, which could be unmarked or marked choice maxims. Myers-Scotton's 1993 Markedness model also has the advantage of ascertaining that speakers often recognise the language variety or code to be used when interacting with the addressees and that they are aware of how the addressees will react. Thus, the Markedness Model could enable the researcher to evaluate how learners are likely to, or do, react when their teachers make switches from English as L2, to their first language.

2.6.3 Criticism of the Markedness Model

Even though Myers-Scotton's 1993 Markedness Model serves as the basis on which most research projects concentrating on code-switching are constructed, other researchers have challenged certain aspects of the Markedness Model. Auer (1995, p.132), for instance, believed that there is a sequential arrangement of language choice in any conversation, and that the meanings provided for code-switching should therefore be considered according to conversational context. In his "theory of code-alternation" he noted patterns that help negotiate language choice between speakers, and where one language is injected into the other within turns. Auer (1995, pp.124-126) further argues that, although an "unmarked" (base) language may be in use in a

specific interaction, the interlocutors may sometimes permit changes to the “unmarked” language. This then makes the determination of the “unmarked code” impossible. Additionally, for Auer (1995), the Markedness Model attaches socio-pragmatic information to the marked/unmarked character of each of the two languages used in CS. ‘Pragmatic competence’ defines one’s capacity to utilise language appropriately in a social context in which both innate and learned capacities are involved and which develops naturally through a socialization process (Taguchi, 2009, p. 1). Pragmatic competence indicates the understanding of forms and strategies to communicate specific illocutions, while sociopragmatic competence defines how to use these forms and strategies in an appropriate context (Dippold, 2008).

Auer (1995, p.119-120) argued that a switch itself, regardless of to, or from which language it is made, is important, apart from the socio-pragmatic information attached to a particular language (Auer, 1995, pp.119-120). According to Auer (1995, pp.124-126), in a given bilingual community, one language may be perceived as being the “base language” in one conversation, while in another conversation in the same community, the other language may be the Matrix Language (dominant language).

2.7 Why these Theories complement each other

As has been mentioned, Gumperz (1982, p.59) defined code switching as involving the utilisation of speech passages within the same speech exchange belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems. According to Myers-Scotton (1993), in code switching, speakers use two or more languages within the same conversation. Both theories emphasise how speakers use language to express themselves, either through code switching or code mixing, which incorporates the use of both languages to the extent of changing from one language to another in a single utterance without changing the topic, and using various levels of language, such as morphology and lexical items (Wardhaugh, 1986, p.103). Whether single words or chunks of words, or phrases, are used, these are socially and psychologically associated.

Both theories signify the right of speakers to use language in a way that suits them. While Gumperz’ 1982 semantic model allows speakers to create different

relationships, or associations, or identities using linguistic means to create shared meaning amongst the speakers, Myers-Scotton's 1993 Markedness Model also emphasises the right of speakers to create marked code choices for a specific context (shared meaning), thus making the context unmarked, as well as unmarked code choices. While the semantic model allows speakers to create various identities and shared meaning by conceptualizing the functions of code switching, such as, situational and metaphorical, Myers-Scotton's 1993 Markedness model also allows speakers to create marked and unmarked RO sets which are also based on "situations" (identities, social contexts), such as age, sex, occupation, socio-economic status, and ethnic group" (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p.24). Speakers can then choose and switch codes to index the diverse RO sets in their conversations in line with the addressees' expectations, while also basing their linguistic patterns on the linguistic choice of a specific social group (Myers-Scotton 1993, p.5). These choices are socially and psychologically based. This is the kind of context where functions of code switching based on the created RO sets are displayed. What makes this type of interaction unmarked is the fact that the speakers, both the speaker and the addressee(s), are familiar with the linguistic code used to interact. The speaker deliberately creates the RO set that will be relevant to the context of that interaction. Both theories provide speakers with an opportunity to account for why they often switch languages in a specific context and with particular addressees. This is where/when they provide reasons for the linguistic choices they make when code switching.

The reason for this study using both theories was because, while the Semantic Model allows speakers to create different identities while they interact with the addressees, it does not, however, allow the speakers to create marked or unmarked code choices according to the needs of the situation at hand, which the Markedness Model provides. The Markedness Model provides speakers with an opportunity to create RO sets that are relevant and familiar to the addressees at that moment. Further, the Semantic Model of Conversational Code Switching provides clear categorization of the functions of CS, such as repetition, quotation, addressee specification, interjections, reiterations, message qualification, and personalisation versus objectivisation. This is not provided for in the Markedness Model. Categorising CS into these functions makes it easy for the researcher to analyse the findings in the study. Figure 2.3 depicts the

ways in which Gumperz's 1982 Semantic Model of Conversational Codeswitching and Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model of Codeswitching complement each other as discussed.

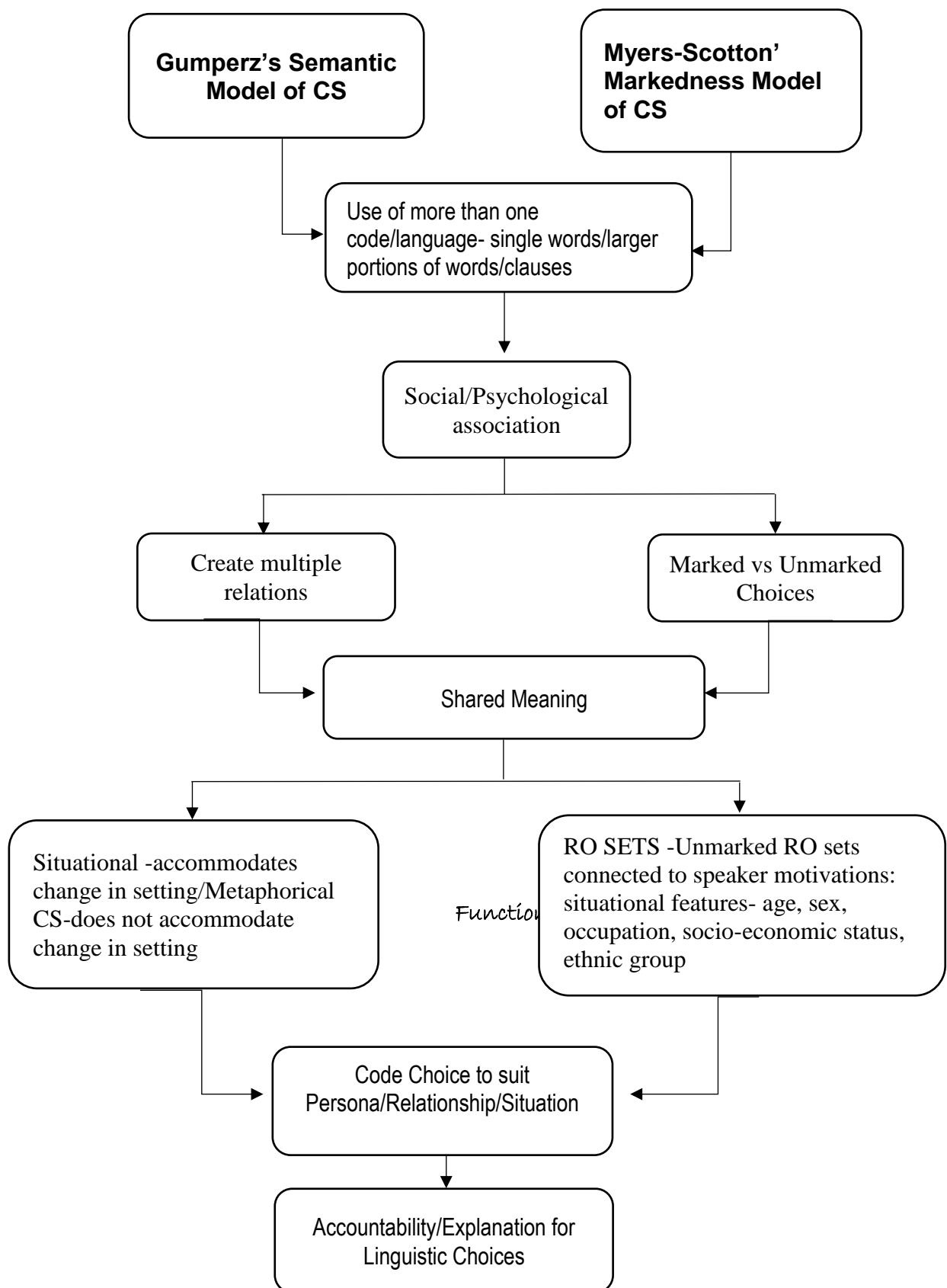


Figure 2.3: Relationship Between Semantic and Markedness Model of Code Switching

2.8 Conclusion

The aim of the chapter was to introduce and discuss the theoretical dimensions of the research, namely, Gumperz's (1982) Semantic Model of Conversational Code Switching and Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model of Code Switching, both of which form the basis and framework of the research conducted in the study. The chapter began by discussing the term 'theoretical framework', defining it as a collection of interrelated concepts, similar to a theory, but not necessarily as highly structured. These interrelated concepts guide the research, determining what the researcher needs to measure, and what statistical relationships he/she is looking for. The chapter then discussed both the structural approach, which focuses on the grammatical aspects of code switching, and the sociolinguistic approach, which studies how social meaning is made, while providing reasons for why bilinguals speak in a particular way. The chapter discussed the terms code, bilingualism, translanguaging, code mixing, borrowing, and code switching on the basis that they play a significant role in explaining what bilinguals do when they switch codes in a variety of social interactions, particularly in a classroom situation. Finally, the chapter discussed in detail Gumperz's 1982 Semantic Model of Conversational Code Switching and Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model of Code Switching which form the theoretical framework and basis of the current study. These theories were discussed in terms of their relative contributions to the current study and its analysis, as well as the ways in which they complement each other in the study.

The next chapter provides a review of the literature that informs this study.

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out, describes, and evaluates the available literature informing this study. In this chapter, studies, and theoretical books and articles on perceptions of both researchers, and of teachers and students, of the use of English-only and First Language in various contexts are compared and critiqued, together with works on the background to, and nature of, code switching (CS), and code switching functions. The various reasons given in the literature and by teachers for why teachers consciously or unconsciously code switch when teaching, as well as their attitudes towards code switching, are discussed in detail.

3.2 The Perception of English-Only Versus First language (L1) use in the Classroom

The issue of using English-only in an English Second Language (ESL) classroom has received much attention from scholars in the past years (Auerbach, 1995; Turnbull, 2001; Jingxia, 2010; Gulzar, 2014). Those who favour the English-only approach feel that the First Language (L1) does not play a pivotal role in the learning of or through the target language (Levine, 2003). Other scholars, such as Ellis (1994), who have spoken against attaching any role to L1 in L2 classrooms have proposed that class time should be devoted completely to the L2, with no interruption by, or inclusion of, the L1.

In the 1980s a study by Swan (1985), for instance, showed the use of L1 in ESL classes to be viewed at the time as something that would hamper ESL acquisition, while it was also felt that direct translations would provide a better option than using students' L1. Therefore, due to this long tradition of believing that switching to L1 in ESL and EFL is unacceptable and even detrimental, the utilisation of L1 has been discouraged in these classrooms and even considered a taboo, a source of guilt, and

even thought of as an indication of weakness or incompetency on the part of teachers (Auerbach 1995; Cook, 2001).

In addition, during the 1980s those who favoured the Direct and Audio-Lingual method of teaching L2 contended that learners do not have to understand everything uttered in an ESL classroom (Prucha, 1983; Ellis, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Chaudron, 1988). Their argument was that the use of CS or L1 does not promote the desire for knowledge in learners, but causes a diminution of the ability in learners to learn the language outside of the classroom, and CS continued to receive criticism from several scholars in the 1990s (Chambers, 1991; Halliwell & Jones, 1991; McDonald, 1993 as cited in Jingxia, 2010). The arguments against the use of CS were that learners would be and become too dependent on CS to understand any interaction in L2. To emphasise this further, Jingxia (2010) felt that, firstly, the overuse of L1 might affect the quantity and quality of the L2 input. Secondly, learners did not seem to learn as much as they would if the teacher was using L2 only. According to his study, the use of L1 may lead to internalisation of the non-standard L2 form and preservation of errors, which may in turn lead to learners committing to language use without the realisation that they have committed errors (Jingxia, 2010). In response to the findings of these studies, Nordin (2013) cautions that CS be therefore applied with circumspection and consideration on the part of teachers. The above studies and critiques of CS advocate caution for educators favouring the use of CS, warning that, although CS may provide successful academic achievement for learners, it should be used carefully and minimally to maintain the proficiency of the target language for learners. This argument, or perception, could explain the reason many teachers do not acknowledge or admit to their use of CS in ESL classrooms.

In addition to the above studies, a study by Sert (2005) emphasises the existence of two opposing arguments with regards to CS use and/or its incorporation in the ESL language classroom, or in classroom settings where learners whose L1 is not English are being taught through English as the LoLT. His study indicates that, while there are teachers who would prefer to adhere to the traditional formal rules of L2 learning which they perceive as forcing students to speak in the target language, and to practise communicative language skills in order to master the target language well, there are

also those teachers who advocate for the role that CS plays in an English Second Language classroom. A study conducted by Taha (2008, p. 337) in the Sudan with Arabic L1 students, where a policy to use Arabic as the LoLT in place of English was being implemented, and involving English and Arabic medium classes, found that students and teachers favoured the use of English only and English was advocated to be used as a language of instruction. The study also found that, in spite of this language policy, teachers and learners were using code switching, consciously and/or unconsciously, as a pedagogic resource and strategy, both covertly and openly.

In another study conducted in township schools in South Africa, the findings indicated that the teachers participating in the study often became more concerned with the negative consequences which they thought would arise from both reducing learners' exposure to English, as well as hindering their familiarisation with the second language (L2) – English - subject terminology if learners' L1 was used, or used too often, as the LoLT (Probyn, 2009). In addition to this, a study by Nordin (2013) further indicated that teachers were under the impression that, with use, or over-use of CS, learners would no longer be eager to learn the target language and would lack the ability to guess and infer in new linguistic environments of L2. Furthermore, the study indicated that CS use might exert an influence on the way learners communicate in the second language (Nordin, 2013). Finally, in a study that was conducted in Sudan and Saudi Arabia, teachers felt learners might commit to language use without the realisation that they have committed errors (Jingxia, 2010). Even where teachers felt justified in using CS for classroom interaction, they felt they were breaching not just the official language policy but what they perceived was presented to them in terms of the LiEP as best classroom practice (Probyn, 2009).

CS continues to receive a hostile response, not only from some scholars and teachers, but also from many educational/curriculum authorities and policy makers. In spite of the hostile stance and attitudes towards the use of two or more languages in instruction (Ferguson, 2009), a body of research indicates far more relaxed and confident perceptions of some (more recent) academic commentators who, after observing and analysing CS use in the classroom, have concluded that, far from being dysfunctional as a pedagogical tool, as many policy makers maintain it to be, it is in fact a pedagogically useful communicative resource (Ferguson, 2009). The

dysfunctionality attributed to CS is clearly indicated in the unwillingness of policy makers to explore the prospects and educational potential of bilingual practices, practices that are already (unofficially) prevalent in many communities and classrooms, and practices which, I would argue, are inevitable in contexts where children struggle to learn and to grasp new concepts in a poorly understood language medium. These are situations whose reality cannot be easily suppressed or ignored.

In her study Meyer (2000) indicated a similar context to the one described by Ferguson (2009), when she described the predicament facing English Second Language learners as they sit in class barely understanding or speaking English, the language of learning and teaching. She argued that many of these learners who are admitted to such schools do not lack enough experience regarding the cultural practices of the target language, and of L1 speakers of that language, and the expectations of the school, yet they are expected to learn successfully in that language (Meyer, 2000). A study conducted by Songxaba (2016) on the use of CS between Afrikaans (L2) and Xhosa (L1) as one of the language teaching strategies in the teaching and learning of Afrikaans as Additional Language/L2 in the FET band, in a predominantly Xhosa-speaking school in the Eastern Cape, also highlights a classroom situation where the author found that the learning of Afrikaans Second language was often tense and fraught with anxiety compared to the out-of-class situation where learners were free to mix languages (Songxaba, 2016). She found that this was due to the fact that the teachers at the school were obliged to maintain a pure Afrikaans context in the classroom, and learners were not allowed to include a word or sentence from a language other than the one being taught and used as the LoLT in class. In similar contexts proponents of the use of L1 as teaching strategy/resource in an ESL classroom maintain that the second language (L2) may get assistance from the L1 as – as was described in the previous chapter - learners already possess a communicative and functional language usage system (Turnbull, 2001). According to this view, not only is L1 useful in the teaching and learning of L2 in the classroom, but it is also beneficial in performing certain functions in class. For instance, as was mentioned in the previous chapter, some recent research, in addition to acknowledging the positive role played by the mother tongue in an ESL classroom, has also highlighted other useful pedagogical functions, such as classroom management, language analysis, rules-governed grammar, discussion of cross-

cultural issues, the giving of instructions or prompts, explaining errors, and checking comprehension (Auer, 1998; Gulzar, 2014). Nevertheless, the opponents of CS still maintain that the utilisation of code switching in a second language classroom defiles the pure language environment that these language researchers, particularly those in the 1980s and 1990s, thought should lead learners to be competent in the target language (Ellis, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Chaudron, 1988; Lightbrown, 2001).

There is also the issue of language rights and identity. Supporters of learners' L1 incorporation into their L2 learning also suggest that teachers' and learners' use of L1 while teaching/learning in the L2, may be productive or even necessary in some instances (Auerbach, 1995; Canagarajah, 1995; Frankenberg-Garcia, 2000; Harmer, 2001;). Skuttnab-Kangas (1994) also argued for L1 use in the educational process as a fundamental linguistic human right of minority language groups. In the light of these arguments for the use of CS in appropriate contexts, it has been observed that the study of code-switching in South African classrooms is intertwined with ongoing debates about language policy (Martin-Jones, 1995, p. 90). While the 1997 Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) encourages schools to teach through the medium of the learners' home language, in spite of this, more schools continue to opt for English as the LoLT for various unexamined reasons (LiEP, 1997). However, due to the reality of many learners' poor proficiency in English as LoLT, as has been mentioned, many teachers have 'smuggled' code-switching into the classroom.

Early studies in post-colonial history often highlight the difficulties experienced by Africans forced to use a former colonial language as a medium of classroom instruction in Botswana, Hong Kong, Brunei, Kenya and Burundi (Arthur, 1996; Lin, 1996; Martin, 1999; Merrit, 1992; Ndayipfukamiye, 1994). The tensions experienced in those contexts of oppression were aggravated by the poor English proficiency of many learners, and, as Macdonald (1990, p. 44) noted, the teacher's classroom practice tends to be moulded by the language proficiency of the learners. Therefore, even though the majority of schools in South Africa opt for English as the LoLT for a number of what they consider to be sensible reasons, in many classroom situations, a contradiction between the school's language policy and what is possible in practice

exists, and this becomes a further source of tension, anxiety, guilt, and sense of failure for teachers (Probyn, 2009).

While the current language-in-education policies and curricula have ostensibly been designed for multicultural contexts and biliteracy education, due to the fact that there is so much global migration taking place, language education discourses have been somewhat “strategically geared for international economic participation” (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014, p. 3). This context and discourse supports English-only positioning in most cases. English has been awarded the status of being the world’s lingua franca (Kim, 2009, p. 396). This posits the necessity for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) that aspire to international recognition and grading to plan and manage to accommodate this view (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014). Students who enter South African HEIs come from a diversity of backgrounds and are exposed to more than one language outside of the formal educational domain. Hibbert and van de Walt (2014) argue that these students can fruitfully draw from such literacies and competencies in the classroom situation (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014). Thus, given this context, the current “challenge is in harnessing the existing multilingual practices for pedagogical gain” (Blackledge & Creese, 2010, p. 206).

This situation, and these recent studies and views concerning multilingual classrooms, has led to the term ‘translanguaging’, which is currently used in tandem with code switching, translation and simultaneous interpretation. All of this calls even more strongly than before for a situation where all languages are viewed as a resource instead of as problems, or as detracting from the teaching and learning of the target language, in particular, English (Algaris-Ruiz 2014 in Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014, p. 5). Hibbert and van der Walt (2014), citing and using the research of Sebba (2007) on the socio-cultural contexts and influences on language, argue that discourses in regulated and unregulated spaces, “should be viewed on a continuum rather than as binary opposites” (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014: 5). Their argument is that students come from communities that range from oral and multilingual at one end of the continuum, to literate and monolingual at the other, and that these offer two ends of the context of a biliteracy continuum (p. 5). According to this view, students are exposed to media of biliteracy, which exposes them to more than one language at the same time (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014). They argue that students can “move from

minority to majority languages, that is from vernacular to the literary” (p. 5). In this context, translanguaging and biliteracy are seen as resources used for improving student performance. In Madiba’s (2014) study, which showcases how a translanguaging approach can be used to scaffold concept learning among multilingual students in South African universities, it clear that the multilingual glossaries concept literacy project can be adopted even at high school level. Students in Madiba’s 2014 study were asked to define the term ‘deficit’ in English and Tshivenda on the sheet provided to them. The following examples, as illustrated in Madiba (2014, p. 78) show how this has been done at UCT on the glossaries Vula website:

Extract 1

Student 1: The shortage in the amount requested.

Tshivenda: Thahelero kha zwa khou diswa (zwine zwa khou todea). Thahelero ine ya vha kha sia la masheleni nga murahu ha musu vhathu vha tshi khou toda u renga thodea dzavho.

Student 5

English: it means that the business is running at a loss or when a business is operating at a loss

Tshivenda: ndi musu bindu li sa khou wana mbuyelo, li tshi khou tshimbila nga ndozwo.

Extract 2: definition of the concept of deficit

S1: IT IS A SHORTAGE

T: No I talatshedza nga ONLY ONE WORD

S1: ndi a balelwa actually u tou li dzudzanya lothe lo fhelela, BUT I KNOW uri ri tshi khou ita surplus na [inaudible], hu tou nga hu vha hu na shortage ya zwinwe zwithu, hu khou dimandiwa hu sin a zwine zwa khou sapulaiwa.

S2: Nne ndo ri DEFICIT IS A POINT WHEN A LOSS HAS BEEN MADE, ESPECIALLY IN A SITUATION WHERE EXPENSES EXCEED INCOME

The above extracts showcase incidents where students use translanguaging: where a sentence sometimes starts in Tshivenda and ends in English, or vice-versa, to express their views. This type of language is traditionally known as ‘code switching’ (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012 as cited in Madiba, 2014). Code switching views

languages as a separate entity, while translanguaging views languages as fluid and intermingling (Garcia, 2009, Lewis et al., 2012).

Recent studies highlight classroom situations where even teachers with well-designed teaching aids, and gestures, and facial expressions used in delivering the lesson, meet their learners but are often disappointed when the lesson fails to yield the preconceived outcomes due to a lack of a mutually understood lexicon or vocabulary of the person (Songxaba, Coetzer & Molepo, 2017). At times teachers feel the need to use CS to enhance learner understanding of the target language, but they are hindered by the fact that the assessment of learners does not allow trans-linguistic coding (Songxaba, et al. 2017). This is due to the fact that, although in reality CS is taking place in the second language classroom, it is not yet accommodated for in the curriculum even though the 1997 South African Language in Education Policy advocates for language equity. Since CS is not accommodated for in assessment, learners often understand/read and answer questions incorrectly and are penalised, not because they are less intelligent than English L1 learners, but simply because they do not know certain words in English or in Afrikaans which are key to understanding the questions (McCabe, 2013, p. 174). Other linguists agree that, since children communicate in their home language from a young age, this becomes critical in developing written language models of reading and writing (Foertsch, 1998; Mahofa & Adendorf, 2014). These linguists argue that a mismatch between structures, values, and expectations of the home language and the school language may disadvantage learners in their attempts to succeed in doing primary reading tasks, and they may therefore have to spend their entire school careers trying to catch up. Mahofa and Adendorf (2014) maintain that the use of learners' L1 would be highly beneficial in the teaching and learning of Mathematics word problems, for instance.

The above discussion of the various arguments in favour of some form of CS highlight the continuing need for CS where second language interaction becomes a barrier to effective teaching and learning. Although many teachers can employ the linguistic resources of the classroom in a skilled and responsive way to achieve a range of cognitive and affective teaching and learning goals, CS is considered, especially by more recent linguistic researchers, as a necessity for effective teaching in the classroom. However, regardless of the circumstances and the reality highlighted

above, CS has neither been generally accepted as a legitimate classroom strategy, nor sanctioned in teacher training. This, then, makes teachers refer to the practice of CS as 'smuggling the vernacular' into the classroom (Adendorff, 1996; Macdonald, 1990; Probyn, 2001; Probyn, 2009). This situation makes it even more difficult for most teachers to admit to using CS in their teaching of and through a Second language.

More recent studies have also confirmed the above findings, that CS is a phenomenon that continues to (unofficially) take place in different social and educational settings (Van de Walt, 2009; Shin, 2010; Singh & Sharma, 2011; Moodley, 2010; Madonsela, 2016). As has been mentioned, in some studies, CS has been perceived in a positive light (Li, 2008; Moodley, 2010; Mahofa & Adendorff, 2014; Madonsela, 2016). These scholars view CS as a useful tool for bilingual teachers in their attempt to achieve context-specific teaching and learning goals, such as clarification of difficult concepts, and reinforcement of a student's bilingual lexicon. Despite the positive perceptions and findings of these scholars, others attach a negative connotation to CS, arguing that it indicates linguistic decay, that it is a strategy compensating for lessened proficiency, and an unsystematic consequence of lacking proficiency in one of the languages involved (Appel & Muysken, 1987; Heredia & Brown, 2009; Lyons, 1968; Lawrence, 1999; Romaine, 1996; Li, 2008). This view coincides with ongoing perceptions of some teachers who continue to believe that when learners code switch it is often due to a language impairment (Songxaba et al., 2017). However, Tonkin (2004) argued strongly that languages do not exist or originate in textbooks but in the minds of living people. Her argument suggests that languages may adapt to some social context pressures and demands in which they are utilised. This also means that the situations and language groups an individual interacts with often influence the language choices he/she makes, thus leading to code switching in order to enhance mutual understanding (Songxaba et al., 2017). This view agrees with that of Finlayson (1997a), who argued that, when a situation calls for a change in language, one is forced, or it is politic, to conform.

3.3 Code switching

The previous chapter defined and discussed code switching within a theoretical framework. This section discusses studies done on, and theories of code switching in

relation to, the functions it performs when used in an ESL classroom interaction between teachers and students.

In a study by Ramachandran and Abdul Rahim (2004), where the application of the translation method in teaching vocabulary in an ESL classroom was done, the findings indicated that the translation method, a use of first language equivalents in teaching new English vocabulary, had positive effects on students' vocabulary recall and retention. More recently, similar outcomes were found by Joyce (2015) in a study involving English as Foreign language (EFL) amongst undergraduate students in Japan. The findings supported the notion that classroom code switching has the potential to contribute to knowledge construction and transmission in ESL and EFL classrooms (review by Ghobadi & Ghasemi, 2015).

With regards to CS and its relation to functions of classroom management and interpersonal relations as defined by Ferguson (2009), studies have found teachers and students to use CS as they negotiate and aim to achieve the desired social distances. Ferguson (2009) explains that classroom management is more about shifting from content to discipline control, while the interpersonal relations function is more about humanisation of the classroom climate. Building student rapport appears from some studies to be the first CS strategy for creating interpersonal relations. It has been observed as an activity to build a harmonious relationship or closeness with students (Cahyani, 2015, p. 159). Ferguson's 2015 taxonomy is hierarchical in the sense that it covers more functions of classroom code switching (subject access) to fewer formal functions (classroom management and interpersonal relations). Relative to the theory of constructivism, the three functions fall under the cognitive and affective needs of the students (Probyn, 2009).

Yao (2011), in a study conducted in China using a questionnaire to study the four functions of CS in ESL classrooms, namely, teachers' persona, subject access, classroom management, and code switching for interpersonal relations, found language teachers and students in a local secondary school to have similar attitudes toward the functions of CS (Yao, 2011). The study also found that the functions of CS vary according to socio-environmental factors. For instance, since the students selected for the study were from senior year classes, teachers rarely code switched to

the first language, Chinese, to discipline students (Yao, 2012). The conclusion was that CS and its use could be influenced by the ages of the students.

A more recent definition of code switching describes it as a phenomenon that exists in bilingual societies where people have the opportunity to use two or more languages, to communicate. Being able to speak more than one language, bilinguals can code switch and use their languages as resources to find better ways to convey meaning (Itmeizeh, Ibnian & Sha'fout, 2017).

My study defines CS based on the study done by Itmeizeh et al. (2017)' as a phenomenon occurring within a context or situation where bilingual speakers make use of the grammatical systems and subsystems of two or more different languages to make association and comparisons in their interaction simultaneously or interchangeably within one or the same conversation to find better and more inclusive ways to convey meaning.

3.4 Past and Recent Research on Code Switching in other countries

Various studies have been conducted on code switching. These studies are discussed according to the objectives which guide the current study, namely; the teachers understanding and use of CS, how teachers of English in four rural high schools use CS, and the various reasons why they use it.

3.4.1 The teachers' use and understanding of code switching in the classroom

As has been discussed, most of the early studies conducted on code switching concentrated on the syntactic or morphosyntactic constraints on language interchange and language acquisition as a result of CS (Poplack, 1980; Sankoff & Poplack, 1981; Joshi, 1985; Belazi, Rubin & Toribio, 1994; Halmari, 1997). Several studies and theoretical works on second language acquisition and language learning refer to the term 'code switching' to describe either bilingual speakers' or language learners' cognitive linguistic abilities, or to describe classroom or learner practices that involve the use of more than one language (Romaine 1989; Fotos 2001). For these and other studies, the term 'code' refers to a system of language variety. These studies

investigated code switching in ESL classrooms through observing and analysing the use and the grammar of the Teacher Language and the L1. In these studies or observations, bilingual teachers were perceived to be using CS in their teaching of academic content in three ways: spontaneously, directly and intentionally. This was observed in the ability of these teachers to decide when it is appropriate to use L1 and when to switch to L2 for comprehension and meaningful involvement of students (Cook, 2001). Tikunoff (1985), Ovando and Collier (1985), and Mattson and Burenhult (1999) however, disagreed that teachers do this intentionally, and maintained that they do it unconsciously in the process of their teaching.

Studies done in educational settings, and that followed those conducted in the 1980s provided more evidence of teacher and learner code switching during classroom interaction. Both teachers and learners were found to utilize code switching to communicate and interact in the foreign language classroom (Anton & Dicamilla, 1999; Macaro, 2001; Martinez & Marcos, 2001; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Arnfast & Argensen, 2003).

More studies were conducted that looked specifically at high school code switching. A study done on four high school classes argued that the use of the native language provided a conducive environment for the correct understanding of the target language (Rolin-lanziti & Brownlie, 2002). A study supporting this argument was conducted by Macaro (2001) amongst high school learners, where French was the L2 and English was the L1 of the learners, utilising surveys, interviews, and classroom observation. It revealed that some academically motivated girls expected their teachers to use L1 sometimes to facilitate their understanding (Macaro, 2001). The findings in Macaro's study indicated that when teachers switched to the learners' L1, instructions in classroom activities and feedback to students became clearer, especially when translating and checking comprehension. Similarly, a study of five classes and four teachers in a French class, which used quantitative and qualitative methods, indicated that code switching involves three functions, namely, translation, metalinguistic uses and communicative uses (Rolin-lanziti & Brownlie, 2002). The findings indicated that the teachers observed in this study had a better understanding of the usefulness of code switching during classroom interaction.

Contrary to the conclusions from the above study, which looked at the use of L1 in learning a target language, a more recent study conducted in the USA among students enrolled in a foreign language course investigated the attitudes and perceptions of students towards code switching and the factors triggering these attitudes (Bailey (2011)). Using questionnaires, the results of the survey indicated that, when students developed language anxiety, this greatly impacted their perceptions and attitudes toward code switching (Bailey, 2011). Students with high language anxiety levels ultimately had more favourable attitudes toward their teachers' code switching than those with low language anxiety levels.

Another study looked at the communicative goals of teacher use of L1 in an ESL classroom. Through audio recordings of the classes, teacher interviews, and non-participant observations to collect qualitative data, the findings indicated that, firstly, the students' L1 was used by teachers in varying degrees in the ESL classroom to achieve several communicative goals, such as interactional, pedagogical and administrative goals (Makulloluwa, 2013). Secondly, most of the teachers in the study displayed a positive attitude towards using L1 in the classroom to fulfil two specific functions: to raise the low level of students' L2 comprehensibility, as well as, as a strategy to create a positive classroom atmosphere (Makulloluwa, 2013).

Similarly, a study aimed at studying the effects of the use of L1 in EFL beginner, advanced, and intermediate level classrooms amongst speakers of Persian as L1 and of English as L2 found that a switch to L1, whether initiated by the teacher or the student, increases the efficiency of information conveyed (Jamshidi & Navehebrahim, 2013). In other words, the use of the L1 use was found to help students to be more comfortable and competent in L2.

Johansson (2014) conducted a study in Sweden on code-switching in the ESL classroom to answer the question: "What teachers do and what their students wish they did". The purpose was to study some teachers' general views on code switching, when they code switched, as well as the specific purpose of doing so. Data collected through interviews and a questionnaire revealed five teachers who code switched even though the syllabus forbade the use of L1 in the teaching of English as L2. The results also indicated that 54% of the students preferred a combination of English and

Swedish when learning the grammar of English, 13% preferred Swedish, while a third of the students preferred only English to be used.

Lastly, a study involving 100 Arab students of various educational levels, nationalities and ages was conducted on the use of code-switching and code-mixing of English L2 and Arabic L1 (Abdullah, 2015). The study constituted Bachelors, Masters, and PhD level students at Aligarh Muslim University (AMU). Questionnaires used to collect data yielded results which indicated that most of the Arab L1 students at AMU code-switched and mixed English in their day-to-day interactions, and the reasons included their perceived lack of knowledge in English as a language and, therefore their desire to practise in order to improve (Abdullah, 2015).

3.4.2 The functional use of teacher code switching in the classroom

From as early as the 1970s, code switching has been viewed as fulfilling what Halliday (1975) terms the *interpersonal function* of communication. In this scenario, the mixed language that is spoken plays the role of a mediator between the self and the participants in the communicative event (Halliday, 1975).

Gumperz (1982) later introduced the discourse function of code switching, known as the *personalization* function of language. In this case, a speaker is perceived as playing upon the connotation of the *we-code* to create a conversational effect (Gumperz, 1982). Code switching then fulfils the relational and referential function of language that amounts to effective communication and interlingual unity. In fulfilling these functions, code switching acts as the medium to convey both social and linguistic meanings. This means that the speaker manipulates or creates a desired meaning through code switching. Table A provides examples from Gumperz (1982, p. 144) and from Kow and Cheng (2003, p. 61) of situations in which a speaker(s) may use, and the purposes for which they may use, CS to convey, clarify, or enhance meaning, as well as the circumstances under which code switching often takes place.

Table 3.1: Situations for meaning and circumstances for code switching

SITUATIONS	CIRCUMSTANCES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to appeal to the literate • to appeal to the illiterate • to convey precise meaning • to ease communication, i.e., utilizing the shortest and the easiest route • to negotiate with greater authority • to capture attention, i.e. stylistic, emphatic, emotional uses • to emphasize a point • to communicate more effectively • to identify with a particular group • to close the status gap • to establish goodwill and support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some activities have only been experienced in one of the languages • Some concepts are easier to express in one of the languages • A misunderstanding need to be clarified • One wishes to create a certain communication effect • One continues to speak the language most recently used because of the trigger effect • One wants to make a point • One wishes to express group solidarity • One wishes to exclude another person(s) from the dialogue.

Adapted from: Gumperz (1982, p. 144), Kow and Cheng (2003 pp. 61, 62)

The conditions favouring, or considered to require, code switching also determine the function the strategy aids or fulfils. According to Kow and Cheng (2003), the above list may allow the prediction of the category of conditions that act on a particular sociolinguistic context for code switching. For instance, when a person who lacks a word in English due to their limited vocabulary code switches by using the lexical component from his/her first language instead of English, the function would be to overcome the language barrier to meaning-making. Another condition would be where the speaker, whose intention is to express group solidarity, uses code switching. The function for the switch in this scenario would be to establish goodwill and rapport with that group (Kow & Chen, 2000; Zuraidah, 2003). In this manner, a series of conditions are easily established for the phenomenon of code switching, depending on the social context.

As a result, such communicative *functions* of codeswitching can also be listed according to the functions that they try to accomplish. Malik (1994), for instance, indicates the following ten communicative functions of CS:

(a) Lack of Facility

When bi/multilinguals lack an appropriate expression or vocabulary item, or when the language of the conversation indicates that the speaker(s) do not possess the particular word(s) desirable to carry on the conversation smoothly, the speakers lack facility in their interchange (Malik, 1994 in Azlan & Narasuman, 2013). The term 'lack of facility' denotes a scenario where bilingual or multilingual speakers who often code-switch are unable to obtain the appropriate terminology or identical word(s) from the L2 vocabulary to match the word(s) of their native language, or their L1 (Muthusamy, 2009, p. 4). For instance, the English term 'social drinker' does not have an equivalent in Malay because drinking is not allowed in Islam (Muthusamy, 2009, p. 4).

(b) Lack of Register

'Lack of Register' often happens when speakers are not equally competent in two languages, and when the speakers do not know the terms in either of the two languages. When "a certain vocabulary is not available to a speaker in the first language, he or she switches to the second language during a dialogue" (Muthusamy, 2009 in Azlan & Narasuman, 2013, p. 459). In other cases, certain phrases would often sound better in the L2 than in the L1 (Anderson, 2006, p. 38). This usually triggers code switching. For example, "*La clase de hoy fue way over my head.*" (Today's class was way over my head). The phrase "over my head" is a colourful metaphoric English phrase meaning "beyond my understanding" (Azlan & Narasuman, 2013, p. 459).

(c) Mood of the Speaker

When bilinguals are tired or angry (emotional), code switching occurs with a new dimension (Malik, 1994). In normal circumstances, when the speaker is in a calm or stable state of mind, he/she is often able to think of the appropriate word or expression in the target language (Muthusmy, 2009). That is, he/she very often

knows the exact word in both language X and Y; however, language Y might be more accessible at a time when the speaker's mind has been disturbed, or thrown out of equilibrium (Muthusamy, 2009). At this moment, the mood of the speaker would determine the language(s) to be used. Therefore, code switching can be prompted when the speaker is emotionally affected, for instance, upset, excited, tired, happy, surprised, scared or distracted (Crystal, 1987 in Azlan & Narasuman, 2013).

(d) To emphasize a point

In code switching speakers also switch languages to place emphasis on a point. There are a few instances where a switch at the end of an argument not only assists in finishing/rounding off the interaction, but also serves to emphasise a point (Gal, 1979). In other cases, a speaker wanting to stress, or draw attention to, a specific statement would code switch to the other language. For instance,

“Llamé pero no había nadie. I missed him so bad!” (“I called but there was no one there. I missed him so bad!”) (Anderson, 2006, p. 38).

In this case, the switch from Spanish (L1) to English (L2) emphasises the speaker's affection towards a certain individual (Azlan & Narasuman, 2013). Emphasis also takes place when the same statement is repeated in two different languages (Azlan & Narasuman, 2013). In another study, Arab teachers teaching English often made statements or points in English and repeated them in Arabic for emphasis of the statement/point, or for assisting the students to understand what was being taught in class (Taha, 2008, p. 341).

(e) Habitual Experience

In code switching, a switch sometimes occurs through habitual experience. In this context, code switching often occurs in fixed or habitual phrases of greeting and parting, commands and requests, invitation, expressions of gratitude and discourse markers (Malik, 1994). Other popular discourse markers like, “you know”, “I mean”, “like”, or “but”, which may be placed before or in the middle of a sentence and can sometimes be used in the other language. For instance, “Oyes (listen) or “pero” (but) in Spanish (Malik, 1994). In this context, fixed phrases frequently/habitually happen naturally within a dialogue. An example of a “habitually mixed discourse” within a Malaysian courtroom is provided, where

Malay is used as the dominant language but a law term in English is inserted; “Kes merupakan arrest case atau kes saman?” (“Is this an arrest case or a summons case?”) (David, 2003 in Azlan & Narasuman, 2013).

(f) Semantic significance

Malik (1994) and Gumperz (1977; 1982) emphasise the fact that switching at a specific moment bears semantically important information. It is a communicative means that builds on the participant's/s' awareness of two languages. The lexical or vocabulary choice made carries particular meaning during codeswitching. Listeners interpret codeswitching as a measure or indication of the speaker's attitude, communicative intents, and emotions, since, according to Gal (1979), code switching can be seen as a resource for transmitting appropriate linguistic and social information (Gal, 1979). When bilingual speakers decide to convey their attitudes or emotions to each other through code switching, this is termed 'verbal strategy' (Choy, 2011, p. 25).

(g) To show identity with a group (Solidarity)

Individuals have been found to code switch when wanting to express solidarity with a particular social group (Jingxia, 2010). When the group responds with a similar switch, then a rapport is created (Skiba, 1997). This is similar to a classroom situation where a teacher code-switches in order to build solidarity or rapport, and associate by means of friendly relations with her/his students. In this scenario, code switching establishes a supportive language environment for students in the classroom (Sert, 2005). In a study which explored "the functions of code switching in TEFL classrooms" through classroom observations, the researcher found that code switching served the purpose of self-expression, and that language was modified in order to achieve personal intentions for building intimate interpersonal relationships among members of a bilingual community, as well as forming exclusive linguistic solidarity amongst individuals who share a similar ethno-cultural identity (Sert, 2005).

(h) To address a different audience

Code switching can be used to address individuals coming from different linguistic backgrounds and circumstances to those of the speaker (Malik, 1994). In this case, code switching is implemented as part of a welcoming speech accepting someone new to a communicative event (Malik, 1994). This may also happen with speakers and addressees from identical linguistic backgrounds (Holmes, 2001, p. 35).

(i) Pragmatic or logical reasons

Speakers could code switch to draw attention to the context of a conversation (Malik, 1994 in Muthusamy, 2009). For example, when discussing dieting, a speaker could “stress his personal feelings about the issue using L1, and then stress a referential context, which is a piece of advice from his doctor in L2” (Holmes, 2001, p.41).

(j) To attract attention.

In India, with its many languages, dialects and varieties, English language newspapers encompass non-English vocabulary, such as words and phrases from Hindi or other Indian languages with the aim of attracting readers’ attention (Malik,1994 in Muthusamy, 2009), and increasing their readership (Muthusamy, 2009). The reader in this case uses his or her language schemata to understand the message conveyed in the newspaper (Muthusamy, 2009).

Yletyinen’s (2004) study conducted in Finland focused on the functions of code switching in the discourse of TEFL classrooms. Scrutinising secondary school lessons, he found that Finnish - their first language - was used more by learners than by teachers to have private conversations during the classes in Finnish.

A qualitative study incorporating 50 hours of observations in Iranian EFL classrooms, and audio-recordings of four class performances. which investigated the types and functions of CS, as well as, gender preferences at an intermediate English Proficiency in these classrooms, indicated that teachers used CS in their attempt to give Persian equivalents of English words and expressions (Rahimi & Jafari, 2011). In their study CS use was observed even when students carried on with assigned tasks. When

questionnaires were provided for them to indicate their attitudes toward CS use in the classroom, the majority of teachers and students felt it should not be used too much even though they recognised that it facilitated their interactions.

Code switching has also been found to serve affective or repetitive purposes or functions. Affective functions refer to the expression of emotions where, for instance, CS is used by teachers to build intimate relations with the students, such as greeting others, and for creating a supportive language environment in the classroom, as described in g) above. For a repetitive function of code switching the teacher uses CS to transfer the necessary knowledge to students for clarification purposes, such as clarifying a sentence or a meaning for more effective comprehension.

Skiba (1997), Sert (2005), and Jingxia (2010) all indicate that CS occurs between bilingual and multilingual speakers to create solidarity between those who share the same ethno-cultural identity, to “manipulate or influence or define the situation as they wish, and to convey nuances of meaning and personal intention” (Trudgill, 2000, p. 105). In a multilingual and diverse setting, such as the South African one, CS is often used for those democratisation purposes which mainly relate to equality, coming together, creating national unity, and fostering mutual understanding and respect (Slabbert & Finlayson, 1999). It offers speakers multiple identities associated with each code in one conversation (Myers-Scotton, 1993). Teachers in such settings have been observed to code switch between African languages to accommodate the linguistic repertoires of learners. They instantaneously negotiate English as an official language of instruction by code-switching between English and the home language(s) of the learners to explain concepts (Slabbert & Finlayson, 1999; Nordin, 2013).

Since the two languages used in code switching often emanate from, and are part of, different cultural backgrounds and have therefore different phonological and grammatical properties, educators often find themselves faced with the task of simplifying the vocabulary and phrases utilised in the target language, and as a result find themselves having to resort to code-switching for the following reasons presented by Nordin (2013):

- the provision of students with sufficient input in the two languages for them to derive grammatical and lexical information;

- the enabling of students with differing language proficiencies to focus on learning language concepts presented during content instruction,
- the provision of a way of establishing equal prestige for both languages within the classroom setting, and the likelihood of encouraging a balanced distribution of the two languages,
- the encouragement of the kind of language behaviour commonly used among bilinguals who are proficient in both languages, and
- keeping the students on task and thus contributing to the accumulation of academic learning time (Nordin, 2013).

In a study done by Magid & Mugaddam (2013) in Sudan and Saudi Arabia, CS was used to fulfil various functions: to explain meaning and difficult words, to guide interpretation, transmit lesson content, illustrate grammatical rules, organize ESL classrooms, for praising and encouraging students, and in expanding interactions of ESL classrooms towards facilitating the ESL learning process. In Gulzar's (2014) study of the role of teacher code switching to L1 in the English language classrooms of Pakistani institutions, CS was found to be a useful source that assisted teachers to emphasize, clarify, and to check the understanding of the students in a more effective way than was the case using L2 only, developing pupils' understanding of subject content, as well as humanising the classroom climate.

Nilep (2006) examined code switching using a sociocultural linguistics framework. The studies of identity and codeswitching revealed that a close observation of discourse can produce empirically and theoretically rich understandings of the functions of language variation in social interactions. Similarly, speakers may switch codes to indicate a change in situation, shifting the relevance of social roles, or using alternative ways of understanding a conversational contribution. In this manner, language users were found to be switching codes to contextualize communication.

Other scholars have conducted studies to determine the reasons, types, and functions of both Code-Mixing (CM) and Code-Switching (CS). Ayeomoni (2006) pointed out the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic reasons in his study. Sociolinguistic reasons relate to language and its relationship to social factors, such as gender differences, class,

type of dialect, and bilingualism (Dictionary.com). Psycholinguistic reasons pertain to relationships between behaviour and psychological processes, including the language acquisition process (Dictionary.com). Further reasons, such as self-pride, integrity, comfortability, prestige, and status were identified (Ayeomoni, 2006). Other linguists identified westernization, modernization, professionalism, efficiency and social advancement as significant reasons for CS use (Akere, 1977; Hymes, 1962; Kachru, 1989; Kamwangamalu, 1989).

Badrul, and Kamaruzaman (2009) studied teachers code- switching in Malaysian university classes for low English language proficient learners. A random sampling survey of two hundred and ninety students was conducted using a piloted questionnaire. The findings indicated that 72.7 percent of the respondents acknowledged the use of code switching when teachers were explaining the meaning of new words, while 71 percent indicated that teachers used code switching to elaborate on matters relating to classroom management.

Abdul-Zahra (2010), in her study in Iraq on code -switching in language, attempted to answer the question "Why do bilinguals switch languages?". The researcher found that the speaker is the one in charge of the code choice and that a high correlation exists between a speaker's patterns of language choice and his/her social network, that is, the speaker's contacts in the community. Similarly, an earlier study by Bell (1991, pp. 69-102) found that "the interlocutor or audience is the key inspiration behind variation in speech style.... [and] that switching occurs when speakers wish to convey their attitude to the listener, for the native language (we-code) is used to show formality".

According to Bista (2010) the most fluent code switching transpires instinctively without the interlocutors even realising they have been switching codes. In other instances, switching to L1 was found to be the student's initiative where, for instance, a student would request the teacher to elucidate an area of uncertainty in her L1, and the teacher had to accommodate the situation (Bista, 2010). This confirms earlier findings by Rolin-lanziti and Brownlie (2002) who found that code switching is sometimes prompted by the students.

In a study by Cahyani (2015) which looked at certain features and functions of code switching shown when used by teachers and students in three bilingual classrooms, the functions of code switching were classified as (1) knowledge construction and transmission, (2) classroom management, (3) interpersonal relationships, and (4) expressing personal affective meaning. Firstly, for knowledge construction and transmission teachers used code switching “to bridge the gap of knowledge, as well as bridge students' understanding through re-iteration of information, connecting students to local understanding, emphasising a point, elaborating information, using special terms in context and to make or request clarification” (Cahyani, 2015, p. 160). Secondly, teachers were also found to code switch for the purposes of classroom management, managing tasks and disciplining students' behaviour. Teachers also code switched from English to Bahasa Indonesia to obtain and maintain students' attention, to signal a shift in topic (signal a change of events), as well as to warn or prompt students or introduce a topic. Code switching from Bahasa Indonesia to English invited student's participation and was intended to signal a shift in topic/participation, reminding students, and closing a session (Cahyani 2015, pp.161). Thirdly, teachers also used code switching for strengthening interpersonal relationships where they intended humanising the classroom through, for instance, making a joke, reducing students' anxiety, giving praise, and building rapport (Cahyani, 2015, pp.162). Lastly, teachers used code switched to express personal affective meanings in their attempt to identify with the place where the language was being spoken, save face, and express a personal feeling (Cahyan, 2015). Personal affective functions refer to “spontaneous expression of emotions and emotional understanding in discourse with students” (Flyman-Mattson & Burenhult, 1999, pp.65-66 in Cahyani, 2015, p.182). This type of code switching is said to be triggered by personal experience and may be connected to the experiential, subconscious and cognitive behaviour of the speakers.

A more recent study exploring the causes of Code Switching by Low Level EFL learners at Jazan University, Saudi Arabia, was conducted observing both teachers' and students' discourse(s) (Masrahi, 2016). The study employed a questionnaire to gather data from 29 participants who were qualified EFL teachers, seeking to elicit and gauge teachers' perceptions of code switching. Participants in this study were teachers at Jazan University who came from multilingual backgrounds and were of

various nationalities. Based on their observation of student code switching, teachers indicated that students switched codes for various reasons including their learning as well as social factors (Masrahi, 2016). The study also found code switching to be useful in facilitating learners if they lacked lexical or syntactical information (Masrahi, 2016).

Lastly, three researchers, in a recent study conducted at a University College in Palestine in EFL classes, observed that teachers tended to switch for social and linguistic purposes (Itmeizeh et al., 2017). For instance, code-switching was used for understanding what the teacher had said, particularly while explaining grammatical rules, difficult concepts, and when teachers provided explanations of grammatical aspects or items, as well as, in class tests to be administered (Itmeizeh et al., 2017). Teachers also code switched when establishing contact with the learners. The function of giving instructions for completing tasks was the only one where code switching was the least used.

3.4.3 Code-Switching in Southern African educational contexts

In spite of the vast number of studies that have been conducted globally on classroom code switching since the 1980s and up till very recently, very few recent studies exist on the functions and occurrences of code switching in a South African context, including studies on teachers' reasons for, and attitudes towards, using CS in this context. This is particularly the case with studies in rural high schools in KwaZulu-Natal. While important studies were done in the 1990s by scholars such as Adendorff (1996) and by Slabbert and Finlayson (1998), these did not focus specifically on rural schools. This is the gap this study aims to fill.

Most studies already discussed indicate that CS happens automatically and unconsciously (Skiba, 1997; Jingxia, 2010). They further indicate that it happens between bilingual and multilingual speakers to create solidarity between those who share the same ethno-cultural identity (Skiba, 1997; Sert, 2005). This is supported by Trudgill's (2000) definition of code switching, which stipulates that "speakers switch to manipulate or influence or define the situation as they wish, and to convey nuances of

meaning and personal intention" (Trudgill, 2000, p.105). The following paragraphs present a discussion of code switching in the South African context.

In a multilingual setting such as South African, CS has been perceived by scholars in the field, such as Slabbert and Finlayson (1999), to provide an accommodation function which incorporates the concept of the new democracy, achieved after the 1994 elections, and as a practice which mainly relates to equality, the coming together of diverse cultural and language groups, mutual understanding, and respect (Slabbert & Finlayson, 1999). In South Africa, somewhat idealistically known as the rainbow nation, because of the nature of its multilingual setting, CS has an important and challenging role to play to accommodate all of the eleven official languages. CS has been perceived by scholars, such as Myers-Scotton (1993), to offer speakers multiple identities associated with each code in one conversation. Thipa (1992), in her study on rural and urban Xhosa varieties, offered an example where a native speaker who was bilingual often resorted to CS as a result of his/her unfamiliarity or ignorance of an appropriate word in his/her L1. In the case of the Zulu-English contexts in which teachers in KwaZulu-Natal find themselves, CS may play a similar role to that suggested in Thipa (1992). In this case bilingual speakers, in a context where they are obliged to be speaking English, often resort to Zulu, a language they are most familiar with.

In the process of accommodation discussed in the above paragraph, three strategies utilized by speakers as they code switch are suggested (Slabbert & Finlayson, 1999; Myers-Scotton, 1993). Firstly, two inter-locuters may each be speaking two different indigenous languages which, in each case, are their first languages. Secondly, the dominant language of a community may be the one most utilized in that context. Thirdly, a speaker may use CS to repeat what he had just stated in English, in the language of the addressee to ensure the message is understood.

South African language scholars in the field of multilingualism and multilingual education contexts, such as Lockett (1993) and Heugh (1995), proposed an additive bilingual model in the 1990s, which became a cornerstone of proposals for new policies on language in education, such as the 1997 LiEP. The model proposed that both the learner's/learners' home language and additional language(s) should be

utilized as languages of learning and teaching. According to previous studies, and studies current at the time, such as those by Slabbert and Finlayson (1999) and Kamwangamalu (1998), and, more recently, Nordin (2013), teachers have been observed to code switch between African languages to accommodate the linguistic repertoires of learners. They instantaneously/spontaneously negotiate English as an official language of instruction by code-switching between English and the home languages of the learners to explain concepts. In these cases, the use of L1 in the classroom also assists in managing the class, discussing and clarifying grammar, improving vocabulary and usage, and discussing tests, quizzes, and other assignments (Levine, 2003).

Another South African study, conducted by Adendorff (1993) in the 1990s, which looked at the functions of code switching and the implications of Zulu-English code switching among Zulu-speaking teachers and their learners, found code switching to occur between the two languages, and that it fulfilled social functions, such as, signalling solidarity or authority, and building relationships, as well as reiteration for academic purposes to ensure the adequate communication of content (Adendorff, 1996, p. 19 in Strauss, 2016). The findings of Adendorff's South African study coincide with the findings of studies done elsewhere, such as those of Gumperz (1982) and Then and Ting (2009), both of which found CS to be functional in reiteration, while Myers-Scotton (2006) also found CS to be a useful tool in creating solidarity.

Kieswetter (1995), in an urban context of Johannesburg, explored instances of CS between English, Zulu and Swazi among high school learners in an English-medium school. CS was noted to be used as a dynamic conversational strategy reflecting learners' dual identities. In Lawrence's (1999) study at a teacher training college where English-Afrikaans was a language of communication, CS was regarded as a strategy for effective communication among Afrikaans and Xhosa L1 speakers.

Another CS study conducted in a Southern African context involving indigenous languages and English was an ethnographic study conducted by Arthur (1996), which studied classroom interaction between teachers and learners in two Botswana primary schools. The study had as its focus the prestigious position held by English in

language and other subjects education, and the significant marginalization of Setswana and other indigenous languages in Botswana schools. The education system in Botswana was designed in such a way that Setswana is the language of learning and teaching during the first four years of primary, and is also the official national language, while other indigenous languages have no official role in classroom interaction (Arthur, 1996, p. 17). This situation has since changed as Mokibelo (2016) notes that, in spite of the twenty-eight languages spoken in Botswana, only two are recognised, namely Setswana as national language, while English serves as the official language of the country. Arthur's observation at the time was that, after Grade 6, in classroom interaction, in an abrupt transition, English became the language of learning and teaching, and one of the ground rules of classroom discourse observed by learners in the classes was that there should be no code switching from English to Setswana (Arthur, 1996, pp. 17- 18). The communication interactions that were occurring in class at the time of the study, where teachers were the only ones with access to Setswana, were termed "institutionalized or traditional phenomenon of recitation routines" (Arthur 1996, p. 18), which were inherited from resolutions executed during colonial rule. These resolutions enforced the utilisation of a foreign language as medium of instruction. The researcher noted at the time that effective learning and teaching outcomes, and satisfactory classroom interactions, were able to be achieved through (unofficial) code switching from English to Setswana in these classrooms, and that this often offered insight into teacher-pupil involvement in a face-saving effort (Arthur, 1996, p.18). Teachers were also found to be uncertain in their views of CS, since they believed that adhering to the language policy implied the exclusive use of English in classrooms, while their personal and professional instincts led them to code-switch in response to pupils' communicative needs (Arthur 1996, p. 21). Teachers were found to use discourse-related code-switching to contextualise or give encouragement to, or praise, learners (Arthur 1996, p. 21), and in this way were able to enhance their clarifications conveyed to the learners. The examples of switches from English to Setswana were perceived in the use of tag questions, like *ga ke ra* ("isn't it?") and the use of expressions of solidarity like *Buela go godimo tsala ya me* ("stand up my friend") (Arthur 1996, p. 21). The reasons given by teachers for the switches were to facilitate English contributions made by learners (Arthur 1996, p. 21).

A study investigating Zulu-English CS in a primary school found that learners used CS for expressing solidarity, defiance, desire for inclusion or exclusion, and neutrality (Ncoko, Osman & Cockcroft, 2000). In addition, CS was used pedagogically for reiteration and adequate transfer of meaning (Ncoko et al., 2000, pp. 233, 237).

Another, later South African study done by Ramsay-Brijball (2003, 2004) on the role of Zulu-English CS in the construction of identity by Zulu L1 students at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Westville found that Zulu-English CS was used by students to define themselves and express their aspirations (Ramsay-Brijball, 2004, p. 151).

Other South African studies investigated Afrikaans-English code-switching. A study by Uys (2010) investigated Afrikaans-English code switching among teachers and learners in the Northern Cape. This study found that the reasons for the use of CS included clarifying and explaining for academic purposes, maintaining social relationships for social reasons, as well as reprimanding for classroom management purposes. A similar study also investigated Afrikaans-English code switching at an all-girl former "Model C" high school in the Western Cape (Rose, 2006). This study recorded the functions of CS as better self-explanation, expressing oneself differently, as well as in order to be accommodative of others who were using a different language. Although the two studies explored CS occurring in Afrikaans and English, they also contribute to the current study in terms of their description of the functions of code switching in a bilingual classroom situation.

In a study on the use of L1 within second and foreign language contexts, which reviewed global literature on Cs beliefs and practices of teachers in various bilingual contexts, the utilisation of multilingual resources in interactions in classroom settings was found to be often frowned upon in this review of global literature on teacher beliefs and practices of CS in various bilingual education contexts (Chimbutane, as cited in Strauss, 2016, p. 24). To illustrate this, Chimbutane (2013, p. 314) refers to a Canadian study by Cook (2001) which endorsed the existence of two different perceptions of, and attitudes to, code-switching in these contexts, both negative and positive perceptions. There were those who opposed CS, who regarded the use of L1 as an interference in developing the target language, which then justified the banning of L1 from L2 monolingual programmes. Those who favoured the use of CS

held the view that L1 involvement has the potential to increase pupils' openness to learning the L2, and, in addition, can facilitate communication, since it reduces the degree of language challenge and anxiety, and cultural shock (Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2001; 2006). In spite of the negative perceptions of CS indicated in some of the literature, Chimbutane (2013, p. 315), referring to literature on interaction in multilingual classroom settings, maintains that utilising multilingual resources in teaching and learning acts as a communicative and pedagogical strategy which enables learners' comprehension of the target language. Chimbutane (2013, p. 315) reported on the different positions taken by various researchers and theorists regarding the use of L1 in classrooms with L2 learners, ranging from total exclusion of L1 on the one hand to its optimal use on the other (Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2001; Turnbull, 2001) The "optimal use" of CS in broadly communicative classrooms was seen by champions of CS, as having the potential to improve L2 acquisition and proficiency more effectively than the use of second or target language exclusively, while also presuming a principled utilisation of L1 in these learning contexts (Macaro, as cited in Chimbutane (2013, p. 316).

More recent South African studies have looked at existing perceptions of language status and use in the country and in classroom contexts. These studies have looked at the status that is awarded English and Afrikaans versus indigenous or African languages. One study indicated that the ecology metaphor stresses the significance of support and opportunities that should be given to languages spoken in a region (Hornberger, as cited in Mashiyi, 2014). This perception can be seen to be perpetuated in the 1997 Language in Education Policy which – in theory and on paper - promotes multilingualism, and according to which teachers should be allowed to employ African languages as resources for promoting understanding in the classroom. The LiEP appears to be promoting multilingualism when in fact it is subtractive bilingualism that it promotes (Guzula et al., 2016). This means African learners discontinue using their indigenous language from Grade 4 onwards, thus being coerced into learning and speaking English, a language which is unfamiliar to them, and which they continue to struggle in as they find the increase in subjects, the books written in English, low literacy in their first language, as well as, poor proficiency in English challenging (Guzula et al., 2016). African language speaking learners are perpetually constructed as monolingual English children with a deficit (Guzula et al., 2016). The greatest

challenge facing teachers and lecturers in their creative use of both the LoLT and CS in their classrooms is that, although they are in theory allowed to employ indigenous language in their teaching, question papers are still not bilingual except for those few that are available in both English-Afrikaans. In addition, there is to date little or no student support through tutorship, and some African languages, such as isiXhosa, in spite of efforts by PRAESA and other promoters of indigenous languages, still lack comprehensive dictionaries and lists of definitions of technical terms which would facilitate learning, particularly in the sciences and in technology (Aziakpono & Bekker, 2010).

A substantial body of research indicates that code switching among African students has been used successfully to mediate knowledge and new information using that which is known: a language that is both familiar and relevant to students' life-world experiences (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014, p. 213). This is because the switch that children are experiencing from monolingual African language to monolingual English has led to the creation of children with a deficit, lacking comprehension, and in need of remedial assistance, such as matric intervention, as they tend not be proficient in any of the languages they speak, read or write (Guzula et al., 2016). Even the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) which appears to be normalising and embedding the unexpected switch to English as LoLT from Grade 4 actually represents the LiEP since it neither supports L1 education nor bilingual education (Guzula et al., 2016). This then necessitates the incorporation of code switching in English classes which has been observed to serve the purpose of enhancing understanding, promoting discussions, peer-assisted learning, as well as encouraging links with the community served by a particular course (Mashiya, 2014).

As an alternate use of two or more languages within the same utterance or during the same conversation (Hoffman, 1991, p. 110; Myers-Scotton, 1993), code switching has been strategically used in South African education contexts to construct explanations and offer clarifications on subject content, assist learners, and encourage participation, manage the classroom, and create "humour as a marker of bilingual identity" (Uys & van Dulm, 2011, p. 67; Mashiya, 2014). Ndlangamandla (2010) noted that the fact that code switching, and code-mixing are still regularly utilised in de-

segregated high schools in South Africa indicates that African languages continue to be maintained and recognised, and are therefore under no threat of extermination.

Building on the findings and conclusions of Meyer (2000), a study conducted in a South African context in a Chemistry classroom, a growing body of knowledge acknowledges the existing predicaments experienced by Black/African learners who learn through the medium of English as second language. Hibbert and van der Walt (2014), for instance, describe these predicaments when they outline the difficulties many Africa-language speakers experience on entering the English-dominated environment of higher education. In support of suggested solutions to this predicament Gee (2008) argues that secondary courses which incorporate words, deeds and values, are compatible with one's primary discourses. Based on this assumption, attempts have been and are being made in the South African context to meet and utilise the nature of the linguistic hybridity of these learners to enable them to succeed (Ramani & Joseph, 2006, p. 449).

In another South African study conducted at an institution of higher learning, the use of indigenous language was found to be limited to oral-code switching during classroom teaching (Mashiya, 2014, p. 157). She found in her study that lecturers were stressing the significance of using English in formal writing due to the fact that questions in examination papers cannot be answered using the L1 of students. The argument/justification of these lecturers was that, although the 1997 LiEP promotes multilingualism, the reality is that examination papers are still presented in English and, in addition, examiners and moderators do not match the linguistic profiles of those being tested (p. 157). The study's findings also indicated that L1 was being used to reward the academic experience (Mashiya, 2014). Her study also highlighted the fact that some lecturers did in fact use code switching to allow students to facilitate discussions to promote student-centred discussions, and also to embrace the multiplicity of languages and cultural backgrounds that exists in South African higher education. However, regarding the extent to which L1 could or should be used to achieve the above, other lecturers felt it should be done to a limited extent (Mashiya, 2014). In Mashiya's (2014) study, the way in which Xhosa language was used, or permitted to be used, was represented by one lecturer as a statement to reflect and affirm the unequal power relations between this lecturer and the students. The lecturer

'occasionally' allowed students to use their L1 but also insisted that they use English only for formal reporting and for written work. In this manner, the lecturer was setting the agenda (platform) for language use in a top-down way, by either sanctioning or encouraging the use of different languages, according to her own agenda or rules. At the institution of higher learning, the site of Mashiyi's (2014) study, teaching was taking place mainly in English, with isiXhosa to a lesser or greater extent serving the purpose of promoting understanding. In this case, it was the Language in Education Policy provisions and the shared linguistic profiles that were driving the general classroom practice at the HEI. Her study revealed lecturer practices as they attempted to use African languages to either attempt to support the learning of L2 students in a predominantly English LoLT education context, or to maintain and embrace the hegemonic status of English (Mashiyi, 2014).

Hibbert and van de Walt (2014) argue that African languages, unlike European languages, still need consolidated various terminology projects in order to have a place in academia. And, even though there exist substantial written literary works, dictionaries, and terminology lists in these languages, they still lag in terms of modern terminology in comparison to those texts in colonial languages (Finlayson & Madiba, 2002, p. 40). This is because the apartheid government did little to accommodate and develop African languages to meet the demands of academic disciplines (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014). Ramani and Joseph (2006, p. 205) argue that African languages in their current state can therefore not be used as languages of teaching and learning for students to engage with cognitively challenging tasks. Their argument is that, if the project is undertaken seriously and systematically, terminology evolves over a period as part of curriculum development, and this means that terminology development can no longer be used as an excuse for avoiding African languages in academic contexts (p. 218). Leeuw (2014) posits that terminology development in African languages can also be representative of indigenous knowledge systems that provide a much-needed alternative to Western thought, while also connecting learners and students to local contexts because familiar perceptions and practices can be empowering. This argument is also relevant to the current student demands for 'decolonising' the curriculum.

Findings in another recent South African study indicate the need for an infused teaching strategy to assist L2 learners to understand the target language, and subject matter delivered in this language, and to comprehend all assessment questions (Songxaba, Coetzer & Molepo, 2017). These researchers recommend a gradual move from a high tolerance of CS in lower classes to a lower tolerance in higher classes. They base this recommendation on the pedagogical principle of moving from the known to the unknown. The conclusion reached in their study was that, the clearer awareness and understanding teachers had of their learners' needs, the more they tended to code switch accordingly in their L2 classroom, as they knew that this was the only way to move forward in a lesson (Songxaba et al., 2017). Since the teachers participating in the study were also L2 speakers of Afrikaans, they would use CS in such a way as to ensure that they were clearly understood in class. This study found teachers were meeting their learners halfway in the language learning process by using CS as a language teaching strategy and resource. However, due to the existing language-in-education policies and curriculum expectations, learners' needs could not be accommodated in any of the assessments that L2 learners had to complete (Songxaba et al., 2017).

3.4.4 Teachers' attitudes towards code switching in English Language high school classrooms

Teacher attitudes toward the use of CS in an ESL classroom may be linked to the notion of additive and subtractive bilingualism described by Romaine (1997) and Skutnabb-Kangas (1984). Forty years ago, in his hypothesis, Cummins (1997) posited that the effective use of first language to promote the second language could be dictated by the relative dominance of the first and second languages. Accordingly, since additive bilingualism is attained when proficiency in both languages is achieved, it is only when this is achieved that the first language may be used to supplement the use of a second language (Cummins, 1997). However, when an imbalance or low level in both languages is observed, the outcome mostly indicates a risk of having no or negative cognitive effects in using the first language to teach the second language (Cummins, 1997). Her study ascertains that, in a worse case-scenario, semilingualism is produced (Cummins, 1997). According to such findings and theories of learning in multilingual contexts, it is possible, therefore for teachers to have differentials in their

attitudes towards classroom CS according to their perceived knowledge of their students' language profiles and abilities.

In countries with official monolingual policies, the utilisation of home language in ESL classrooms is often either forbidden or indicated as a sign of low language proficiency. In countries where submersion programs are implemented, subtractive bilingualism becomes the ultimate outcome (Romaine, 1997; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1984). However, some countries that implement immersion English programs, authorise the use of home language to teach a second language. This is evident in countries, such as Malaysia, which promotes a bi- and multilingual policy in education (Ales, 2006), even though this is not explicitly stated or encouraged, nor is there any written policy forbidding such practices. In such a case, the program seeks to promote and produce additive bilingualism (Romaine, 1997; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1984). In these contexts, the teachers' attitudes towards code-switching may inevitably be influenced by the official language policy in place, which also tends to be closely connected to the political, economic and social status(es) of the language(s) in use (Tan & Low, 2017).

Secondly, in cases where the linguistic profiles of learners are mostly diverse, the differences are mostly perceived in the number and categories of their home languages. In officially monolingual countries, such as, Japan and China, the majority of learners have been exposed to a single language in their communities, irrespective of their L1 or variety of the official language (Tan & Low, 2017). In this case, learning a second language would require more effort on the part of students, in comparison to students whose immediate context is – and/or is accepted as - multilingual. Such examples are Singapore, Malaysia, Brunei, and South Africa. The use of home language in teaching ESL largely depends on whether the teachers are tapping into the home language(s) of their learners as supporting or transitional aid(s), or whether the teachers are hindering their students' relative potentials for learning English by violating the "swim or sink" rule (Baker, as cited in Tan and Low, 2017, p.109).

Thirdly, teachers' characteristics also tend to be diverse. Teachers' attitudes towards classroom code-switching are to a lesser or greater extent reliant on their experience in teaching, their own teacher training backgrounds, their adherence and faithfulness to the official language policy in place, as well as the principles they hold in relation to

the functions of classroom code-switching (Vaish, 2012). Teachers can also differ in their teaching philosophies and pedagogical preferences (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009). In a comparative study de la Campa and Nassaji (2009) found that a novice teacher was using more first language for translation and administrative instruction purposes in comparison to the experienced teacher who opted for more use of the first language for making personal comment and for portraying his image as a bilingual speaker. Another reason for the varying use of CS by teachers could be the different competency levels in the second language the teachers have that would lead them to react in different ways to students with different language proficiency levels (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Kang, 2013). For instance, in a Korean study by Kang (2013), the participating EFL teacher with higher English proficiency was found to use more English than the first language in class, while her less proficient in English counterpart was found to use more first language, especially when teaching students from lower socio-economic levels.

Fourthly, the differing teacher attitudes towards CS in an ESL classroom could be related to different school contexts. The studies on classroom code switching conducted globally in both urban and rural areas indicate that, in metropolitan cities, such as those in Singapore and Quebec, schools are attended by students from a diverse range of immigrant families (Breton-Carbonneau et al., 2012; Vaish, 2012). Teachers in this scenario are faced with the demands of addressing the different language learning and comprehension needs of students in relation to their readiness to perform in ESL classes. For instance, in a study conducted by Strauss (2016) in a rural high school in Uppington, teachers and learners were found to interact using Afrikaans, English and Tswana to “explain, confirm understanding, expand and seek clarity” (Strauss, 2016, p. 64). The switches indicated code switching as an unmarked choice (Myers-Scotton, 1993, p. 114). In addition, a study conducted in a peri-urban area indicated negative teacher attitudes towards learner code switching in the classroom (Mokgwathi, 2013). The study found that teachers of Setswana were more opposed to CS use in the classroom than teachers of other subjects (Mokgwathi, 2013). This was unexpected because one would expect speakers of L1 to have more interest in using their L1 where necessary in their teaching of English as second language.

Furthermore, a study conducted in rural settings in the Caprivi region of Namibia found teachers to have a positive view of CS since they found it useful in enhancing learner academic achievement, the manner in which learners answered questions, as well as, the teaching of English as L2 (Simasiku, Kasanda & Smit, 2015). In contrast, schools in urban areas typically consist of homogeneous groups of students (Probyn, 2009). Teachers in these contexts face a different set of challenges in ESL teaching, relative to the lack of resources, and the culture and language mismatch with the students, as well as lack of community support for the students to reinforce their learning of English beyond the classroom (Probyn, 2009). Some teachers have, therefore, reported positive attitudes towards classroom code-switching as they see it as the only means and resource to support learning.

Despite the fact that most studies have highlighted the critical success factors for using CS in ESL classroom, some studies have found negative attitudes on the part of both teachers and students towards the utilisation of CS in an ESL classroom. These studies have shown users of CS, that include teachers and students, to have negative attitudes toward, and to resist, the use of L1 in the teaching of L2. These teachers and students view CS as detrimental to successful learning. For instance, as has been mentioned, early studies, such as those conducted by Ellis (1984), Wong-Fillmore (1985), and Chaudron (1988) showed participants viewing CS as detrimental to successful learning, seeing it as hindering the learning process, and as causing learners to be over-dependent on the teacher's code-switching to the detriment of successfully learning the target language. Other studies have agreed that CS use might affect the way learners communicate, or learn to communicate, in the second language (Bhatt, 1997; Martin, 1999; Zhu, 2008).

Some studies, such as a study by Probyn (2009), have highlighted the conflicted and uncertain attitudes harboured by South African teachers toward their own CS practices. Teachers on the one hand were found in her study to believe CS to be essential in developing pupils' understanding of subject content, and valuable for humanising the classroom climate. For instance, by using CS for humorous effect, tensions around sensitive topics are defused. However, on the other hand, teachers become concerned with reducing pupils' exposure to English, as well as with hindering pupils' familiarisation with the second language (L2) subject terminology (Probyn,

2009). Moreover, Probyn (2009) found that, even where teachers felt justified in using CS for classroom interaction, they felt they were going against not only the official Language in Education Policy, but also against what had been presented to them as best classroom practice by Curriculum specialist or DBE (Probyn, 2009). Furthermore, as has been mentioned, recently, researchers feel that learners may lose their eagerness to learn the language and the ability to guess and infer in new linguistic environments of the second language (Nordin, 2013).

On the other hand, an increasing number of studies indicate a positive attitude on the part of teachers and learners towards the utilisation of CS in an ESL classroom. For instance, in Nordin (2013), most ESL learners had positive attitudes toward CS. They believed that CS was facilitating their understanding of the target language (Nordin, 2013). The findings suggested that the use of CS was enabling learners participating in the study to be more confident in mastering the language (Nordin, 2013). Teachers participating in the study also displayed a positive attitude toward the use of CS in their classrooms. They said they needed to CS to clarify words, expressions, structures and rules of utterances, as was also found by Greggio and Gil (2007, p. 376) in a study conducted with Portuguese L1 students in Brazil. This indicates a changing attitude on the part of teachers and students/learners, both locally and globally, towards the use of CS in an ESL classroom.

In addition to such studies, Gulzar's (2014) study conducted in Pakistan, and which aimed to investigate whether teachers' code switching to L1 played any role in the EFL classrooms of Pakistani education institutions, had similar findings to those of much earlier CS studies conducted by Guthrie (1984), Auer (1993), Blom and Gumperz (1970), and Grosjean (1982). Gulzar's 2014 study investigated the attitudes, patterns and functions of code switching in an ESL classroom. His findings confirmed those of the other studies which indicated a positive outcome regarding the use of CS in ESL or EFL classrooms. In his study CS was found to be a useful resource that assisted teachers to emphasize, clarify, and to check the understanding of their students in a more effective way than using English only (Gulzar, 2014). Gulzar's 2014 research supports the idea that code switching can be taken as an extra aid/resource to be used in an ESL or EFL classroom to achieve a certain enhancement in learning (Gulzar, 2014).

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented and reviewed the literature informing this study. This review showed there to have been many studies conducted which have investigated what code switching is or entails, why it is used in global and local education contexts, and differing attitudes toward it. The review found that relatively few studies, particularly recent studies, have been conducted in the South African context. The review of various studies highlighted the functions of code switching, the various different and similar reasons why teachers code switch, the circumstances necessitating the use of code switching, as well as the various different attitudes that teachers in a variety of different education contexts have toward code switching. From the literature discussed, it may be concluded that, although code switching has increasingly become, and been acknowledged as, both a valuable resource and a necessary tool in the teaching of L2, it is still frowned upon by many teachers and language policy makers, even though a body of literature has found code switching to be a useful tool in performing various important education and social functions, such as incorporating the concept of democracy through accommodation, in classroom management, promoting interpersonal relations, maintaining solidarity, providing clarity and emphasizing a point, as well as negotiating English as an official – or preferred official - language of instruction by code-switching between English and the home languages of learners to explain concepts. Above all, it has been found to afford learners the opportunity to be confident in the language of learning and teaching.

The research conducted in the current study is based on, and intended to affirm, this argument in favour of code switching as a valuable pedagogical tool and resource in an ESL classroom, particularly in rural schools where the L1 is a South African indigenous language.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces and discusses the research methodology used in the current study. The chapter begins by discussing the research paradigm which guides the study, the case study approach which the study employs, as well as the research design and the reasons for the choice of this design. Secondly, the chapter discusses the ethical considerations, describes the sampling techniques, and the reasons for the choices of these techniques. It does this by providing information on the participants, that is, the criteria for the inclusion in the study, who the participants were and how they were sampled. Thirdly, the instruments that were used for data collection are described, together with the procedures followed in carrying out this study. Lastly, the methods used to analyse the data are explained and discussed.

4.2 Research Methodology

4.2.1 Research Paradigm

The study constitutes a qualitative case study which is embedded in the interpretive paradigm. A paradigm refers to the way the world is being viewed. Chalmers (1982) p. 90) defines a paradigm as “a model that is composed of the general theoretical assumptions and laws, and techniques for the application of these theoretical assumptions that a particular scientific community adopts”. Extending this concept further, Punch (2009) perceives a research paradigm as a:

...basic plan for executing the research project which incorporates four paramount concepts; namely, the strategy, the conceptual framework, the question of who or what will be studied as well as the tools and procedures to be utilised in data analysis. (Punch, 2009, p. 112).

Nieuwenhuis (2007, p. 47) on the other hand, defines a paradigm as “a set of beliefs about a phenomenon”.

The study was guided by the interpretivist paradigm. The goal of an interpretivist paradigm is to understand human action (Schwandt, 1998). It is based on the premise that, to understand the world, one must interpret it. The interpretive paradigm is concerned with meaning making and, through it, the understanding of the subjective world of human experience is sought (Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004; Bailey, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Within this paradigm, a detailed exploration of how participants make sense of their personal and social world is conducted (Smith & Osborn, 2015), and the participants' world(s), personal experience, as well as, their personal perspectives on the matter under investigation are explored. The researcher is actively involved in an attempt to get as close as possible to the participant's/participants' personal world(s) to attempt to gain an insider's perspective (Smith & Osborn, 2015). However, access to this largely depends on, and may be complicated by, the researcher's own conceptions, which are necessary in the interpretative activity of the participant's/participants' personal world(s). In this manner, a two-stage interpretation process takes place: "the participants try to make sense of their world while at the same time the researcher also attempts to make sense of the participants' acts of trying to make sense of their world" (Smith & Osbourn, 2015, p. 53). In the context of the above, and according to this paradigm, this study seeks to understand code switching as a phenomenon that takes place amongst teachers of English in rural high schools, and to explore their perspectives, views and experiences of it.

I considered the interpretivist paradigm to be suitable for this study since the study sought to explore and to understand teacher code switching in the context of a number of English Second Language (ESL) or L2 classrooms in four rural high schools and then make meaning of these instances. The researcher hoped, through the study, to understand the reasons behind the instances of teacher code switching through the participants' collective perspective and experience. The interpretive paradigm allowed me as a researcher to comprehend in depth the connection of individuals in the study to their environment and history, and the part(s) that they play in creating the social fabric of which they are a part (McQueen, 2002, p. 17). Additionally, according to McQueen (2002), interpretivists perceive the world through a "series of individual eyes" and choose participants who "have their own interpretations of reality" to encompass their worldview (p. 16).

In accordance with this thought, I chose to include in the study sample individuals who would provide me with their interpretation of what code switching (CS) entails and the reasons they used it in their classrooms. The participant teachers in the rural schools under investigation provided and interpreted their experiences relative to the context around the school, and were able to relate the ways in which they thought the context of each school impacted the way each teacher taught English Second Language as a subject and how s/he taught content subjects using ESL as the language of teaching and learning (LoLT) as some of them were also teaching other content subjects. The research questions were organized to probe what the participants considered to be their experiences of code switching. The participants were given a chance to share their experiences with the researcher while being directed to do this by the prepared questions. Henning (2004) describes the interpretive paradigm as having been found to be very effective in probing participants' experiences: in the case of the current study these were their daily codeswitching experiences. The interpretive paradigm assisted the researcher to elicit 'the truth', as the teachers saw it, about the nature of their experiences in their classrooms while using English to teach English as a subject to ESL learners. Using the interpretative approach, as the researcher I was able to observe and to recognise the factors influencing teachers to use code switching in teaching ESL learners, using English as the LoLT, in the four rural high schools.

Prasad (2005) described, knowledge as being socially created, meaning that it is influenced by social position and created by social attention. Using this lens, it became clear that the overall factor influencing teacher codeswitching is the social context in which they are teaching. This suggested that findings could be different for learners from, and schools situated in, different social/socio-economic and socio-cultural backgrounds.

4.3 Research Approach

According to Henning (2004) data collection methods fall under two broad paradigms, namely, the qualitative and quantitative approaches. To address the research questions identified above, this study employed a qualitative approach. Willis (2007) points out that a qualitative approach often affords comprehensive reports that essentially allow interpretivists to fully understand research contexts. Thus, I

considered that the qualitative approach would afford me, the researcher, the opportunity to make meaning out of the nature of teachers' similar and different experiences of codeswitching while using English as the LoLT in ESL classrooms in rural high schools.

The choice of the qualitative approach was also because the researcher wanted to make sense of the feelings, views, and experiences of the participating teachers, and of the social situations within which they were teaching, and how these were acting upon these teachers in their real world or context. The main characteristic of qualitative research is that, while it is mostly appropriate for small samples, its outcomes are not measurable and/or quantifiable (Langkos, 2014). The reason why qualitative research was considered by the researcher to be beneficial to this study was because the study aimed to work with a few participants (in this case, four). This was thought to be beneficial in that, while quantitative approach provides a quantitative/statistical analysis of data, qualitative research, on the other hand it affords the gathering of large volumes of quality data from a limited number of people, without limiting the scope of the research and the nature of participants' responses (Langkos, 2014). In addition, a qualitative approach is based on the premise that first-hand experience offers the most meaningful data, in this case, the first-hand experiences of these teachers. The nature of data to be collected was descriptive instead of coming from statistical procedures (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The study intended giving a careful and detailed description of data, and the researcher aimed to interpret code switching instances in terms of the meanings and reasons the participants would attach to them (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The choice of qualitative approach to this study provided the following benefits:

- multiple perspectives, open to change, practising iterative and emergent data collection techniques, promoting participatory and holistic research, and going beyond an inductive and deductive approach (Smith & Osbourne, 2015, p. 25).
- more inclusive as it allows multiple viewpoints of different individuals from different groups.
- allows multiple perspectives, thus providing a more comprehensive understanding of the situation which is the focus of the study (Morehouse, 2011).

The qualitative approach was beneficial for this study for the following additional characteristics as articulated by Thahn and Thahn (2015, pp. 24-27) in their study:

- studies are carried out in naturalistic settings.
- researchers ask broad research questions designed to explore, interpret or understand the social context.
- participants are selected through non-random methods based on whether the individuals have, or are seen to have, information vital to the questions being asked.
- data collection techniques involve observation and interviewing that bring the researcher in close contact with the participants.
- the researcher is likely to take an interactive role where he/she gets to know the participants and the social context in which they live and work.
- hypotheses are formed after the researcher begins data collection and are modified throughout the study as new data are collected and analysed.
- Qualitative data is rich and in-depth because data is captured through profound thoughtfulness and compassionate understanding (Punch, 2009).

4.4. Research Design

Van Wyk (2017) defines a research design as the overall plan for linking the conceptual research problems to the appropriate (and achievable) experimental research. This means that the research design determines the type of data required, which methods are to be used to collect and analyse these data, and how all of this will answer the research question (Van Wyk, 2017). A research design is “an exploration of a ‘bounded system’ or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context” (Creswell, 1998, p. 61).

A qualitative case study, the research design chosen for this study, is a design that facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context using a variety of data sources (Baxter & Jack, 2008). This design allows the issue to be explored through a variety of lenses, providing an opportunity for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood. According to Yin (2003), a case study design should be

considered when (a) the focus of the study is to answer 'how' and 'why' questions, (b) you cannot manipulate the behaviour of those involved in the study, (c) you want your research to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under study, or (d) the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context.

The rationale behind the utilisation of a case study is its ability to provide a unique example of real people in real situations, thus enabling the researcher to investigate and report the real-life, complex, dynamic and unfolding interactions of events, human relationships and other factors in a unique instance as contexts are unique and dynamic (Niewenhuis, 2007; Yin, 2009; Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007). In case study research the researcher does not try to exert control or influence on the case under investigation, but tries to understand it in its natural state and context. A case study approach is desirable where a researcher wants to portray rich, textured, and in-depth accounts of the case. Case studies are generally very useful for primary data generation.

This study explored the case of the four teachers' use of code switching when they teach ESL classes using English as the LoLT, that is, how they use it, and for which reasons, the attitudes these teachers have toward code switching, and their experiences of using code switching. I considered that the use of a case study design would benefit the study the design and would articulate well with the purpose of the study, which intended exploring what code switching entails and how it benefits or does not benefit learners and teachers in the context of the schools under investigation.

The research in this study was exploratory. The reason for the choice of an exploratory design is that exploratory research is the most beneficial and suitable for projects that address a subject where the researcher, and possibly the participants in the research, may have high levels of uncertainty and ignorance about that subject, and also when there is relatively little understanding of the problem or very little existing research on the subject matter. Although a wide scope of code switching has been covered in research, there is a shortage of cases of code switching in the English Second Language teaching context amongst teachers in rural South African high schools. A

limitation of such a research study is that, although it allows flexibility, there exists the possibility that it can be too flexible and often lack formal structure. This flexibility can be both an advantage and a disadvantage, depending on how the researcher plans and conducts the research.

Another reason for the choice of exploratory research in this study is that this research design allows the researcher to identify the boundaries of the environment in which problems, opportunities or situations of interest are likely to exist, as well as the relevant factors affecting these that might be identified there and be of significance to the research.

The study therefore explored the use of code switching and the extent of its use in English Second Language classrooms by teachers in four rural high schools. In the course of its exploration, the study sought to understand what code switching entails in the specifically rural context, of the schools under investigation. The researcher also hoped to find out if teachers in the schools to be investigated were using code switching or not during classroom interaction with learners, and, if so, the specific reasons for doing so. This research design provided the researcher with an opportunity to explore the case of code switching and its distinguishing factors, such as the attitudes and experiences of the teachers using it, and the specific reasons for their using it in the classroom.

Limitations

- The study was limited to only four rural high school teachers. This limited the generalisability of the results from the study to a larger population.
- Although self-reporting can be made in the privacy/confidentiality of the situation involving research and respondent and, allows the researcher to obtain valuable and diagnostic information about the participants, there is a danger of bias in what the participants would want, or consider it safe, to share with the researcher, or would share what they think the researcher may want to hear. People often want to report what they consider to be socially acceptable or preferred rather than being truthful. Participants may also not be able to assess themselves or their views accurately or objectively. The questions may convey different meanings to different individuals. Sampling bias can happen

as the participants in the study may not be representative of the population I wish, or consider it relevant and of value to, study. To counteract this, I opted to include two other research methods that would potentially validate what the participants claimed to be doing and their reasons.

- Although the instruments that I used yielded in-depth and insightful results, the study could have benefited additionally from the use of ethnographic observations where I would be a participant observer of the participants' experiences, and in that manner obtain more authentic results from the study.
- The sample size was relatively small –four participants. A bigger sample size would enhance the reliability of the study. In addition to this, as has been mentioned, a smaller sample means that the findings in the study cannot be generalized to the larger population.
- The qualitative nature of the research meant that the research problems could not be measurable.
- While case study research is known to excel at bringing about an understanding of a complex issue or object, and can extend experience or add strength to what is already known through previous research, a small number of cases cannot offer grounds for the establishment of the reliability or generalizability of their findings. An intense exposure to the study of the case can create a bias of the findings.
- The current study had time constraints as required by a PhD study.

4.5 Ethics and Recruitment of participants

4.5.1 Ethics

According to Cohen et al. (2007), it is important to consider the fact that participants are not forced to participate in the research conducted. The researcher needs to ensure that issues, such as, sensitivity, confidentiality, and anonymity are catered for. For that reason, all standard ethical procedures were followed, with particular sensitivity to issues of confidentiality and anonymity regarding the participants in this study.

Teachers were approached and recruited to participate in the study which was scheduled to be conducted after school hours. I applied for ethical clearance from the University of KwaZulu-Natal Research Ethics committee. The application clearly stated, and elaborated on, the type of research, the methods of data collection, and the instruments to be used for the collection of data. I described in detail in the application how ethical issues concerning participants were to be addressed. As soon as permission/ethical clearance was granted, I started to conduct the study.

To provide them with clarity concerning the research, all participants were provided with information sheets which detailed the aims of the research, as well as the research process. The information sheets were provided to the participants directly. All participants were given the opportunity to ask questions about the research and were made aware that they could withdraw from the research at any time without any negative consequences. There were no existing power relations between the researcher and participants that could be perceived by participants as coercive since the researcher was sharing the same position of being a teacher as the participants. Written consent was obtained from participants before the beginning of the data collection phase of the research. Confidentiality was maintained through the use of pseudonyms in the research reporting stage, and by changing specific contextual details that might reveal the identities of the participants. Participants were made aware that data would be securely kept by the University of KwaZulu-Natal for a period of five years, and thereafter be discarded through shredding or incineration.

A letter was written requesting permission to conduct research in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education schools, and this permission was granted. The second letter asking for permission to conduct research in schools was written to the principals of the schools to be researched. The principals granted me permission by signing the letters. They are attached in the appendices. Once they had been approached and recruited, consent letters requesting permission from the participant-teachers were prepared for them to sign.

4.5.2 Recruitment of Participants

4.5.2.1 Sampling

This study utilised purposive sampling, a sampling method which allows the researcher to find a meticulously distinct group for whom the research question will be of significance. The interpretive nature rendered purposive sampling beneficial to the study. Purposive sampling indicates that participants have been hand-picked exclusively for the topic. This type of sampling is based on the principle that the best information is most likely to be obtained from a relatively small sample, those in the sample being deliberately hand-picked for their known attributes and experiences rather than through random selection (Cohen et al., 2011). Purposive sampling falls under the category of non-probability sampling techniques according to which people are selected because of the relevance to the case of their knowledge, interest, and experience (Denscombe, 2010, p. 35). With purposive sampling, the participants are carefully chosen with a specific purpose in mind, and the purpose mirrors the particular characteristics of the people or events chosen, their relevance to the topic, as well as their experience or their expertise in terms of providing quality information about, and valuable insights into, the research topic (Denscombe, 2010; Curwin & Slater, 2008).

Smith and Osbourne (2015) advise that the specificity of a sample will mostly be defined by nature of the study, and, in some cases, the rarity or frequency of the topic under investigation would define the boundaries of the relevant sample. They also maintain that “in other cases where a less specific issue is under investigation, the sample may be drawn from a population with similar demographic/socio-economic status profiles” (p.54).

When selecting participants for this study, the above considerations were incorporated. The sample was therefore selected on the basis of the relevance to the issue being investigated of the participants’ experience of, and involvement with, the issue, which in this case, was the usage of code switching in rural ESL classrooms. This included the researcher’s knowledge of the participants, which incorporated their experience with regards to the utilization of code switching in an ESL classroom. Four different teachers from four different rural high schools were selected to explore how and why code switching was used and to understand the attitudes and experiences of

teachers towards code switching. The four teachers were attempting to teach ESL learners using English as the LoLT in their respective schools.

4.5.2.2 The sample

The sample consisted of four 'Black' teachers, one female and three males, ranging in age between 35 – 53 years. The participants were African L2 speakers of English, their mother-tongue being isiZulu. They were selected on the basis that they were teaching English, both as a subject- as a Second language, or English First Additional Language (ENGFAL) to learners, whose mother-tongue was also isiZulu, and using English as the official LoLT to teach other/content subjects in their respective schools. Two of these teachers, one male and one female, are English specialists. They have Honours degrees in English. The other two males are not English specialists. They also teach English as a First Additional Language (FAL) due to the shortage of English specialists in their respective schools, in addition to content subjects using English as LoLT.

4.5.3 The Research Site

The study constitutes four rural high schools located in Umbumbulu, on the south coast of Durban, KwaZulu-Natal. Learners come from non-English speaking communities but choose to go to English-medium schools. The first school, situated 120 km from Durban, had 200 learners at the time of the study. The second school, situated about 100 km from Durban, had approximately 400 learners at that time. Both schools fall under Section 21 (no fee-paying schools). There are scarce or no resources such as libraries and laboratories, and the schools are supported by poor, struggling, and unemployed communities. The third school, situated about 75 km from Durban, had 700 learners coming from a slightly diversified context with some members of their community having a good English background. The last school, situated about 50 km from Durban, is a semi-rural high school with some exposure to English and with resources, and had 800 learners. This school may be categorised as semi-rural and attracts both rural and urban learners from as far away as 35 km from the school.

4.6 Data Collection

4.6.1 Data Collection Strategies

Three data collection methods were used for the purposes of this study. The data collection strategies included a visual methodology, namely concept mapping, open-ended interviews and open-ended questionnaires. These three different but complementary methods contributed to the triangulation of the evidence. Triangulation is considered advantageous when conducting research for various reasons. For instance, each of the qualitative research methods used enhances the inherent strengths of the other methods and allows new understandings to emerge that would otherwise remain hidden if only one method were used in isolation (Kingsley, 2009).

4.6.1.1 Concept maps

For this study I used concept maps. A concept map may be defined as a type of diagram (Umoquit, Tso, Varga-Atkins, O'Brien, & Wheeldon, 2013) or mind map (Wheeldon, 2011); however, concept maps are further delineated by other authors, depending on the authors' theoretical and methodological orientations. Originally developed by Joseph Novak in the 1970s, concept mapping has been used as a methodological tool in quantitative research but is now widely used in qualitative studies as well (Wheeldon (2011)). A concept map is a top-down diagram showing the relationships between concepts involved, for example in the theoretical framework of a study, or in understanding a complex subject, and includes cross connections among concepts and their manifestations (Eppler, 2006, p. 203). It is an example of a visual organiser used in teaching, research, and in diverse settings, and can provide a tool for meaning making (Butler-Kisber & Poldma, 2010). Novak and Gowin (1984) originally used concept maps to facilitate meaningful learning in science. Situated in a constructivist philosophical orientation, these concept maps are typically designed by participants by hand or through a computer programme (<https://www.ihmc.us/cmaptools/>).

A concept map is beneficial to a study or to learning because it offers a visual representation of frequently observed concepts in a situation, and the relationships among those concepts. Eppler (2006, p. 203) adds to the definition and use of concept

mapping in research. He describes the ways in which this visual representation shows systematic relationships among sub-concepts relating to one main concept and may be used as both an interview tool and a tool for data collection and analysis. In the case of research, the concept maps are used by individuals or groups to build on preceding data to integrate new concepts into a mental representation. Internationally, the contexts of concept mapping are diverse. There are various reasons for which individuals (Daley, 2004), groups, as well as organisations (Trochim & Kane, 2005; Umoquit, Tso, Burchett, & Dobrow, 2011) use concept mapping. For example, concept mapping has been found to be very useful in organizing survey responses for a researcher or practitioner (Jackson & Trochim, 2002). These visual approaches (Butler-Kisber & Poldma, 2010) are strategically used to synthesise, organise, and document ideas in research and teaching. There are many examples of situations where concept mapping is used as a useful learning or organising tool. Apart from research purposes, concept maps have been used in formal and non-formal education contexts to engage both adult learners (Yelich Biniecki & Conceição, 2016) and children (Novak, 2010) in critical analysis. Within professions such as healthcare (Meagher-Stewart et al., 2012; Trochim & Kane, 2005), school leadership (Pegg, 2007), and teaching (Daley, Canas, & Stark-Schweitzer, 2007), concept mapping has been found to be an important approach to organising ideas and facilitating learning. For example, concept mapping has been utilised as a strategy to teach students dentistry (Edmunds & Brown, 2012), and engineering and technology (Dixon, Faber-Langendoen, Josse, Morrison & Loucks, 2014). In generating a plan to use funds from a US tobacco settlement, diverse stakeholders generated concept maps to create a holistic picture of the group's ideas in order to guide action planning and development (Trochim & Kane, 2005). Particularly in teaching, educators have used concept mapping to present new ideas, and students have utilised concept mapping to organise and demonstrate new learning (Daley et al., 2007; Dixon, et al., 2014; Hay & Kinchin, 2006; Yelich Biniecki & Conceição, 2016). In this study the participants were asked to use the provided concept map to brainstorm their ideas regarding the issues under study.

4.6.1.1.1 Advantages of Concept Maps in Research

Concept maps can usefully contribute to analysing the interrelatedness of data for possible meanings. In qualitative research, they can assist participants to identify concepts and their interrelatedness and, from this process, to formulate meaning. A concept map provides a visual representation of the conceptualization of the interpreted data and can be used to support findings in the narrative account of the study findings (Trochim, as cited in Baugh, Mcnallen & Frazelle, 2014). Concept mapping offers a creative means of engagement with the participants. It offers the possibility of their being both utilised and involved in probing their possibly hidden experiences and perceptions. A researcher, through using concept maps may find them to provide a new strategy which seeks to go beyond petitioning a prepared form of narrative or impulsive/spontaneous answers. In addition to these stipulated advantages, concept mapping offers the following for the participants:

Ideas can be developed fast due to the fact that ideas are drawn in the form of keywords, shapes, and arrows. Ideas can be reviewed fast, too, as participants do not have to skim through different pages of notes (Baugh et al., 2014, p. 4).

In this process the brain has been found to be visually stimulated to generate ideas, giving one the freedom to think out of the box and to remember up to six times more through the use of both images and words. The following advantages have been attributed to concept mapping:

- Through the use of colours, keywords and images, an individual's creativity can be boosted while having fun.
- Mapping allows a perfect overview of one's ideas, helping to create a deeper understanding of the topic of interest, thus getting a perfect overview of all the related ideas, concepts and thoughts.

(Adapted from: <http://ekpenso.com/>)

4.6.1.1.2 Disadvantages of Concept Maps in Research

- Even though mapping offers a useful tool in a brainstorming session through encouraging creativity and innovation, some people may find it a very difficult tool to use if their dominant side is logic instead of creativity.
- Creating a mind map usually takes a lot of time.
- Once a map has been created and personalized, it may be difficult for others to understand all the ideas and concepts.

(Adapted from: <http://ekpenso.com/>)

To counteract this, the researcher took time to explain how mapping worked so that participants understood what sort of information was expected. In the study, concept maps allowed the participants to brainstorm their ideas concerning how and why they code switch, their attitudes and experiences of code switching during their teaching of English as a Second Language, and put these ideas down as concept maps. (See Appendix A).

4.6.1.2 Open-ended Questionnaires

The second type of data collection strategy was open-ended questionnaires. Questionnaires comprise printed sets of field questions to which participants are asked to respond. In this study the questionnaires aimed to answer all four research objectives. These were personally administered to the participants by the researcher.

4.6.1.2.1 Advantages of Questionnaires in Research

The main reasons behind the selection of questionnaires as a method of data collection were that their advantages far outweigh the disadvantages. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), questionnaires provide the researcher the following advantages:

- Questionnaires provided an inexpensive tool for gathering data and are easy to collect.

- When questionnaires are administered personally to the participants the researcher is allowed an opportunity to establish rapport and motivate participants.
- Secondly, since the participants were asked similar questions, this provided reliability and validity.
- Questionnaires also provided a high response rate since they were distributed to participants to complete and personally collected by the researcher.
- They were also favourable as they required less time and energy from the researcher to administer.
- They also provided the possibility of anonymity as participants' names were not required on the completed questionnaires.
- They also provided less opportunity for bias since the researcher presented them consistently.

4.6.1.2.2 Disadvantages of Questionnaires in Research

Even though the questionnaires provided many benefits for the current study, they had their limitations as well. For instance, given the time constraints, it took too much time to prepare and distribute them together with the designing of the questions to be asked. Piloting was done where the questions had to be tested on eight of my colleagues at work, first to ensure clarity and avoid ambiguity. Lastly, the questionnaires could not allow any flexibility or opportunity for probing, or for participants to explain in detail the reasons for their responses or to expand on these (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

4.6.1.3 Questionnaire Design and Piloting

According to Bougie and Sekaran (2010), a sound questionnaire design focuses on three significant areas: the wording of the questions, planning how variables will be categorised, scaled, and coded after data have been collected, and the general appearance of the questionnaire. With regards to wording, the researcher ensured that the questions covered the appropriate content, the language used was simplified and made accessible to the participants for them to understand what was being asked,

the questions were open-ended to allow participants ease of responding in any way that they chose, and the manner in which the questions were sequenced was logical.

Secondly, before the questionnaire is sent out to the participants, it is important that it is pre-tested to ensure as far as possible the accuracy and consistency of responses (Bougie & Sekaran, 2010). Maximum accuracy and consistency can be achieved through pre-testing the questionnaire using a small number of participants with characteristics similar to those of the target population (Hair, Money, Samouel & Page, 2007). To ensure this was achieved, together with attempts to avoid ambiguity in the questionnaire, piloting was done with eight colleagues in my school to check if the questions were relevant, not ambiguous, loaded, or negatively worded.

4.6.1.4 Open-ended In-depth Telephone Interviews

The third and final method of data collection was open-ended in-depth (intended to be face-to-face) interviews. Qualitative, open-ended interviews have been defined as the type of interviews used if the researcher wishes to acquire unique, non-standardised, personal information about how individuals perceive the world (Cohen et al., 2011). The reason behind the selection of this type of interviewing was to explore in depth how and why the participating teachers were code switching, as well as their attitudes to, and experiences of, code switching when using English to teach ESL learners.

4.6.1.4.1 Advantages of Open-ended In-depth Telephone Interviews

In-depth interviews are advantageous because they are personal and unstructured, allowing the researcher to access the participant's emotions, feelings, and opinions regarding the subject under investigation (Langkos, 2014). The researcher favoured in-depth interviews due to the flexibility they offer in terms of the flow of the interview, which can leave room for generating conclusions not originally intended to be resultant concerning the research subject. The interviews addressed all of the four objectives of the study conducted. The interviews built on the concept maps constructed by the participants.

Before they could answer the loosely/flexibly structured questions included in the interview schedule, they were asked what the concept maps had meant to them in terms of helping their clarity and ease of thinking/ideas about the issue. The interview schedule comprised open-ended questions which were intended to initiate discussion, followed by further questions spontaneously arising from the discussion. All participants were asked the same basic open-ended questions at the beginning of the interview, and these followed a similar order. This type of interviewing was used to allow flexibility during data collection and provided the interviewer with an opportunity to conduct further enquiry stimulated by the interview. Open-ended interviews were considered beneficial in this study, since, firstly, they allowed all participants to answer the same core questions, thus increasing comparability of responses. Secondly, in this type of interviewing, data were completed (all questions answered) for each person on the topic addressed in the interview. Lastly, the use of this type of interviewing facilitated the organisation and analysis of data (Cohen et al., 2011). The open-ended interviews were audio recorded with the permission of the participants. (See Appendix B).

Due to unforeseen circumstances, which forced me to relocate to Cape Town before the interviews could be conducted, the interviews were telephonic and audio-recorded instead of being face-to-face and video-recorded as I had initially planned. However, although the originally planned face-to-face interviews would have been ideal, I considered telephone interviews to be advantageous for the following reasons:

- The required number of people could be reached within a short period of time.
- For the participants, telephonic interviews eliminated any discomfort that they would perhaps normally feel in facing the interviewer (Bougie & Sekaran, 2010: 194).
- They also allowed the participants to disclose personal information more easily than in a face to face situation.

4.6.1.4.2 Disadvantages of In-depth Telephonic Interviews

In-depth telephone interviews can have their disadvantages in the sense that the respondent can unilaterally disconnect or terminate the interview without warning or explanation by hanging up (Bougie & Sekaran, 2010). To counteract this possibility, the researcher decided to call the participants ahead of time to request their participation and provided them with the time allocation according to their own convenient time and space. Another disadvantage of telephone interviews can be that the researcher cannot see the interviewee face to face to observe her/him, and to capture and interpret the nonverbal cues accompanying the conversation.

4.7 Reasons for the choice of each instrument

The reasons for using the research instruments in this order were that the use of concept maps at the beginning of the study offered participants a comfortable way of expressing all the views that they had concerning CS in the form of brainstorming ideas without worrying too much about what they were saying and how they were saying it. The instrument offered a broader platform to express everything about the research topic than would have been the case using only the questionnaire and the telephonic interviews. The researcher followed the concept mapping with the questionnaire to elicit information from the participants. The questionnaire provided a structured, if less flexible, way of presenting their ideas in an open-ended manner. The final method of collecting data was the in-depth unstructured interviews. The interviews provided a final semi-structured platform where participants had the opportunity, not only to offer their opinions and feelings about the topic, but also to provide detailed reasons for their ideas. It provided some conclusion to the study.

4.8 Data Collection Procedure

4.8.1 Concept Maps

Concept maps/diagrams were distributed to the four participants. The researcher started by asking them if they understood what concept maps were, followed by an explanation of how the participants could answer each of the questions asked in the

concept map. The concept map required that each respondent brainstorm as many ideas as possible regarding the following issues listed in the concept map:

- Is CS used in class?
- How is CS used?
- When is it used?
- How often is it used?
- Experiences of using CS
- Reasons for using CS
- Feeling towards CS use

The participants could write down their ideas and draw possible links between these in the comfort of their homes in their spare time and return the maps to the researcher. All participants responded. (See Appendix A).

4.8.2 Open-ended Questionnaires

Questionnaires were self-administered to participants and were filled in after school hours or during their own spare time, which did not include working hours. Since the study largely depended on the participants' answers, an open-ended questionnaire was ideal as it allowed participants to answer in as much detail as they wished. Open-ended questionnaires allowed participants to write a free account in their own terms, and to explain and qualify their responses (Cohen et al., 2011). It was hoped that the questionnaire would confirm or clarify and develop the responses gained from the concept maps and interviews and vice-versa (See Appendix C).

The questionnaire, distributed to all participants, obviously posed the same basic open-ended questions to all participants, and the questions followed a similar order.

4.8.3 In-depth Interviews

The unforeseen circumstances have already been mentioned which necessitated telephonic rather than face to face interviews and to substitute video-recorded interviews for participants audio-recorded telephone interviews. The researcher firstly called each participant and asked her/him to give the researcher a specific time and

day when the participant would be available and comfortable to do the interview. On the agreed day, about thirty minutes before the interview, the researcher prepared the audio-recording tool. Each participant was called at the agreed time, and the interview started. The recordings were later used by the researcher to transcribe the entire interview.

For successful interviewing, the researcher set out to create a relaxed atmosphere for the interview, listened carefully, and avoided interrupting the participant. The researcher attempted to be respectful and sensitive to the emotional state of the interviewee, and gently probed and summarised what the participant had said at appropriate stages to confirm her understanding of the interviewee's responses. This type and manner of interviewing was used to allow flexibility during data collection and allowed the interviewer to conduct further enquiry stimulated by, or emerging from, the responses of the interviewee.

4.9 Validity and Credibility of Research instruments

According to Bougie and Sekaran (2010), the validity of an instrument refers to the degree to which an instrument is able to measure what it is intended to measure in a research study. Content validity of an instrument incorporates the extent to which it represents the factors under study. To ensure content validity was achieved, the researcher in this study incorporated a variety of questions based on the knowledge that teachers under study teach ESL learners using English as the LoLT, and that they have some, or varying, levels of knowledge with regards to code switching, regardless of whether they use it in class or not. The questions created were shaped by the research done and information provided by the literature review in the study, and by the research questions. As already mentioned, piloting of the questions was carried out using eight of the researcher's work colleagues to attempt to ensure that the questions were clear and accessible, and to attempt to eliminate as far as possible ambiguity and misunderstanding. The researcher attempted as far as possible to further ensure content validity by maintaining consistency in the manner in which the questionnaires were administered to the respondents to the questions. These were personally distributed to each respondent. The questions had intentionally been made simple and worded so as to be easily understood by the participants, to ensure clarity,

and avoid ambiguity. All respondents to the questions were able complete the questionnaires and concept maps in English in the comfort of their homes. The researcher collected the concept maps and questionnaires personally from each respondent to ensure validation of the study.

According to Cohen et al. (2011), external validity is the extent to which the study findings can be generalised beyond the sample used. Even though the study constituted a case study of four rural schools, the possibility exists that aspects of the findings may be generalized to many rural high schools similar to those in the study.

4.10 Data Analysis and Feedback to participants

4.10.1 Analysing Qualitative Data

Qualitative data analysis involves the organisation, accounting for, and explanation of data in terms of participants' perspectives of the situation under study. This means that the researcher does not know the answers to research questions beforehand, and does not make assumptions regarding these, but largely depends on the participants' answers for his/her data collection. The researcher of this study started the data analysis immediately after some data had been collected from the participants. Since qualitative data focuses on smaller numbers of people, in this case only four, these data tend to be rich and detailed. Due to this fact the first step used in analysing data in this study was data reduction (Bougie & Sekaran, 2010, p. 370).

Data in this study were selected using Gumperz' semantic and Myers-Scotton's models to code and categorise data according to themes created out of the research questions. Coding in the study involved reducing, rearranging, and integrating the collected data to form themes. The next step was data presentation. The researcher used the participants' responses and selected certain words and quotes to illustrate the patterns in the data collected. This enabled the researcher to draw conclusions based on the patterns displayed in the reduced set of data (Bougie & Sekaran, 2010, p. 370). This in turn enabled the researcher to note certain patterns, themes, categories and regularities in the collected data. The researcher opted for this method of data analysis since it made the researcher's work easy through its nature of what

Cohen and Manion (2011) refer to as "merging data collection with data analysis" in an "iterative, back-and-forth process" (Cohen & Manion, 2011, p. 251).

The analysis of the data in this study was underpinned by the concepts in Gumperz's (1982) semantic model of conversational code switching and Myers-Scotton's (1993) Markedness model of code switching. Data categorisation in the study's analysis involved instances of CS taken from the examples teachers collected through their concept-mapping, interviews and questionnaire responses. This process was answering the question 'How do the teachers participating in this study use code switching?' and provided the functions of CS according to the participants in the study. Data were also categorised to show the degree of accountability on the side of teachers by answering the research question, 'Why do they (study participants) use code switching in their ESL classrooms?', and providing the reasons for their CS use.

Since the study constituted a case study, the analysis was written as a chronological descriptive narrative, and issues that arose in the study were discussed. This enabled progressive focusing and selection of key issues that could assist in further research, if necessary and/or useful.

4.10.2 Feedback to Participants

Immediately after the data were collected using the three data collection instruments discussed in this study, namely, concept maps, one-on-one telephonic interviews, and questionnaires, the researcher wrote letters to the participating teachers, and their principals, providing a concise debriefing about the research outcomes, including possible ways to improve teaching using CS based on the findings.

4.11 Storage of data and disposal of data

According to the rules and regulations of the University of KwaZulu-Natal, data should be kept for a period of five years after which they will be disposed of and recordings incinerated for the protection of the identity of participants. Data collected in this study is therefore being kept according to such rules and regulations.

4.12 Rigour, trustworthiness, credibility

Rigour, credibility, trustworthiness, transferability and dependability in qualitative research

According to Bougie and Sekaran (2010), an excellent theoretical base and a sound methodological design enhance the rigour of a purposive study. Rigour in this context refers to the carefulness, meticulousness, and the degree of accuracy in research investigations. In research, a conclusion cannot be drawn from an investigation that lacks a sound theoretical foundation and methodological sophistication. These factors were thoroughly considered and implemented in the current study to ensure that the researcher was able to collect the appropriate information from an appropriate sample with the minimum degree of bias, and to facilitate a suitable analysis of the data gathered.

To ensure credibility in this qualitative study the researcher opted for methods that are well established in qualitative studies. The researcher undertook a preliminary visit to the sampled schools to acquaint herself with the culture of the participating schools before the research process was started in order to establish a relationship of trust with the principals. The researcher was well-received by the principals of the four schools. To ensure further credibility of the study, as has been described, the researcher opted for triangulation which involved utilisation of the three different but complementary data generation instruments described. The researcher used every means to encourage participants to speak their minds and to contribute their ideas freely without fear of losing credibility. Probing and iterative questioning was used during interviewing. All participants were free to share their ideas on CS with the researcher. To further maintain credibility, transcripts, field notes, the data analyses and the findings were returned to the participants for checking.

Numerous frameworks have been developed to assess the trustworthiness of qualitative data (Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Shenton, 2004; Kornbluh, 2015; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Baxter and Jack (2008) suggest several basic crucial elements of a case study design that can be integrated to enhance overall study trustworthiness. The reason for utilising this technique would be to warrant that enough

detail is provided for readers and/or other researchers to be able to measure the trustworthiness of the work. The following measures, as advocated by Russell, Gregory, Ploeg, DiCenso and Guyatt (2005), were adopted by the researcher:

- (a) ensuring that the case study research questions were clearly written, objectives appropriate to the case study provided, and the research questions validated;
- (b) ensuring that the case study design was appropriate for answering the research questions;
- (c) applying purposeful sampling strategies that were appropriate for case study;
- (d) systemic collection and management of data; and finally,
- (e) ensuring that the data were analysed correctly.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) defined transferability as the extent to which the results of the research can be applied in similar contexts. Since generalizability cannot be obtained through a case study, transferability becomes the only alternative (Rule, 2011). In the current study, transferability was ensured through giving detailed information regarding the number of schools taking part in the study and where they were based, the number of participants involved, the data generation methods employed, and the number and length of the data generation sessions. If readers and or researchers believe their situations or study sites to be similar to the those described in this study, they may find themselves able to usefully relate the findings to their own situations.

To ensure dependability, the researcher provided a detailed research design, details of its implementation, as well as the specific ways in which data would be generated in the research field. This information becomes necessary for the readers of the thesis and other researchers to have a comprehensive understanding of the methods used, their effectiveness, and their reliability. With regards to confirmability, Shenton (2004) advocates the steps to be taken to help ensure as far as possible that the findings of the research are the result of the real experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than coming from the characteristics and preferences of the researcher. Miles and Huberman (1994) considered a key criterion for confirmability to be the extent to which the researcher admits his or her own predispositions/bias. The researcher worked closely with teachers who were teaching English as a subject and using English as the LoLT in different grades for her to ensure the credibility of the findings. The

teachers were not my acquaintances; they were selected by the principals of the four schools as they were the ones able to identify those teachers who were teaching English as a subject and using it as the LoLT in their schools. To attempt to ensure that the qualitative methods that were used in the study were not subjective, biased and selective, as described above, the researcher ventured to counteract this using triangulation, instead of sticking to one data collection method.

4.13 Conclusion

This chapter introduced and discussed the research methodology employed in the study. It started by discussing the research paradigm, namely, the interpretivist model which guided this study. The research approach which the study followed, was described and explained, namely, a qualitative approach, the rationale for choosing this being the exploratory nature of the research. The case study research design was then explained.

The chapter further discussed the research ethics, which included how the participants were recruited, how the gate-keeper's approval was obtained, the sampling procedures, the reasons for the choice of such procedures, as well as the limitations of these procedures. This was followed by a discussion of the various data collection and generation strategies, including the advantages and limitations of each method. The chapter provided detailed information on how the study was done together with the order in which the data collection process was conducted. The validity and credibility of the research instruments was explained. The chapter then discussed the various methods of data analysis, which included data reduction, selection, coding and categorization, as well as chronological descriptive narrative analysis. Also discussed were the feedback to, and debriefing of, participants. The process of ensuring the rigour, credibility and trustworthiness of the research methodology was explained. In conclusion, the limitations of the methodology as well as the anticipated problems or limitations and how these were counteracted were described.

The next chapter presents a detailed discussion of the findings from the data collected.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an analysis of the data generated in this study, the collection of which was described in the previous chapter, by linking it to the literature, the theoretical framework, and the research questions that form the basis of this study. Data are presented according to themes which emerged from the research questions and from participants' responses, and analysed using Gumperz' (1982) Semantic Model and Myers-Scotton's (1993) Markedness Model of code switching.

The data were gleaned from participants' responses to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, the concept maps, and open-ended telephonic interviews. In this chapter, the data are presented in response to each research question in this study. The responses from the respondents to questions in the questionnaire and the telephonic interview questions are presented in italics. To protect their anonymity, the participants were given the pseudonyms ED1, ED2, ED3 and ED4.

Background to the four rural schools

The four rural high schools chosen for the study are located in Umbumbulu, a rural settlement situated on the south coast of Durban, KwaZulu-Natal. The area falls under tribal rulership and is composed of mostly poor communities. They heavily rely on agriculture for living. Learners who attend school come from non-English speaking communities and most of them attend local schools. An increasingly growing percentage of learners whose parents are willing to pay more for their education opt for English-medium schools which are very far from their homes. This requires parents to hire mini-bus taxis to transport them on daily basis.

I purposefully selected teachers who teach English as First Additional Language (previously known as Second language) as I believed they would provide rich and

relevant information necessary for the study. Although the participants are English specialists, they also teach other content subjects taught through the medium of English, however, my interest was in the teaching of English as a subject.

The sample incorporated four 'Black' teachers, three males and one female, between 35 – 53 years of age whose mother-tongue is isiZulu. The selection criteria that they were teaching English, both as a subject- as an English First Additional Language (ENGFAL) – previously known as English Second language (ESL) to learners, whose first language is, also, isiZulu, while using English as the official LoLT to teach other/content subjects in their respective schools. Two of these teachers, one male and one female, are English specialists. Two of the participants (ED2 and ED3) are in possession of Honours degrees in English. The other two males (ED1 and ED4) are not English specialists but they teach English as a First Additional Language (FAL) due to the shortage of English specialists in their respective schools, in addition to content subjects using English as LoLT.

School A

The first high school is situated about 120 km from the city of Durban. Due to the growing number of learners who choose to attend the previously Model C schools, only 200 learners attended the school at the time of this study. The school falls under Section 21 (no-fee paying school). ED1 is employed at this school and teaches Grade 9 English First Additional Language. He has an Honors degree in Environmental Studies and on top of English teaches Life Sciences and Agriculture.

School B

The second high school is in the proximity of about 100 km from Durban. The school had approximately 400 learners at the time of study. The school also falls under Section 21 as school A. What is common in the two schools is the fact that there are scarce-to-no resources, such as, libraries and Science laboratories. The surrounding community consists of poor, struggling, and unemployed individuals. ED3 works at this school. She is in possession of an Honors Degree in English and is Head of Department in the English Department. She has more than twenty years' experience of teaching the English as a Subject. She teaches Grade 10 and 11. She also teaches Life Orientation in Grade 10.

School C

The third school is situated about 75 km from Durban and hosts 700 learners who come from a slightly diversified contextual background in the sense that most members of their community having a good English background and the area is slightly developed compared to School A and B. The school has some resources compared to School A and B, and most learners come from the nearest township known as Umlazi. They have a better background of English although there is still a percentage of those who are not exposed to much English in their communities – those who come from deep rural areas. ED3 is in his late 40's and works in this school and teaches Grade 11 and 12 English First Additional Language. He is in possession of an Honors Degree in English and has more than twenty years' experience of teaching English as a Subject.

School D

The last school is situated about 50 km from Durban, is a semi-rural high school with some exposure to English and with resources, and had 800 learners at the time of study. This school may be categorised as semi-rural and attracts both rural and urban learners from as far away as 35 km from the school. ED4 works at the school and teaches Grade 8 English First Additional English. He is above 50 years of age and is in possession of a Primary Teacher's Diploma. He continues to upgrade himself through education. He has less than five years' experience of teaching English but more than twenty years teaching experience.

5.2 The socio-educational context in which ESL/FAL teacher codeswitching takes place in four rural high schools

The following discussion considers the social and educational contexts that surround the participants in this study. Social context, also known as social environment, incorporates the settings surrounding individuals, the culture they live in and the groups that they interact with. Social context influences Their customs, traditions and other socially acceptable standards are often influenced by the social context. As time goes on, people who share similar social environment begin to learn to trust and assist

one another. In the educational setting where teaching and learning takes place, the social context often determines how this takes place. Teachers and learners are, therefore, governed by the social context that surrounds them in the teaching and learning situation.

Code switching (CS) has been defined in this study as a context in which a shift takes place between two or more different languages and this may incorporate an insertion of a word, phrases, and clauses, or chunks of text, within the same conversation to find more effective ways of conveying meaning (Rodman & Fromkin, 1998; Myers-Scotton, 2006; Itmeizeh et al., 2017). Against this background, the respondents were found to understand the use of CS as shifting from the target language/LoLT, in this case English, to the learners' first language, isiZulu. For instance, in the questionnaire, the first respondent responded as follows to the question 'What do you understand by code switching?':

ED1: For me, code switching means Multilanguage using, changing languages. As an educator, you speak English and change to your learner's language at the time. In a case where learners speak isiZulu, you switch from English to isiZulu, and where learners speak Sotho, you switch to Sotho.

For this respondent to the question, in a multilingualism context such as the South Africa one, with eleven different languages spoken, and representing different ethnic groups in the country, speakers can, and do in reality, shift from one language to another.

In agreement with ED1's response above, the second respondent indicated:

ED2: Code switching means changing from one language, English, to the home language of the learner, isiZulu.

For the second respondent as well, the change from one language to the language of the learner is emphasised. This finding echoes understandings by language researchers and practitioners of the act of 'code switching' as emanating from bilingual speakers' or language learners' cognitive linguistic abilities, or classroom or learner

practices where the use of more than one language is involved (Romaine, 1996; Fotos, 2001).

The participants quoted above believe that, where the LoLT in an ESL classroom is English, the shift from English to the indigenous language of the learners by the teachers is necessitated by the fact that the indigenous language is the language that the learner understands and is familiar with. The first participant, however, stresses that the multilingual facility of the teacher allows him/her to switch to any language on the spur of the moment if and when the need arises, and (implied) if the teacher is familiar with more than one indigenous language. This could indicate that the participant himself is multilingual. In a bi-/multilingual context, such as the one depicted above, the participants are able to employ the Markedness Model, a theory that provides the speaker an opportunity to choose one linguistic variety over other possible varieties (Myers-Scotton, 1998, p. 4). When realizing that there is a language barrier between the participants and the learners, such teachers code switch to enable the learners' understanding of the subject matter as they believe that, by switching to another language, they can avoid the language barrier existing during the teaching and learning situation when the learners are English L2 speakers. According to Gumperz's (1982) Semantic Model of conversational code switching, speakers in this study enjoy the right to use more than one code or language during or within the single speech event, in this case classroom interaction (Gumperz, 1982, p. 304). Language becomes a barrier when one of the speakers fails to understand what is being conveyed in a speech or utterance.

According to the third questionnaire respondent elsewhere in this study, one of the things that contribute to language becoming a barrier is the new vocabulary within the content taught in an ESL class where English is the LoLT. The following response from ED1 in the interviews illustrates this:

ED1: ... sometimes you use a new word and you don't know if it's a new word to them and they don't understand.

This respondent presents a situation where a new or unfamiliar word comes up during classroom interaction, and learners fail to understand it. The use of CS in this scenario would be to enable learners to understand the new word.

In the questionnaire, according to the third respondent to the statement: 'I use code switching for the following reasons':

ED3: I use code switching to avoid direct translation from home language (isiZulu) in orals (Listening and Speaking), as well as, to clarify certain information.

The respondent above uses CS to avoid direct translation of the misunderstood word or concept, as well as to provide clarity to misunderstood or concepts not grasped at all by her learners. From the above responses it became apparent that, for participants CS turned out to be a useful tool when explaining/clarifying information or concepts in such a way as to avoid direct translation from Home language. For this respondent, it seems that CS, if used, would probably be a direct translation from English into the mother tongue.

However, while the third respondent had indicated in the questionnaire that CS is used in *Orals* to avoid direct translation, in the concept maps, she indicates that, in English literature CS is used to teach phrases, idioms and proverbs, and used to translate information with the aim of improving learners' understanding, as she notes in the interview in response to question 2.1: 'Why do you use code switching?':.....:

ED3: ...to translate information for understanding especially in literature and for phrases, idioms and proverbs in ENGFAL.

This response is interesting because it shows that the respondent deliberately chooses how and when to use CS. For instance, the respondent would know that in English Orals English speaking competency must be developed, and therefore, direct translation from mother tongue should be avoided at all costs and CS be minimally used to clarify certain information to enhance understanding which will promote English speaking skills. When teaching phrases, idioms and proverbs according to the English literature ESL part of the curriculum, direct translation may be of great

assistance to learners and help to improve their understanding of the literary/idiomatic content. One can compare this language teaching strategy to that described in a study done in a Malaysian secondary school, where translation was found to be useful in assisting in bridging the gap in learners' comprehension in language and science classes (Then & Ting, 2009).

In the concept map, the third respondent further emphasised the need for using CS when teaching literature:

ED3: I'm using Code Switching especially when I'm teaching Literature. It's where I use Code Switching mostly because when I'm trying to explain some of the things to the learners, they need further explanations. I need to relate that to their real-life situation, and for other reasons like Comprehension, but 10% for Comprehension. For other lessons like Language and Creative Writing it's not a big problem (I do not use Code Switching).

The above response emphasises ED3's need for making further/extended explanations of texts to learners. This tallies with findings in other studies which confirm that CS is a useful tool for bilingual teachers when they attempt to achieve context-specific teaching and learning goals, such as, clarification of difficult concepts or texts, and reinforcement of a student's bilingual lexicon (Li, 2008; Moodley, 2010; Mahofa & Adendorff, 2014; Madonsela, 2016). Respondent ED3 also emphasises the need to relate what learners learn in Literature to real-life situations to make these 'Comprehension' literary texts more experiential for, and familiar to, learners. This means relating what is new or unknown to what learners know or are familiar with, to their life experiences. By doing so, the teachers render the literary text in the EFAL literature curriculum, or, in the case of content subjects, the content, more practical and learners can more easily relate to it. What this respondent is doing with regard to translation tallies with Halliday's (1978) function of knowledge construction and transmission which relates to ideational and textual functions in the socio-semiotic model, as presented 40 years ago. This function relates to teachers utilising students' existing knowledge in their first language through CS (Tan & Low, 2017). The existing knowledge ("real life situation") referred to in ED3's 'response comes from their experiences about the world (what they can easily identify with or what is familiar to

them) which is being related or linked to the content in Literature. This is because such teachers believe that learners' existing life experiences greatly assist in their learning of new vocabulary and concepts in a lesson (Lin, 2013).

ED3's response also highlights the need for minimal – or judicious - CS use in EFAL 'Comprehension'. The reason for the 10% emphasis could be that 'Comprehension' in the EFAL curriculum assesses language and understanding, and, like most language and grammar lessons, in a 'Comprehension' lesson it might become difficult to switch to learners' L1 for explanations.

In the interviews, respondent ED2 reiterated ED3's reasons for using CS in his response:

ED2: We normally use code switching to clarify certain concepts since our learners are not familiar with the language, like when you explain figures of speech like irony, the difference between an oxymoron and a paradox, sometimes you code switch, especially when you make examples of what an oxymoron is.

Learners who are second language speakers of a target language often find concepts and terminology in books to be unfamiliar since the content to them is foreign, not only linguistically but experientially. This is a situation or education context in which most teachers of the target language find themselves. The above finding (ED 2's response) indicates that some teachers find solace in CS which allows them to explain these difficult concepts, such as figures of speech, which they find difficult to simplify using English, as they attempt to describe these literary concepts in the target language for learners. Of importance to this study is the fact that they also use code switching to provide examples and to explain concepts, thus drawing on code switching as a valuable teaching resource.

According to the findings of this study, although code switching can be used by the study participants as a teaching method during teaching and learning, it is not randomly used by them, but depends on the content to be taught at the time, as the following respondent indicated in his response to the question in the questionnaire:

ED2: It all depends on the content that the teacher wants to teach, for instance, it can be done in teaching Literature and be part of characters and certain concepts.

Emphasising the use of CS in teaching Literature, ED2 indicates the need for CS use when teaching characterization. There is also a greater emphasis on the significance of CS use in explaining certain concepts. ED2 added a further comment on this in the concept map:

ED2: Reasons for using CS may be that the learners we teach are the second language speakers of English and that there are terms and ways of getting closer to the characters especially in literature. This requires proper understanding.

According to this respondent, since learners are second language speakers of the target language, teachers have to devise particular ways of bringing learners closer to the characters in a play or novel in the EFAL Literature curriculum. According to him, getting closer to, and identifying with, the characters allows learners to study and understand the motivations and actions of the characters in the story or play. In his opinion this requires proper understanding because, when learners understand characterization, they get to relate better to the events that take place in the story and, therefore, develop a better understanding of the story. ED2's view on the use of CS in the teaching of Literature in EFAL emphasises the need for CS use when teaching characterization, as indicated in the questionnaire as well. This enables learners' proper understanding of the characters in a story.

ED2 in the interviews commented further on the practical difficulties of teaching English to L2 learners:

ED2: The background that the children have. These kids are now taught in mother tongue, so when they come to Grade 8 you have to take them slowly from mother tongue. Also, in Literature learners do not have dictionaries. They depend on Government for learning materials, but they are not provided with

dictionaries. At high school level you find that it is only the English teacher that teaches in English, but the rest of the teachers in the school teach in mother tongue. To understand certain concepts.

ED2 highlights the fact that learners are often taught in mother tongue in primary schools. Therefore, when they come to Grade 8, teachers have to help them get used to English. The fact that learners have to be taken slowly and with such difficulty from mother tongue indicates that they are not adequately prepared to use English with any competency. Their competency levels in English are low. It also appears that it is the English teacher's job, with few or no resources, to develop the linguistic competency of these learners while the rest of the teachers in the school use home language to teach their subjects. A pertinent question that may arise at this stage is, "Why then do teachers have to code switch if these learners have no background in English?" This question becomes important in this situation because, for someone to code switch, the other person being spoken to must be able to at least understand both languages spoken, though they may not be proficient in the other. It may be assumed that, though these learners are said to be taught in mother tongue at primary school, they do come into contact with English when they write examinations. So, in some way, they have some English background when they reach Grade 8 at high school.

According to Myers-Scotton (2004), CS may be used to index power asymmetries between two speakers. This could mean that the initiator of CS is more educated than the listener. In the case of teachers and learners in the school context, the teacher could be the one who is in control of the situation, while the learners may have no control of the situation. The situation depicted by ED2 above could be an answer to ED1's response in the questionnaire, where he indicated that CS is used in such a way that it is dominant in the classroom. He stated that sometimes it becomes difficult to decipher meaning if the lesson is an English or isiZulu lesson. At the same time, the reason for abundant use of CS could indicate the teachers' lack of proficiency when the teachers are supposed, or expected, to be proficient in the target language. The biggest problem highlighted here is that learners are perceived to be taught in the mother tongue from primary school level, and therefore, high school teachers are obliged to introduce English to them and "*have to take them slowly from Mother tongue*" (ED 4). In agreement with this, in a study done in rural KwaZulu schools,

general literacy in any language in rural schools was found by Mather (2012) to be lacking and literacy levels to be of great concern.

ED2 further indicates that the problem teachers at the school face is the lack of dictionaries in the school. Since the school depends on the Government to provide learners with learning resources such as dictionaries, in the absence of these, the English teacher becomes the only source of English in the school, while the rest of the teachers appear to be teaching in the mother tongue. As a result of this lack of resources, ED2 reports resorting to CS to help learners understand certain concepts in the EFAL content.

In the interviews, in response to the question for the third respondent, CS use becomes necessary when the incomprehension of learners becomes obvious:

ED3: Eh, at times when you are reading, you find out when you are explaining, sometimes you see in their faces that they are a bit confused. Because they use another language, you use it for their understanding.

In addition to the above responses by ED1 and ED2, ED3 indicates that, during the teaching of Literature or reading, learners sometimes sit looking confused in class when they do not understand the content presented to them in English. When teachers in this study see the confusion in their learners' faces, they understandably feel concerned. This is an indication that these teachers are sensitive to their learners. A situation similar to the above is indicated in Meyer (2000), where learners in his study sometimes barely understood what was being taught due to a language barrier. The situation described in the current study leads to the use of CS by teachers in order to enable learners' understanding of the content.

What the situations described above indicate is that participants are aware of contexts where code switching becomes necessary. This also means that they are aware of their learners limited linguistic competencies, and therefore devise means to develop and expand their understanding of the content, especially when teaching Literature. ED2 indicated that learners do not have dictionaries. Due to this factor, teachers have no choice but to explain certain concepts used in the EFAL Literature curriculum

through code switching. Another factor that could be contributing to this could be that the participants themselves are L2 speakers of English and that they were probably taught in the same way. This would make it easy for them to understand the predicament facing their learners, and thus they would be equipped through their experiences to help their learners as they know exactly what they need. They then resort to tapping into their learners' real-life situations and incorporate these into their learning. This makes it easier for learners to freely participate in classroom interaction, and thus to learn the required concepts and vocabulary.

From their responses, what the participating teachers are shown to be doing above aligns with Gumperz's 1982 situational code switching, which requires an adaptation to the situation at hand for the optimal learning and use of the target language (Gumperz, 1982). Also, in agreement with the above findings of the current study, Nordin, Ali, Zubir and Sadjirin, (2013) indicates that, since the two languages possess, or are embedded in, different cultural backgrounds, and have therefore different phonological and grammatical properties, teachers often find themselves faced with the task of simplifying the vocabulary and the phrases utilised in the target language, and, as a result find themselves having to resort to code-switching for the following reasons:

- To enable students with differing language proficiencies to focus on learning language concepts presented during content instruction, and
- To keep the students on task, thus contributing to the accumulation of academic learning time (Nordin, et al., 2013).

In the concept map, the fourth respondent - ED4 - was of the view that while CS may be used in these contexts, it is unintentional:

ED4: Code switching is not planned...not intentional. It just crops in as speaking process and as communication strategy and ...does not form part of the teaching plan.

ED4 indicates that the use of CS does not form part of lesson planning. This means that teachers do not plan to use CS in the classroom as the norm/language policy of

the school requires the use of English as the LoLT. For that reason, the use of CS becomes spontaneous, and in fact serves as a useful communication strategy during the teaching and learning situation where comprehension would otherwise be hindered. What the participant teachers are doing in these circumstances to facilitate learning confirms the findings of a study conducted in an educational setting where teachers' switches to learners' first language were found to be unplanned, and were therefore clearly motivated by their concerns to facilitate comprehension (Qing, 2012). Qing's study emphasised the need for teachers to switch codes in order to translate/mediate the newly presented language points, especially for learners with a limited command of the target language (Qing, 2012). In agreement with these findings, other earlier studies by Tikunoff (1985), Ovando and Collier (1985), and Mattson and Burenhult (1999) also found that teachers did not use CS intentionally, but only unconsciously in the course of their teaching. The three studies agree that CS is unplanned, and that teachers use it spontaneously and unconsciously.

It is interesting to see that the teachers in the current study appear to be implementing the 1997 Language in Education Policy (LiEP) which promotes multilingualism and biliteracy in education (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014) without knowing that they are doing so. Furthermore, the findings above illustrate situational code switching (Gumperz, 1982) taking place in that the participants only use it when a situation of misunderstanding terminology or concepts between teachers and learners arises. The participants appear to be spontaneously using code switching in their teaching to minimize the language barrier experienced in a particular teaching situation. In the current findings, situational code switching is seen by study participants to be providing teachers who want to redefine the situation at hand, due to the particular circumstances, with an opportunity to do so in line with Gumperz's (1982) semantic model of conversational code switching. The participants in this study are perceived, in certain teaching situations, to often shift from English to isiZulu, the learners' L1, to enable communication between their learners and themselves. The participants indicate that this shift allows more learner engagement in the content of the lesson. This shifting could be due to the teachers' perception of the target language limitation on the part of the learners who often find it difficult to understand some of the terminology used in the target language. This then, according to their judgement, or

spontaneous action, requires them as teachers to provide clear explanations of terminology and concepts by shifting to isiZulu.

The fourth respondent, however, noted in the concept map, that on top of being unplanned, CS may be used in a particular way, or according to a particular teaching strategy:

ED 4...through mind mapping, learners' engagement has a lot of CS and they must generate explanation in English.

He adds that, when learners are engaged in mind-mapping activities in class, a significant amount of CS is used which enables them to generate explanations in English. The teaching methods of ED4 in this kind of situation seem to be successful in getting learners to engage in the interactions taking place in class, and in enabling them to articulate the necessary explanations in the target language. Therefore, in this case, CS seemed to be assisting this teacher in promoting competency in the target language.

In contrast to ED4, who reported using CS in mind mapping, as well as the questionnaire findings for writing purposes, responses from other participating teachers indicate that CS is used for speaking purposes only, and not for writing, as indicated in the following response:

ED1: I am doing CS verbally.

“*Verbally*” indicates the oral method that the respondent uses when teaching. This respondent indicates this both in the questionnaire and the concept map. This aligns with a study conducted by Mashiyi (2014), where the use of the indigenous language was found to be limited to oral code switching during classroom teaching (Mashiyi, 2014, p. 157). Mashiyi’s 2014 study signifies the use of English in formal writing since papers are officially not allowed to be answered in the students’ first languages. The argument in her study is that, although the LiEP promotes multilingualism, examination papers continue to be presented in English, and examiners and moderators do not match the linguistic profiles of those being tested (Mashiyi, 2014). These findings, and

those of the current study, indicate that teachers have been exposed to the use or significance/usefulness of CS through personal learning experiences, teacher education, or their teaching experiences. They have therefore come to know and understand their learners' inadequacies with regards to language, and have learnt or devised means to accommodate such learners in their teaching of English to learners whose L1 is not English.

Similarly, in the questionnaire, and reinforced in the interview, ED4 gave his views of the value of CS in teaching learners whose L1 is not English:

ED4: It is not planned, it doesn't form part of the lesson plan. It comes up during discussion. It's not intentional. For self-fulfilment and meaningful participation, learner engages better because language shouldn't be a barrier in the classroom, but for me as a teacher I don't prepare for it - especially for inclusivity - especially in Grade 8.

Like the questionnaire and interview, in the concept map, ED4 further highlights what he sees as the critical success factors of CS use in the classroom:

ED4: ... depends on the flow of discussion, it is never planned, for an example for self-fulfilment and meaningful participation a learner engages better if s/he has that little freedom. I rarely consider it but, as I have mentioned before, it just crops in for inclusivity purposes because language shouldn't be a barrier to learning.

In the first response above, ED4 mentions the fact that CS use is not planned and intentional but just happens during classroom discussion. This reflects the fact that, for ED4, CS does not form part of lesson planning but unintentionally or spontaneously comes up 'during discussion' and promotes verbal interaction of him with learners in his classroom. In other words, according to his view and experience of it, CS has the ability to develop the speaking skills of learners. This is central to Gumperz's (1982) Semantic Model of conversational code switching, which focusses on interactions between speakers. In the case of ED4's response, the teacher and the learners engage in discussions which include CS to allow the learners to engage fully in classroom activities.

In ED4's second response, he adds that CS serves the purpose of "self-fulfilment" for learners during classroom interaction. According to the ED4, this allows them to have meaningful learning instead of non-participation during classroom interaction and not understanding what is being discussed. I argue in this study that the reason why the language barrier should be dealt with at Grade 8 level, particularly in South African rural high schools, is, as ED1 previously noted, when learners come to these rural high schools, they are often found to struggle to communicate in English. This could be the reason why, for ED4, it becomes vital that learners are developed, and learn optimally, through being allowed to speak and communicate in their own language in class. CS plays a role in assisting them to understand some of the more difficult subject specific terminology used and discussed in the target language. When learners experience a barrier to their learning, they become passive during the teaching and learning situation. Code switching has been observed to facilitate learner discussions and active participation, thus promoting learner-centred discussions (Mashiya, 2014).

ED4, from his experience, is of the view that CS provides *self-fulfilment* for learners as they *engage better*, and provides opportunities *for inclusivity*. In this context, self-fulfilment appears to refer to learners being themselves and feeling free to participate fully during classroom interaction. Inclusivity, in this context, refers to all learners being accommodated in the learning experience, without discrimination or categorising. Inclusivity also suggests an attempt by the teacher to make sure that language does not become a barrier for all learners. In an environment where learners have little contact with English, their L2, language becomes a barrier to learning. In the situations in which the participating teachers teach, most learners are often left out during discussions because they can understand neither the language of learning and teaching, nor the matter under discussion. In these teaching situations, teachers often find themselves having to code switch as a matter of necessity, as well as having to use other means to accommodate these learners. This can be described as inclusivity. This is one of the most significant outcomes stressed by the Department of Education (White paper 6, 2010; CAPS, p. 5). Educators can thus be said to use CS to incorporate inclusivity.

If one takes into the account from the findings what the participating teachers emphasise - the fact that CS is unplanned - this indicates that teachers do not plan to use it during classroom teaching. This response could indicate that teachers are not familiar with the LiEP which clearly promotes the use of learners' L1 during classroom interaction to enable understanding. If that is the case, it would mean that if teachers were familiar with, and subscribed to, the tenets of the LiEP, and this was sanctioned by the school and the DBE, they would deliberately incorporate or plan for the use of CS during their classroom teaching. This would also leave one wondering if in official departmental/curriculum teacher workshops, teachers are or not encouraged to use CS in their teaching. This, then, necessitates the urgency for the Department of Education to familiarise teachers with the language policy and/or train them in the ways to implement this strategy in lesson planning and in the classroom. According to ED4, CS enables learners to fully and freely engage in classroom discussions for 'self-actualisation'. This suggests that ED4 also equates the use of CS to freedom. This, according to him, indicates that the learners and teachers' use of their L1 allows them to be free as the use of their language allows them to feel unhindered, and/or to express themselves freely. Although the teacher, himself, does not explicitly states or reveals his limited use or competency in L2, his mentioning of the degree of freedom teachers obtain when learners' L1 is incorporated leaves one wondering if this has anything to do with their language proficiency or not. This leaves room for further research into this in the future.

A study conducted by Magid and Mugaddam (2013) in Sudan and Saudi Arabia describes a situation similar to the one described by ED4 above, where learners were passive during teaching and learning due to lack of understanding, and teachers, because of this, used CS to provide explanations and meanings of difficult words, to guide learners in interpretation, to transmit lesson content, and to encourage learners and in this way expanded interactions of learners and teachers in ESL classrooms towards facilitating ESL learning process (Magid & Mugaddam, 2013). Without such explanations through CS, learners find it difficult to participate in classroom interaction, and learning for them becomes mechanical and meaningless. Furthermore, ED4 indicates that, in order to overcome the passivity which occurs amongst learners due to the language barrier, he uses CS *for inclusivity*. A situation where language becomes a barrier often leads to some learners who may sit in class without

understanding what is taught or discussed at that particular moment, thus being excluded from classroom interactions and activities. This is when the teacher realises the predicament and adjusts to the situation by adapting his/her teaching to a method that will allow all learners to participate in class.

When the participants were asked to provide examples of why and how they use CS during classroom teaching, the first interviewee also indicated that he uses it when necessary to help learners' understanding:

ED1: I use CS because my learners are isiZulu speaking. I'm an isiZulu speaking Educator, I don't prepare to use it. You use it to explain some difficult concepts. Or when you feel learners don't understand what you are saying to them.

ED1 indicates that, for both his learners and himself, the same language, isiZulu. This means they share the same identity and cultural understandings. His use of isiZulu could be seen as his way of identifying with them, creating solidarity, as has been described in studies by such researchers such as Myers-Scotton (1995), Sert (2005) and Jingxia (2010). This would mean the teacher understands how, or the most effective and sensitive way, the learners should be taught for them to be able to understand the target language. While he emphasises what other participants have already stated, that they do not prepare, or deliberately intend, to use CS in the classroom, he signifies its frequent usage in the teaching of a target language to aid learners in understanding difficult concepts. This is in agreement with a study which emphasised the need for languages spoken in a region to be given support and the opportunity to develop (Hornberger, 2003). Similar to the above finding, another study found teachers code switching in order to express personal affective meanings in their attempts to identify with the place where the language was being spoken, and express a personal feeling (Cahyan, 2015). ED1 indicates that he is an isiZulu speaker himself and thus his using of the learners' L1 comes naturally and spontaneously during classroom interaction. Another study conducted by Adendorff (in Strauss, 2016), which also looked at functions of code switching and implications of Zulu-English code switching among Zulu-speaking teachers and their learners, found that CS often occurred between the two languages in order to fulfil social functions, such as,

signalling solidarity or authority and building relationships, as well as for academic purposes, such as reiteration to ensure the adequate communication of content. Similar studies done by Gumperz (1982) and Then and Ting (2009) also found CS to be functional in reiteration, while in Myers-Scotton (1995) it proved to be a useful tool in creating solidarity. ED1's use of L1 suggests that it could be his way of – consciously or unconsciously/spontaneously - signalling solidarity with learners who speak the same language as him, while at the same time building favourable relationships with learners that will allow effective communication of the content.

The second question in the concept maps asked the participants to indicate when they use CS in the classroom. The aim of the question was to identify times and contexts for CS use during classroom teaching. The findings in the concept maps reiterated the questionnaire findings. For instance, the first and second respondents give similar instances of its use which repeat and affirm previous responses in terms of reasons for the use of CS:

ED1: It is used when the educator wants to consolidate the understanding or to make clarity or to explain difficult parts in a lesson. I also use code switching when explaining questions to ensure that my learners know what to answer.

ED2: Code switching is used when explaining or clarifying certain terms to second language speakers.

For the two respondents, CS becomes useful when there is a need to consolidate, clarify and explain difficult parts of the lesson, questions, and other terminology that arises in the lesson presented in class. The aim of clarifying these difficult parts of the lesson is to enhance learners' understanding. In the first part of his response to the question ED1 refers to "the educator". This suggests that he is referring to a generally known, often heard and accepted fact. In the second part of the response, the words 'I' and 'my' are used to indicate a more personal, empathetic and immediate/spontaneous reaction to the learners. ED2 also appears to refer to a known and often heard fact when he uses the impersonal passive voice, 'is used' in his response. On the other hand, this could indicate fear or being unused to using the more personal (humanising) active voice. Findings in this study coincide with Gulzar's

(2014) findings where switching to L1 in the English Language Pakistani classrooms was found to be a useful source in assisting teachers to emphasize, clarify, and check the understanding of the students in a more sensitive and effective way; developing their understanding of subject content, as well as humanising the classroom climate.

The fourth respondent further presented his response in the concept map in a somewhat formal 'didactic' manner:

ED4: I feel CS is depriving learners to make meaning from their process of learning. I believe learners should:

Engage: *What do learners already know about the concept?*

What do they want to know?

What will they explore?

Explore: *Part of exploration phase could be for learners to predict what they think would happen during an activity.*

Explain: *During this stage I should lead the discussion around the learners' exploration. I then introduce vocabulary ideas, concepts, etc. as necessary.*

Elaborate: *During the fourth stage, I provide opportunities for learners to extend and elaborate upon their understanding by providing new and/or related experiences for them to apply what they have learned. They might code switch. I throw it back to see if some can give English version.*

Evaluate: *During the fifth and final stage, a teacher should assess and evaluate learners' understanding of the concept or phenomenon in an appropriate manner.*

Assessment is mainly formative- the key function is that of supporting student learning and developing teaching quality.

So, through these stages, code switching should not be intentional. There is no harm if it crops in. Also, it depends on the learners one deals with.

While in his response to the question in the questionnaire had indicated that he felt CS to be necessary for learner engagement, in the concept map, ED4 appears to be concerned that CS deprives learners of making meaning from the process of learning. He suggests that when learners engage with activities using the target language, they experience learning in a meaningful way instead of simply learning concepts. In his

description of the learning process, learners are also provided with opportunities to predict, then explain and elaborate on the content being introduced and discussed. According to ED4, the target language should play a major role during this 'phase' or 'stage', and CS may be introduced minimally as and if necessary. The respondent is of the view that, even if the assessment is formative, it can still be conducted using both the target language and CS. This is an interesting perspective because previously, findings in this current study had indicated that even though the LiEP in theory accommodates multilingualism, CS has not yet been officially incorporated in the current assessment planning in CAPS. ED4 seems to suggest that CS may not only be infused in informal or classroom interaction but also in formal assessments. At this stage of what appears to be a highly structured lesson, or lesson plan, as learners predict, explain and elaborate on content, the teacher throws back some concepts in the learners' mother tongue and expects them to provide English versions of those concepts.

These findings may be understood using Gumperz' (1982) Semantic Model of Conversational Codeswitching. In a classroom situation, the speakers, who are the teachers and learners, often create different relationships, associations or identities using linguistic means as they interact during teaching and learning, thus creating a shared meaning amongst the speakers involved (Gumperz, 1982). As the responses above show, the first respondent (ED1) creates an association with his learners by realizing – consciously or unconsciously/spontaneously - that he is an isiZulu speaking teacher teaching English, and using English as the LoLT, to isiZulu speaking learners. By using isiZulu, he, therefore, creates a relationship of solidarity or commonality with the learners by using their language in explaining concepts so that learners feel at ease with the teacher. It is notable that ED1 may be adopting 'bilingualism through education' (LiEP, 1997). This is a situation where bilingual teachers may choose a particular code relevant to the context in class to discuss the content of what is taught in class (Hoffman, 1991). Findings of the current study indicate that teachers still find CS to be a useful strategy for teaching when obliged by the language policy of the school to use English as the LoLT in an English Second language class. Ndlangamandla (2010) noted that, since code switching is still regularly utilised in officially de-segregated high schools in South Africa, African languages are still

maintained and are, therefore under no real threat of extermination. However, this remains a point of debate amongst language researchers.

The current study, and other similar studies cited and discussed, clearly demonstrate the effort made by many teachers to accommodate bi/multilingual communities through incorporating indigenous languages in their teaching. However, in spite of these efforts, there are challenges in terms of the kinds of teaching material provided by education departments. As has been mentioned, much of this material is foreign to learners, or remote from their own life experience, and, together with lack of qualified teachers, limited opportunities for professional development of teachers and poor pedagogy the quality of education in schools such as the one under study has not noticeably improved (Garcia, Zakharia & Otcu, 2013, p. 40). In terms of the 'foreign' material provided, many teachers attempt to relate this to the real-life situations of learners to promote understanding. The issue of unqualified teachers indicates a greater need for both pre- and in-service teacher training in the efficient use of learners' mother tongues to facilitate understanding during teaching of and through the target language. Tonkin (2004) takes the view that languages are not in textbooks but in the minds of living people. This suggests the possibility that languages – and teachers teaching them and through them - may adapt to the various social context pressures and demands in which they are utilised. This also suggests that the situations, and the language groups with which individuals interact, often influence the language choices people make, inevitably leading to code switching in order to enhance mutual understanding (Songxaba, Coetzer & Molepo, 2017). In this context, Finlayson also maintains that, when a situation calls for a change in language, one is forced to conform (1997a).

In conclusion, the definitions of CS highlighted in the findings above to a large extent tally with the definitions expounded in the literature informing the theoretical framework that CS involves a shift from one language, in this case a target language, to another language, the learners' language, in order to promote understanding of the content taught in class. The above findings above, show the participants appearing to be committed and motivated teachers who are willing to utilise the available resources to teach in these rural schools, and this initiative includes incorporating CS in their teaching of and through the target language. Even in contexts where there are no

resources, teachers are still expected to show determination in the work that they do (Porteus & Nadubere, 2006). This situation emerges from the findings above: the participants are clearly doing everything in their power to improve education in the rural schools in which they teach, in spite of the existing challenges and conditions (Salojee, 2009) by using CS to try to ensure understanding of the content taught in class.

5.2.1 Frequency of code switching

When participants were asked, in the concept maps, to indicate how much or how often they use CS in class when teaching English or using English as the LOLT, the first respondent reported it being a regular and frequently used teaching strategy by other teachers as well as by him:

ED1: code switching is used so often in such a way that it is dominant in the lesson because my learners do not understand English. I have observed other educators using Code Switching all the time, sometimes you can't tell if English is the medium of instruction.

It can be inferred that for ED1 CS usually dominates his English lessons due to the language barrier experienced by learners. This is a cause for concern because these participants are teaching English FAL and using English as the LoLT in their respective classrooms and are therefore, according to the official language policy of the school, in theory, expected to use CS to a limited extent and only if absolutely necessary. This response indicates the possibility that the teachers participating in the study, as well as other teachers in rural schools, are not being totally open about their use of the mother tongue in their lessons. From ED1's observation, other colleagues in the same school use CS frequently and liberally, such that it is sometimes difficult to decide which language is being used as the medium of instruction. This also indicates a larger and more general problem in the school – and other similar schools throughout the country - that learners at such schools in rural areas have a serious barrier to learning in the target language. There is the fear amongst some teachers and language practitioners that too much CS use could result in learners' inability to acquire the necessary vocabulary skills in the target language and, therefore, end up with a

serious lack of competency, or a 'deficit' in the target language. This argument, taken to its logical conclusion, would be that, too much use of CS by teachers in this school – and other schools - could have a detrimental effect on the matriculation examinations pass rate. This circular argument could be – and often is - used to add more reasons for learners in the school not being competent and proficient in English.

Responding to the same question in the concept maps, the third respondent indicated the frequency of her CS use:

ED3: Three times in five times depending on the skills taught.

This confirms ED1's report that CS dominates in lessons, is used 60% of the time. The responses from ED1 and ED3 reveal that the practice of using CS is widespread and in fact dominates classrooms in each of the two rural high schools where these two participants teach. The possibility exists that this situation regarding the frequency of CS use could be representative of most high schools in rural areas in the country. From the findings of this study, and those of studies such the ones done by Adendorff (1996) and Mather (2012), CS appears to be an unwritten practice at this and other schools, and that most if not all teachers have bought into this practice. Given this situation, learners are exposed to relatively little English and do not get to use much English. There is an argument that this practice might have a negative effect on learners' ability to use English as a language of learning and teaching. This possible negative effect could be reflected in their test, assignment and examination scores where instructions and answers are in English, although there are other possible factors responsible for this. For this reason, Jingxia (2010) argued against the overuse of L1, indicating that it might affect the quantity and quality of L2 input. He argued that the use of L1 may lead to internalisation of non-standard L2 forms and the preservation of errors, which may lead to learners committing to a non- standard L2 language use without the realisation that they have committed, and are committing, errors (Jingxia, 2010).

In the context of the schools in this study, the overuse of the learners' L1 may lead to fewer chances of their acquiring target language vocabulary and their developing more of their L1 vocabulary. As a result, the argument goes, when learners are required to

communicate and write in the target language, they are bound to commit errors. Thus, some language scholars and practitioners would argue that overuse of CS by teachers in schools, such as the ones under study, could have detrimental effects on their learners. Nordin (2013) cautions against too frequent use of CS and advocates that CS be applied judiciously and with careful consideration by teachers. Mashiyi's (2014) study also confirms in the study's findings that, in as much as L1 may be used to achieve what the four participants have described, it should be used to a limited and carefully considered extent.

However, in spite of the findings of the studies cited above, The following responses in the concept maps indicate the relative frequency of CS use by the four study participants:

ED2: Is not always used but may constitute twenty percent of the language lesson.

ED4: ... is used minimally. I evaluate learners' understanding of the topic under discussion and switch to undo the hitch.

Contrary to those findings above which show CS to be dominating classroom teaching in the four rural schools under study, according to ED2 and ED4, CS constitutes a smaller percentage of the language lessons as indicated above, for instance, "*not always used*" (20%) and "*minimally*". The fourth respondent emphasises that CS is only used when there is a "*hitch*", meaning a drawback or problem that hinders meaningful learning. It is interesting to note that these participants say, or are under the impression that, they shy away from overusing CS in the classroom when they teach English. The above findings are similar to those of Mashiyi's (2014) study, which indicated the need for the use of L1 to compensate the academic experience. Her study found that when CS was used with the intention of achieving the learners' successful academic experience, learners were able to grasp and understand what was being taught in class.

When the four participants were asked in the interviews if they used CS in their classes, all four reported some use of it, although ED2 added a qualification and also quantified its use:

ED1: Yes, we do use code switching sometimes.

ED2: Yes, we do use code switching sometimes but not always. Not always, it's certain activities and concepts, about 15% of CS is used.

ED3: Yes, I do.

ED4: Yes, we do use Code Switching sometimes.

These responses confirm CS usage on the part of all four participants, as well as the frequency of CS use in their classes. As can be observed, CS is not always used when the participants are teaching the target language. Three of the participants indicate that CS is 'sometimes' used. This could indicate that all teachers in the four schools use CS when they teach. 'Sometimes' also suggests that all teachers in the schools are aware that CS should not always be used. The studies cited above (Nordin, 2013; Mashiyi, 2014) argue for the advisability of this and for the judicious and carefully considered use of CS. It is also worth noting that the three participants use the word 'we' instead of 'I'. This could indicate that CS is generally used by all teachers in the four schools. This could also suggest that teachers do not want to openly admit that they use CS, and would therefore prefer to generalise.

It is noted, however, that while ED1 had stated in the concept map that CS is dominant in classroom teaching in his school, he appears to contradict himself in the interviews as he now states that it is sometimes used. ED2 also contradicts himself in his responses: in the concept maps he stated that CS is used 20% of the time at his school, while in the interviews he states that it used 15% of the time. A possible reason could be that when the participants were given the concept maps to complete, they were able to do this and carefully consider the issue in the comfort of their homes without time pressure, and only return them after about two weeks since I wanted them to take their time thinking about their use of CS in the classrooms. The discrepancies

between their answers could mean that in completing the concept maps they had adequate time to think and respond as honestly as possible, and that this response changed in the interviews. In the interviews they did not have enough time to think about the question, and as a result responded without thinking carefully or even trying to remember what they had written on the concept maps. Another possible reason could be that, while the concept map and the questionnaire were anonymous, in an interview one may seek to save face, or second guess the interviewer, in order to impress the interviewer. This kind of discrepancy/inconsistency of response could indicate that teachers do not want to be perceived as frequent users of CS especially because they see themselves as known to be English qualified specialists.

As in the two other research instruments, the questionnaire and concept maps, data from the interviews indicate that all participants use CS in the classroom when they teach. What is worth noting is that the participants emphasise the fact that they do not always or consistently use it. This suggests that the participants are aware that, according to CAPS and to the official language policy of the school, CS should not always be used, or used judiciously only in situations where it is necessary, such as clarifying difficult and/or abstract concepts. This could also indicate the understanding that the participants have regarding the subject they are teaching which, in this case, is English/ESL, and, it should ideally not be taught in a language (learners' L1) other than English, their learners' L2.

5.3 Reasons for the use of CS in the classroom

The previous questions posed to, and responses from participants in this study have provided in-depth data regarding the participants' understanding and use of code switching in their classrooms. As this study incorporates, and uses the Semantic Model of Codeswitching as a theoretical base, the researcher wished to have participants account for the linguistic codes they choose when they use CS in their classrooms as they engage with learners. To this end, participants were asked to provide reasons behind their use of CS in the classroom. The results from this question in the questionnaires indicated the responses such as the one from ED 1 describing the shared linguistic history and background of the learners at his school:

ED1: Learners come from Black rural communities where English is not used, they only use English when they are at school. Learners have a poor English background from primary schools.

For ED 1 the main reason for his resorting to CS was the fact that his learners came from Black rural communities in which English is not used on a daily basis. It was not clear whether the reason for non-usage was because it was not known or members of learners' communities were unable to speak it at all, or known but not used on a daily basis. According to his response, learners, then, have poor English backgrounds from primary schools. ED1's response echoes that of ED4, discussed earlier. Both responses indicate that primary school preparation for the use and study of English is perceived to be very poor/inadequate.

In the questionnaire, ED2 echoed this reason as to the inevitability of CS use:

ED2: The language barrier and poor vocabulary background.

According to ED2, when learners come to Grade 8, as indicated earlier by ED4, they already have a poor language and vocabulary background. When he states, 'language barrier', he does not specify in his response whether this barrier is an isiZulu or English barrier. But since isiZulu is the learners' mother tongue, it cannot or should be a barrier for them. Therefore, the respondent appears to assume that there is already a language barrier in English for the learners at his school. This assumption could be based on the previous indication in this study that learners are mostly taught in mother tongue in primary schools, at least in the Foundation Phase. If that is the case, then it could be argued that learners do not get enough exposure to English at primary school and probably outside school as well. If that is the problem, then a bigger issue faces these and other high school teachers who have to start building the learners' vocabulary from Grade 8. In this situation, teachers have to find the means to enable learners to understand English, as the following respondent stated in her response to this question in the questionnaire:

ED3: To help with understanding.

Her and the other participants' responses indicate that teachers not only have to build their learners' English vocabulary, but also have to find ways of helping them understand the content of ENGFAL taught in class.

In addition to this challenge, due to learners' differentiated exposure to English, ED4 in the questionnaire notes the importance of home language in the learning process:

ED4: To progress from the known to the unknown, people depend on their home language. It depends on the context.

ED4's response indicates his view that as teachers of ENGFAL, in order to ensure they receive feedback from learners, teachers have to start from what learners know, 'their first language', to the unknown, or minimally known, 'the target language'. What is suggested is that this process depends on the context in which this learning process takes place, and the context usually determines the extent to which CS should be used. According to Hibbert and van der Walt (2014), discourses in regulated and unregulated spaces (Sebba, 2007) "should be viewed on a continuum rather than as binary opposites" (Hibbert & van der Walt, 2014, p. 5). The argument these authors bring forth is that learners come from communities that range from oral and multilingual, at one end of the continuum, to literate and monolingual at the other, and these offer two ends of the biliteracy continuum (Hibbert & van der Walt, 2014, p. 5). According to this argument, learners can therefore be assumed to be able to "move from minority to majority languages, that is from vernacular to the literary" (p. 5).

The findings in this study further indicate reasons for the use of CS in teaching English as a Second Language, or ENGFAL, when learners have to do activities in class, as ED4 describes:

ED4: CS helps when learners collect and organize their activity, when making some connections from the past with the present learning experience and in informal discussions.

This collection and organisation of activities involves communication or 'informal discussions' in class. When language becomes a barrier to learning, CS becomes a

useful tool in easing understanding for learners. The organisation of activities also requires ‘...making some connections from the past with the present learning experience’. Ed4 is talking about the process of learning during which the communication strategies used by learners require them to draw from their own first language, the ‘*known*’ to engage with or understand the target language or new matter, the ‘*unknown*’ as presented in an ENGFAL class.

These responses by the fourth respondent are similar to those in the findings of the study conducted by Hibbert and van der Walt (2014) which indicated that code switching among African tertiary students participating in their study was used to mediate knowledge and new information in terms of that which is known, a language that is familiar and relevant to students’ life-world experiences (p. 213). Their study highlights the difficulty many African-language speakers experience on entering an English-dominated environment. The context calls for them to be competent in English, the language of learning and teaching. Their background as second language speakers of English sometimes prohibits them from doing so. This is a situation which calls for their primary (known) knowledge or discourses to be merged with their secondary courses which incorporate familiar words, deeds and values (Gee, 2008). When learners are allowed to have informal discussions during formal teaching and learning using their home languages, their communication skills are sharpened and promoted, hence the need for clarity of information as discussed above. This is echoed in Mashiyi (2014) where the use of CS was found to be very useful in facilitating discussions to promote student-centred discussions. Code switching has been strategically used to make explanations and clarifications on subject content, and also assist learners in the process of encouraging their participation during classroom interaction (Uys & van Dulm, 2011; Mashiyi, 2014).

In the concept map ED3 indicated a further reason for using CS in the classroom:

ED3: Better understanding for learners not used to listening to the 2nd language spoken by home language users.

In this response, her emphasis is on using CS to enable better understanding for these learners as they are not used to listening to English. This emphasises what was

indicated before by ED1 above, that learners come from communities where English is not spoken.

In the interview ED1 indicated the reason for her use of CS for teaching comprehension texts:

ED1: I use CS when the new setting (foreign) of the comprehension passage presents a problem sometimes.

The setting of the comprehension or literary text may be unfamiliar to ESL readers due to a language barrier and because the setting, events and context being presented are unknown or unfamiliar to the learners. ED3 is suggesting that in this situation the teacher needs to use CS in order to introduce learners to a context which is new or unfamiliar to them and to familiarise them to the new context or setting of the passage to be read and engaged with.

In the interview, ED3 provided a reason for using CS:

ED3: It is a useful tool because our learners understand mostly in their mother tongue. What I've observed over the years is that, whatever is being taught, learners try and understand it in their home language and translate to their second language, English. Sometimes you find that it's a direct translation from their mother tongue.

For this respondent, CS becomes a useful tool when learners have to translate what is in the target language into their first language for purposes of understanding what is being presented to them in the target language. Past studies have also indicated the application of the translation method in teaching vocabulary in an ESL classroom. Studies have indicated that the translation method, a use of first language equivalents in teaching new English vocabulary, appears to have positive effects on students' vocabulary 'recall and retention' (Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004). Another earlier study by Swan (1995) indicates that, while the use of L1 in ESL classes was viewed negatively as something that would hamper ESL acquisition, direct translation was perceived as a better option than using students' L1. While these studies and the findings in the current study confirm positive outcomes of direct translation in L2

classrooms, this is not considered as code switching although some teachers may perceive it to be some version of CS, and this could have serious negative repercussions for the target language acquisition. For instance, teachers' or learners' direct translation from mother tongue to the target language before learners actually write the final piece of the activity may be time consuming in a classroom situation where learners are expected to do activities that are time-based. This is because learners have to translate almost each word, literally rather than freely, in the target language to their mother tongue before they can produce a final piece to be presented to the teacher. This could also have negative effects during assessment times when learners are expected to write their examinations which are presented and written in English. In addition to this, direct translation may fail to capture the cultural context of the target language, thus resulting in delays in understanding what is being taught. These studies emphasise what the findings indicate in this study: the need for CS, perhaps rather than habitual direct translation, in translating or presenting some of the vocabulary taught in and for the target language.

5.3.1 The perceived usefulness of code switching

In the questionnaires, the question as to whether respondents found CS useful or not was asked to find out if they found their use of CS useful or not. The second respondent answered in the affirmative:

ED2: Yes, to the Second Language speakers of English.

ED2 does not specify who the second language speakers are or would be. He could be referring to both teachers and learners. For teachers, while CS has the potential to provide them with opportunities to assist learners to understand the content taught in the target language, it could also mean that, as second language speakers of English themselves, teachers also benefit from CS use when they themselves get stuck or run out of vocabulary in the target language. In the same situation, for the learners who are second language speakers of English, the use of CS becomes necessary for understanding. The implication here is that the participating teachers are aware that, as second language speakers of English, their learners struggle to comprehend the

terminology and concepts in the target language and that this necessitates a shift to the learners' mother tongue to enable them to understand the content.

In addition to this, in response to this question in the questionnaire, ED3 remarked on one of the risks of direct translation:

ED3: It is useful for the purpose of helping learners understand better, but they tend to depend on an educator for translation.

While ED3 sees CS as assisting in enhancing understanding of the subject matter, she points out that learners may tend to rely heavily on the teachers to translate for them. The teachers in the study appear to perceive CS in terms of translating English texts or instructions into their learners' mother tongue. This could suggest that they use CS in this way in their classrooms. The implication here is that they think that learners cannot develop their own vocabulary skills in the target language if they keep relying on teachers to translate for them in order to progress. Overuse of this practice could also result in high failure rates in the school as can be said to limit learners from grasping, understanding, and applying these concepts. Although other studies have indicated that a teacher's translation aids learners' understanding of difficult concepts, as indicated in Swan (1995) and by the findings of the current study, translation becomes counter-productive when learners can no longer develop their own vocabulary skills because they habitually depend on their teacher for translating difficult concepts and terms.

ED4 also highlighted in the questionnaire, and reinforced later in the interview, the usefulness of CS:

ED4: Yes, it is useful for free conversations, especially because people learn better in an informal environment.

For ED4, CS allows for free conversations conducted informally in class. This means that teachers sometimes move away from formal teaching and incorporate informal teaching simply to enable learners to freely converse in a situation that allows them to be free from formal judgement or the kind of scrutiny of language structures and

grammar forms that become necessary under formal teaching. This is what Gumperz (1977) referred to as conversational code switching, where passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems, or a subsystem within the same exchange, are juxtaposed. He sees this as taking place in natural talk where someone may be reiterating his/her message or replying to someone's statement (Gumperz, 1977).

In the interviews ED1, responding to the question on the usefulness of CS in the interviews ED1 considered CS to be of value in introducing new words:

ED1: Yes. I think CS is a good thing to do. It makes the learners know, sometimes you use a new word and you don't know if it's a new word to them and they don't understand.

For the above respondent the introduction of a new word poses problems for learners. This is because, as ED2 indicated earlier, learners in these rural schools do not have dictionaries and other resources due to financial constraints. The DBE also does not provide learners with dictionaries. The schools in the study are Section 21 (no-fee paying) schools, according to which they are considered poor and cannot afford schools fees and would find it near impossible to buy learning resources. In this context, therefore, CS becomes a useful tool/resource for introducing and explaining new words that the learners may not understand and do not have the means to check for themselves.

5.4 Attitudes of teachers of English in the four rural high schools towards code switching

In the questionnaires, when the participants were asked how they feel about their use of CS in the classroom, they displayed mixed feelings. ED1 saw no problem with using CS should the need arise:

ED1: I am okay with it because I know the background of my learners, therefore, it is the need, we cannot do without it.

ED1 indicates that he feels “*okay*” with using CS in the classroom as he feels there is a need and for him to understand his learners’ background. He states this in the questionnaire and reinforces it in the concept map. The fact that ED1 states that they cannot do without CS implies that the level of his learners’ language proficiency is very low. Probyn (2009) posits that ESL teachers often face different sets of challenges which may include not only lack of resources, cultural factors, and language mismatch, and also a lack of support from the community to reinforce learners’ learning beyond the classroom. When ED1 mentions the background of the learners he and other teachers are teaching, it becomes clear that this is what often determines whether CS should or should not be used in the classroom. From his response, it is apparent that the prevailing conditions under which he and his colleagues work in his school, namely, poor language background and lack of resources as a rural school, often lead them to rely more on CS for teaching the target language as well as teaching content subjects using English as the LoLT. The teacher’s attitude is positive towards CS because he sees CS as the only means to remedy the reality within which he and his colleagues find themselves.

In the questionnaire the second respondent indicates the general usefulness of CS to him in his teaching:

ED2: As a second language speaker myself, I feel it helps in understanding certain concepts.

ED2 appears to believe that this common linguistic standing between him and his learners- both are second language speakers of English- may assist in helping them understand concepts taught in the target language. Thus, the fact that both the teacher and learner are second language speakers of English has significance in the teaching and learning context of a rural school such as the one of those under study since as a second language speaker himself, the teacher understands, and empathises with, the predicament that faces second language learners because he himself may have experienced similar circumstances in the past when he was a learner. This kind of empathic approach makes it easier for the teacher to select linguistic codes and use strategies that are relevant to enhancing the understanding of concepts presented in English to these learners. It becomes easy for the teacher to create a context which

allows for the use of CS in the classroom to enhance understanding for learners who may be experiencing a language barrier.

In the questionnaire the fourth respondent gave his view of the necessity for using CS:

ED4: I feel it is necessary to make meaningful learning in their process of learning. If I am using it, I don't feel guilty because there are things you do not consider when planning. When your activities require more clarity, you code switch.

ED4 perceives CS to be a useful tool in enabling meaningful learning for learners. However, ED4 mentions that he does not feel guilty when he uses CS as it is not consciously or explicitly considered for inclusion in a lesson(s) when planning is done. It appears from this and other responses of participants that, as long as CS is not planned or included in lesson planning, it justifies his positive feeling towards its use in the classroom. It implies that he is aware of the contents of the LiEP, which only suggests the use of learners' L1 in primary school, but believes that if he uses CS for the benefit of learners then there could not be anything wrong with that. This means that, paradoxically, he believes that, as an English teacher, he is not (officially) supposed to be using CS in teaching the target language in the first place.

At the same time, the fact that he does not feel guilty could point to his inability to teach the target language proficiently. He could be relying, or over-relying on CS to explain things that should be explained using the target language. On the other hand, if this teacher was implementing what is included in the school's language policy – that is, if the school's language policy allows for the use of CS or learners' L1 to enhance understanding in L2 teaching – as suggested in the LiEP, he could have, without feeling guilty or ambivalent, incorporated CS in his planning. Although LiEP made an exception that allows learners in a class of 35 to choose their own language of instruction (LiEP, 1997 as cited in Niki Stein, Chapter 11), most schools opt for English as LoLT due to the alluded benefits of wealth and success. In spite of the choice the schools make of making English a LoLT, learners still struggle to understand the language of instruction in the classroom, hence the challenges experienced by the respondent above. Since he indicated before that he understands his learners to have

a language barrier, he should be specifically planning to use CS for introducing and explaining difficult concepts where appropriate and “necessary”.

ED4 below in the following additional response to the questionnaire also displayed a positive attitude towards CS use, indicating a lack of guilt around its use:

ED4: I feel okay because it is not something that makes me uncomfortable because it's not planned. If I'm using it I don't feel guilty because there are things in your planning that may need more clarity.

While in the concept maps mentioned above ED4 had felt that CS may, according to some arguments, deprive learners of opportunities to engage, elaborate, predict with the learning content in class, but may be used minimally where necessary, in the questionnaire, he appears to have a positive attitude toward its use. He indicates that using it does not make him uncomfortable because its use is never planned for. What clearly makes him comfortable about its use is the fact it is not planned but happens unintentionally/spontaneously as the need arises for providing clarity where learners do not understand. What seems to be puzzling from a pedagogic point of view is the fact that he feels comfortable with the use of CS when CS is unplanned when in fact many language education researchers and practitioners might argue that a planned strategic and skilful use of CS might prove more useful and perhaps pedagogically sound in the particular situation in which this teacher is teaching. It would make him more prepared for the lesson as the more prepared a teacher is, while allowing some flexibility in her/his planning, the more possible it will be for him/her to achieve the lesson outcomes.

In the questionnaire ED2 expressed his view on how much CS could or should be used:

ED2: My feelings towards the use of code switching is that it can only be used by second language speakers of the language, but it can be used to a minimum.

ED2 appears to think that the use of CS should be restricted to second language speakers of English only. For him, CS should be used in circumstances that clearly

indicate restricted levels of second language proficiency, as is often the case with second language speakers, and particularly in schools such as the one in which this participant teaches. However, this belief does not always hold true for all circumstances as CS can be used by bilingual and multilingual speakers. What respondent ED2 indicates would not strictly speaking be described as an attitude despite his use of the word 'feelings'.

The above findings have shown generally positive attitudes on the part of the participating teachers towards CS use in the classroom. In the following discussion, participants also displayed negative attitudes towards CS use in the classroom. The reason for these mixed feelings is, firstly, because teachers' characteristics, backgrounds and circumstances are diverse. Secondly, teachers' attitudes towards classroom code-switching are to a lesser or greater extent influenced by their experiences in teaching, their teacher training backgrounds, their faithfulness to the language, as well as their principles with regard to the appropriateness and functions of classroom code-switching (Vaish, 2012). Thirdly, teachers can also differ in their teaching philosophies and pedagogical preferences (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009).

In the interview, ED1 indicated negative feelings towards the use of CS in certain cases:

ED1: It tends to make our learners lazy because they know you will teach in English and then explain in their mother tongue and they end up not developing their English language. I think it's in that case where it is not good.

Having stated elsewhere that CS becomes necessary for explaining new words or concepts to learners, this respondent is also concerned that the teacher's use of CS, for whatever reason, often leads to learners becoming 'lazy' in developing their vocabulary in the target language. Their laziness is defined by him – and other teachers - as caused by their reliance on the expectation of their teacher teaching in English and later always providing the explanations in their mother-tongue. So, they are seen (or experienced?) by this teacher, and other teachers, in some way, to never attempt to carefully listen to the teacher while the interaction takes place in the target language, and only listen when the teacher resorts to mother tongue. What the teacher

does in this context does not in fact appear to be CS, which would incorporate the insertion of a word or a group of words from the learners' home language for enhancing their understanding, rather than presenting a direct/verbatim translation from the L1 to the L2. When he states that learners end up not developing their vocabulary skills in the target language, this suggests that the CS is unsuccessful or not being judiciously and appropriately used. However, this teacher does not appear, in his practice, to be inserting a word or a few words in his teaching, but to be teaching first in English and then re-teaching the same material or concepts in the learners' mother tongue. Deeming CS as unsuccessful in these circumstances would be a misrepresentation of CS, since it is not CS that is used here. From the data above, it should be noted that teachers appear to have different understandings of what CS entails. This means that one cannot conclude that teachers understand exactly what CS is, and how it is, or should be, used. This signifies the need for the DoE's intervention in educating teachers, both pre-service and in-service levels about CS and how it could or should be used in teaching the target language, as well as teaching learners, whose L1 is not English, across the curriculum using English as the LoLT.

When asked in the interviews if he was comfortable using CS in class while teaching English, ED1 responded:

ED1: Comfortable? I don't feel okay. Some other things cannot be explained in isiZulu, sometimes you are in a bad space, so you feel the need to code switching.

In both the questionnaire and concept maps respondent ED1 displayed a positive attitude in his responses towards CS use when he indicated that it is a 'need'. However, in the interviews, he indicates that he is uncomfortable using CS but feels he is forced to do so by the situation in which he teaches, suggested by "bad space". The fact that the respondent appears ambivalent, and contradicts himself, giving two different responses to the same question indicates that, while on the one hand, he finds CS useful in some cases, he is also concerned that it may be detrimental to learners' success in learning. The feeling of discomfort that the teacher refers to may be related to his knowledge and interpretation of the requirements of the LiEP. According to Tan and Low (2017), teacher attitudes towards CS may be influenced by

the language policy of a country, which is closely connected to the political, economic, and social statuses of the languages used by the citizens of that country.

Although the LiEP specifies learners' L1 use where linguistically and pedagogically appropriate, the literature reviewed and cited in this study has highlighted the situation in South Africa, and parents' feelings towards English as a prestigious language, and the language of success for their children. Parents sending their children to English-medium schools, or the parent body forcing some schools to choose and to stick rigidly to English as a medium of instruction, obviously changes, or influence a change in, the school's official language policy to one of English-only. It also makes teachers feel under obligation to use English only in their interactions with learners in the classroom when they teach the target language, as well as content subjects using English only. The teachers' feeling obliged to implement, what the schools' language policy requires would inevitably make them feel guilty when using CS in situations where they find their learners failing to understand what is taught in class. This means that English is chosen by parents and the school and used as a medium of instruction due to the social and economic status of the parents or community in the area, who believe it will raise the socio-economic status of their children. The negative and conflicted feelings that this teacher carries as a result of this situation may have negative effects on his self-esteem as well as his ability to teach English effectively. From their training as teachers, as well as from their teaching experiences, it must be assumed that teachers possess considerable knowledge about what to teach and how to teach it. The DoE has entrusted them with teaching, and with helping learners to achieve their learning outcomes, so that, in the language/discourse of CAPS, they can become global citizens. However, when they begin to distrust themselves, or find themselves deeply conflicted, and, as ED1 suggests above, their self-esteem and confidence diminishes and the likelihood of their beginning to doubt their experiences as teachers of English is high. If this situation continues, they could in time come to believe that they cannot teach successfully, and this in turn becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy and has a direct negative impact on the learner who faces a future where she has to use English proficiently in the world of work. Finally, ED1 mentions that another reason for using CS in the classroom has to do with what he calls a 'bad space'. This is a very negative and disturbing concept because it suggests his lack of the necessary vocabulary to explain content taught in English, the target language. It means that the teacher

sometimes runs out of vocabulary to use as he teaches English. And this puts him on the spot. This situation has the potential to make him, his learners, his colleagues and the parent community question his proficiency and ability to teach English in the first place. If a teacher sometimes finds himself in a 'bad space', he could hinder the learners' potential to learn and become proficient in English (Tan & Low, 2017). This could also affect the final assessment results in the school.

Studies have indicated that the different competency levels in the second language that teachers have often led to them to react differently to learners who also have different language proficiency levels (de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Kang, 2013). In a Korean study by Kang (2013), the teacher who was less proficient in English was found to use more first language in her teaching of English than her higher English proficient counterpart who used more English than learners' first language in class when teaching learners from lower socioeconomic levels.

ED1 indicated a second reason for his negative attitude towards CS:

ED1: ...what causes discomfort is that learners don't pay attention when you teach. You explain things in isiZulu.

This response displays another negative teacher attitude towards CS causing this teacher discomfort when making use of it in his classroom. According to ED1, he experiences learners paying more attention when the teacher switches to their L1 than if he keeps to the target language, their L2. Through the use of isiZulu to explain things to learners, a language that helps him obtain more attention from learners, while also allowing him to freely converse with them in a language he is familiar with and comfortable in, he is able to capture his learners' attention which is obviously lost when he is teaching in English. This indicates that learners in this school experience a huge language barrier when English is used, and only understand and engage with learning when the first language is used. This could perhaps mean that the culture of the school leads to the L1 being used more compared to L2, and as result, learners are more used to their L1 than to the L2. What could be inferred or speculated, but not definitively concluded, from this data is that all teachers in the school where ED1 teaches, regardless of the school's LoLT policy, tend to use the learners' L1 to teach,

and that this practice could be the direct cause of the learners' lack of proficiency in the target language. This could indicate, but not definitively confirm, firstly that the English proficiency level of teachers in the school is low. Secondly, this could reflect the level of English proficiency of the community surrounding the school. Data collected during this study have highlighted the poor L1 language background of learners mainly resulting from primary school teaching which is conducted in learners' L1 with little or no additive bilingualism taking place. In addition, the data collected have confirmed that the community from where these learners come also plays a role in their development of proficiency in the target language. Accordingly, three interrelated circumstances could be said to contributing to the lack of proficiency in English of learners at these rural schools.

In this context, in the questionnaire, ED1 indicated that these learners *come from Black rural communities where English is not used, they only use English when they are at school*. Previous studies have found that in different school contexts, teachers try to address the differential needs of learners in relation to their readiness to perform in ESL classrooms (Vaish, 2012). If the community background of learners indicates lack of exposure to the target language, teachers may find themselves, when teaching, using more of learners L1 than their L2 which they do not understand. This is because their readiness to perform in ESL classroom is dependent on their level of proficiency in L2. In the concept map, ED1 also indicated that teachers at his school “... *use code switching to clarify certain concepts since our learners are not familiar with the language*”. As has been mentioned, the fact that they are not familiar with, or proficient in, the language may indicate that it is not used at all in the community. In the interviews, similarly to his response in the questionnaire, ED1 also stated that “...*at high school level ... it is only the English teacher that teaches in English, but the rest of the teachers in the school teach in mother tongue*”. This context puts learners in an awkward position of not understanding English and being used to being taught in their other tongue, which leads to their not paying attention when the lesson is conducted in English. Additionally, even if the community is not used to speaking English or at least encouraging their children to speak English, English teachers should in theory be in a position to enable these learners to learn and be proficient in English because these teachers have studied it, are proficient in it, and have been trained in the teaching of it. In theory, they should not allow the context in which they teach to cripple

their ability to teach the target language. They should be the ones to maintain English proficiency in the school since it is their job to do that. However, the circumstances under which they are attempting to teach, such as poor language background indicated by ED 1 in the responses in this study, may be working against this.

ED3 displayed similar feelings/reservations in the questionnaire about the use of CS:

ED3: I feel it is not encouraging learners to be independent. It is not helping them think because they already expect the teacher to use home language (isiZulu).

Respondent ED3 displays a very negative attitude towards CS in this response, when she states that it causes lack of independence in learners, and stops them from thinking. While in her responses to the other questions in this study this respondent had agreed that CS sometimes becomes necessary to aid learners' understanding of the matter delivered in class, her attitude displayed in the interview differs from this, as the above response shows. According to CAPS, one of the critical outcomes of teaching learners is to enable them to become critical thinkers. If that is not achieved, it means, somehow, the main effort of teaching these learners is limited. This clearly shows that teachers of ESL in rural high schools continue to harbour negative, or at best ambivalent, attitudes towards CS, and these are related to what they perceive (and how they understand CS) as its inability to develop independent critical thinking abilities in these learners. This also highlights the fact that there are teachers out there who still believe in the purist, and by now archaic, view of English-only in the teaching of the second language. This means that, whenever these teachers are faced with situations which seem to force the use of CS, they find themselves dismayed and demoralised as they continue to believe that learners' proficiency in English will only be attained if the target language only is used in teaching these learners. The same respondent confirmed this attitude towards the use of CS in the concept map:

ED3: ... makes the learners depend on explanation in home language by the teacher.

This response echoes the same concern on the part of other teacher participants, that learners are found to be dependent on the teacher explaining (or translating) everything in the home language. ED3 in the above response indicates that teachers teach in one language and then explain in another language. This implies that teachers teach the same thing twice, often using direct verbatim translation, thus leading to little information being provided to learners. Large amounts of lesson time are taken up with explanations or translations in the learners' L1. This indicates that less teaching takes place than should be the case, and therefore less curriculum content is covered as teachers are finding that they have to repeat – often verbatim - in isiZulu what has been taught in English. The main reason, again, as explained in, and suggested by, the previous findings, is because, while South Africa is essentially a multilingual country, the learners' immediate community is monolingual since it would appear that English is not spoken by its members – as ED 1 indicated: *learners come from Black rural communities where English is not used, they only use English when they are at school*. From the findings it may be inferred that people/parents in the community do not even make efforts to encourage their children to learn the target language. Hence, learners depend on their teachers for explanations in the mother tongue.

It is worth noting that the reason for the participants not including CS in their planning, even though it is explicitly embraced by the LiEP, is because this practice – as it should be implemented according to sound linguistic and cognitive principles - is not incorporated in teacher training. Nor does it appear that these teachers have fully engaged with the LiEP. This was apparent in the following response in the interview:

ED2: I don't feel comfortable. As an English teacher you feel bad because you want them to learn the language. My feeling does not allow me because in teacher training we are trained to teach in English, and also, it is not in the Language Policy. You would feel guilty if someone from the Department would be passing by and would hear you teach in mother tongue.

According to the above response, teachers feel guilty about using their own home language to teach ESL. The feeling displayed above appears to be as a result of the perceived status of isiZulu, of the teachers looking down on their home language or feeling that it is not as important as English. This negative attitude undermines their

home language and awards English a higher status. Their responses subtly indicate an already determined status and respect awarded to English. When ED2 indicates “*because you want them to learn the language*”, the implication is that CS stops learners from learning a prestigious and sought-after language (English). When she refers to her teacher training, it is as if the training they received, which, according to her did not provide them with the necessary training in proper CS use in the classroom, reinforces the feelings of guilt they as teachers in rural schools possess. The fact that she mentions that CS is not incorporated “*in the Language Policy*” indicates her lack of knowledge as to what is stipulated in the LiEP. The teachers’ lack of exposure to, and engagement with, the LiEP adds to the feelings of guilt they have. Due to fear of being caught – almost like criminals - the teachers would rather smuggle CS into their classrooms.

The findings in this section of the chapter clearly display the participants’ mixed feelings about the use of CS in the classroom when they are teaching the target language. While, on the one hand, they find – or perceive - incorporating CS into their teaching as detrimental, on the other they, also feel the need to use it ‘where necessary’, or at times find its use unavoidable. In the above response, the respondent indicates feelings of discomfort and guilt when he uses CS in the classroom. His concern is that CS is not incorporated in “*the Language Policy*”, and that its use would mean breaching principles of good – or approved - practice. His indication that, as teachers, they are only trained to teach in English-only, indicates that this teacher is either not aware of the contents of the LiEP with regards to multilingualism and the use of learners’ L1 where necessary, or has not been trained, or not trained properly, to incorporate L1 in his teaching of the target language. As has been discussed, previous studies indicate that there has been a long tradition of believing that switching to L1 in ESL and EFL is unacceptable, while in addition, the utilisation of L1 has been discouraged in those classrooms and even considered a taboo, a source of guilt, and thought of as an indication of weakness or laziness on the part of teachers (Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001). The fact that the use of L1 with learners is still perceived to indicate weakness on the part of teachers, may be the main reason behind the participants’ feelings of negativity and guilt shown in the findings of the current study. This is also an indication of an ongoing problem, of which it seems the DoE is unaware, or is in denial: that teachers are forced to use English only when they teach and tend

to shy away from using the learners' L1 even in cases where this would aid learners' understanding of the content taught in the target language out of fear of what is perceived by practising teachers as the official Department of Education language policy. This also emphasizes a point previously made in this study, that it appears that most teachers, if not all, have no knowledge of the fact that the LiEP supports the use of L1 in the teaching of the target language, and that they have not been trained to implement this.

The findings of this study also show that teachers do not know whether or how they can incorporate CS into their lesson planning, even though they may be aware that it becomes necessary during classroom teaching for their learners to understand and progress. If the LiEP does not clearly state that teachers may use the learners' first language for purposes of teaching the subject matter, and how they should do this, or teachers are not helped to engage with and interpret the policy, teachers may fail to implement bilingualism or multilingualism in education in practical and informed ways, or even acknowledge the role that home language plays in developing bilingualism. They may fail to acknowledge the potential of translanguaging in their classrooms, and the benefits of scaffolding instructions and providing multiple entry points to the lesson for individual learners (Garcia et al., 2013, p. 40; Guzula & McKinney, 2016). Although many teachers are able to employ the linguistic resources of the classroom in a skilled and responsive way to achieve a range of cognitive and affective teaching and learning goals, CS is still considered by many teachers only as a necessity, or emergency measure, for effective teaching in the classroom when learners fail to understand, rather than an approved and creative teaching strategy, as can be observed from the findings of this study. Regardless of the circumstances highlighted above, CS has neither been generally accepted as a legitimate classroom strategy, nor sanctioned in teacher training (Probyn, 2009). This, situation makes teachers refer to it as 'smuggling the vernacular' into the classroom (Adendorff, 1996; Macdonald, 1990; National Education Policy Investigation, 1992; Probyn, 2001; Probyn, 2009). It appears that what is advocated in the LiEP, the use of learners' first language where appropriate, is only applied and sanctioned at primary schools and not at high schools. Thus, when learners come from primary to high school, English Second Language teachers at high school find it challenging and difficult to teach learners who have been mostly exposed to isiZulu, their L1, up to Grade 7.

ED2 indicates his ambivalence, or contradictory feelings, towards CS in the interview:

ED2: Learners always enjoy CS.

ED2: For me it is not a good idea, because when they write exams they write them in English. Code Switching is not the Gospel truth.

ED2 clearly emphasises his mixed feelings towards CS use. Despite displaying feelings of negativity towards CS use in the second response, ED2 maintains, in the first response that learners find CS enjoyable. While indicating positivity, he also reveals a concern that learners do not write their exams using CS, or their L1, or are not given the option to do so, a concern that has been a bone of contention for most researchers indicated in this study, such as Rose (2006), Mashiyi (2014), and Madiba (2014). When he indicates that CS is “*not the Gospel truth*”, he means that it is not a formally accepted or approved notion or incorporated in the Language Policy of the country which is supposed to guide teachers as to which language is officially acceptable in their teaching of English Second Language. The fact that teachers feel CS is not *Gospel truth* probably contributes to the feelings of guilt displayed in the responses of participants in this study.

When interviewed, the third respondent also showed mixed feelings toward the use of CS when she teaches English Second Language:

ED3: Yes, I am comfortable, I feel the need for explaining so that they understand what I'm explaining.

Yes, when I'm translating more than 20%, I feel like it's too much because they have to learn the target language. Like at the end of the lesson, when they say they did not understand. They have to get first-hand information in their target language. When you are an English teacher you want your learners to speak and understand the language of learning and teaching. Even outside, learners would ask you, mam you're speaking English even outside the classroom.

ED3 indicates that she is comfortable using CS during her teaching because she feels that learners need explanations especially towards the end of the lesson to enable and consolidate understanding. Her response above clearly indicates that her reason for using CS at this point is the need that she feels for them to understand the target language. This suggests the possibility that teachers do not intend or plan to use CS, as indicated by ED4 in earlier responses, but that circumstances or situations such as those described by Blom and Gumperz (1982) force teachers to use CS to assist learners who struggle to understand due to serious language barriers. However, as teachers, they instinctually use CS at because they want their learners to master the content in the target language and be able to speak and understand it. She clearly emphasises her point when she states that she feels guilty when she translates more than 20% of content into learners' L1. ED3 describes how, after teaching the whole lesson, learners indicate that they did not understand what was taught. This response from their learners must be seriously de-motivating for teachers. While they instinctively see and feel the need for CS use, they are, however, restricted by the fact that learners are expected to master the target language as the curriculum and official policy demands. Learners, in order to succeed, have to develop the correct vocabulary of the target language. It is this that worries this teacher when she codeswitches more than 20% of the content. This appears to be a burden that teachers carry every single day of their teaching lives. It also appears to be a problem for her learners to interact using English with their teacher in class, as well as outside. In her response above, she indicates that her learners often ask her why she speaks English even when they are outside of the classroom. They expect English to be spoken only in class and not outside of the class. From this it seems that, for them, the formality that goes with the use of the target language should end in the classroom setting, and once they are outside the class they should have the freedom to communicate and to express themselves in their mother-tongue. This would seem to confirm the findings of this study which suggest that the community these learners come from sees itself as exempt from English use as well as from encouraging its children to speak English. If English use is restricted to teaching and learning hours at school, and is not being spoken in the homes of learners, the chances of their developing competency in the language are diminished.

The findings of the current study clearly indicate mixed feelings on the part of participating teachers with regards to the use of CS – as they understand it - in their EFAL classes. Probyn's (2009) findings are similar to the findings of the current study where they highlighted the conflicted and uncertain attitudes harboured by South African teachers toward their own use of CS in the classroom when they teach the target language. While, on the one hand, most teachers believe that some use of CS is essential in developing learners' understanding of subject content, and is valuable for humanising the classroom climate, they become more concerned that reducing learners' exposure to English might hinder their familiarisation with the second language (Probyn, 2009). From their responses, for all the participants in the current study, it is clear that, even though they find CS useful at times, they feel guilty most of the time they spend using it in their ESL classes. While they voice their concern regarding the Department of Education, or the school, finding out they are using it unofficially, they use their intuition when they feel the need to aid learners' understanding of comprehension in English, as well as new concepts in the content discussed in class.

5.5 Teachers' experiences of using code switching in four rural high school English classrooms

In this section participants were asked to share their experiences of using CS in an ESL/EFAL classroom. The findings indicate both positive and negative experiences. It became clear from the findings that their experiences of using CS relate mostly to the circumstances they experience in class when they teach the target language. For instance, the following respondent described in his responses to the questionnaire several experiences linked to the use of CS:

ED1: Sometimes learners fail to answer questions if CS is not used.

Learners show signs of paying more attention when CS is used.

I have realised that CS is able to fill the gap of poor understanding.

Through my experience I know the successes of CS by helping the learners to comprehend and respond relevantly to text.

The first response from ED1 above indicates that, from his experience, learners sometimes struggle to answer questions. There also appears to be a language barrier which is responsible for their inability to answer questions: he states that when he begins to use CS, that is when they pay more attention. In this manner, the teacher uses CS as scaffolding, or a bridge, to close the gap of poor understanding. He sees CS as enhancing learner understanding of the content.

The third respondent indicates in the questionnaire:

ED3: If you use a lot of CS you get used to it and your learners they don't get any pressure to learn more and better in the language.

Respondent ED3 warns that when teachers use too much CS, and get used to using it in their teaching, learners no longer feel the need to learn more in the target language. This decreases their chances of acquiring vocabulary in the target language. ED3's experiences suggest the possibility that minimising CS use can put pressure on learners to want to learn the target language.

The following response from ED4 indicates a positive experience of CS use:

ED4: When learners are happy in the first stage of my lesson, being an ice breaker, they connect and organize some activities, and there's a lot of code switching there. When making some connections from their present experience to the unknown, they refer to that experience, and this causes them to code switch.

This respondent states that, from his experience, CS becomes useful as an icebreaker at the beginning of the lesson to make learners happy, comfortable, motivated, and participative. For this respondent, it appears that what makes learners eager to do their activities effectively is the use of CS when the lesson begins. Elsewhere in the study this respondent stated that CS use awards learners' "self-fulfilment". Self-fulfilment seems to be the outcome of learners being happy and confident. When they are happy, they are able to connect and organize activities and make connections from the present to the unknown.

The above respondent's experiences also show that he is aware of what CS entails and the circumstances under which it may be used. The significance of this response is that it shows that at least one teacher clearly recognises the importance of CS and the benefits of using it. In the concept maps ED4 also shows a positive attitude towards CS but with a proviso:

ED2: Experiences of using code switching are that it fits well in literature but not in the grammatical rules of the language. One danger is that it may result in laziness on the side of the learners in working towards achieving the best in vocabulary.

For this respondent, CS fits well in EFAL Literature lessons but not in grammar lessons since these lessons are governed by strict grammar rules which cannot be translated through or into another language. He identifies circumstances when CS would be appropriate. He knows that English grammar is rules-governed and those rules cannot be translated or explained using the learners' L1. Although CS assists in teaching the EFAL Literature curriculum,, as indicated, the concern he raises in the questionnaire, as discussed earlier, is echoed in his entry on the concept map: CS use makes learners lazy in "*working towards achieving the best in vocabulary building*".

The issue of laziness also concerns ED3, as indicated in her response on the concept maps:

ED3: Learners become lazy to think knowing that the teacher is still going explain in home language.

The concept of laziness has been repeated and perpetuated in the findings in this study by ED1, ED2 and ED3: learners tend to be lazy in acquiring vocabulary for and by themselves in the target language because they know that the teacher will explain or translate certain concepts in the first language after teaching it in the target language. These responses display negative feelings towards learners' reliance on their mother tongue for explanations made in the target language. For these teachers, relying on understanding concepts and content in their home language seems to be a sign of laziness. Thus they seem to perceive the use of home language as negative,

while the use of English appears to be positive.. Teachers, such as those participating in the current study, appear – consciously or unconsciously - to be reinforcing the raised status of English and the reduced status of the mother tongue. In this way they unconsciously negate and undermine learners' and their own statuses and identities.

The findings of this study show participants expressing the view that, although CS may be useful in assisting learners to understand certain concepts and settings in the EFAL Literature and in comprehension, it may disadvantage learners' ability to learn and grasp the vocabulary in the target language necessary for them to succeed in assessments. Previous – and outdated - studies attest to this concern when they argue that the use of CS or L1 does not promote the desire for knowledge in learners, but that it leads to learners' lack of ability to learn or use the target language outside of the classroom (McDonald, as cited in Jingxia, 2010). The argument common to these studies is that learners become too dependent on CS to understand interactions in the L2. What these studies found was that teachers believe learners do not seem to learn as much as they would if the teacher was using L2 only.

In a process of participants sharing their experiences with me, in the course of the interviews, of their using CS, ED1 describes the varying effects on his learners of the use of CS:

ED1: It depends on the individual learner. Sometimes it helps the learner and sometimes it doesn't. Some classes don't understand English at all. Also, classes are different, those that are struggling - that is where you must use code switching.

For this respondent, the experiences in different classes and with different learners vary. There are classes where learners do not understand English at all, and therefore, struggle. The latter is a case where teachers usually feel the need to use CS. While ED1 says it depends on the learner, he is aware (even though he does not explicitly articulate this) that it also depends on the teacher who has the ability (or lack of ability) to work out when, where, and how to use CS. From this respondent's point of view, there are teachers who are able to identify and differentiate learners who need special care from those who do not. This view may also contradict the perception that teachers mostly resort to CS because of their own incompetence in the target

language. The respondent also indicates that English language classrooms vary. They appear to contain learners with different and varying linguistic abilities. These may range from learners who really struggle to those that are highly competent in the target language. In these circumstances, teachers need to be well equipped to use different methodologies that will suit each class, or even individual learners or groups of learners. They need to diversify their methods to suit different levels of learners' competencies. ED1's experiences of CS in his ESL classroom have helped him to differentiate, and to adjust to, ways of addressing the particular conditions in classrooms.

While the second respondent opted out of this question, in her interview, respondent ED3 described her experience of CS:

ED3: My experience of code switching is when they use direct translation: somebody is too forward "Somebody is paparing", to impress me because they want to impress me as their language teacher.

Respondent ED3 shares an experience of CS that leads to direct translation from learners where they would take a word in mother tongue and add certain words or letters or syllables to make it English, such as the word "phapha" which means to be too forward, and turn it to 'paparing', where they remove 'h' and add 'ring' at the end of the word to create an equivalent of some kind. What the learners do at this point is a positive experience of code switching since they creatively change the word in order to impress their teacher. While this is a positive sign that they enjoy CS, learning the target language might not in fact be happening.

5.6 Conclusion

Evidence from the findings confirm that CS is still widely used by teachers who teach ESL or EFAL in the four rural high schools under study. This was shown by the fact that they all responded positively to the question, 'Is CS used?'. They noted that they find CS useful at those times when they find learners struggling to understand the

content taught in class. The findings indicate that the participating teachers found their use of CS also allows their learners to be free and, thus able to participate actively in the discussions taking place in class. However, it has also become clear that the teachers participating in the study still find it challenging to use CS freely, and where they intuitively feel the need to do so, due to the fact that they believe it has not been sanctioned in the Language in Education Policy, or by the DBE. It became clear from the participants responses that, although White Paper 6 clearly promotes inclusive education, and the LiEP promotes multilingualism, teachers have either not been trained to implement multilingualism in their teaching or they are not aware of how they can implement this, and implement it creatively and flexibly in their own ways, guided by the particular circumstances they find themselves in during the teaching of the target language. In spite of the obvious lack of training in the appropriate and skilful use of CS, the findings highlight that the participants in this study appear to be relatively knowledgeable and experienced with regards to the use of CS in the classroom.

However, in spite of this, the participants feel or are under the impression, that CS deprives learners of the chance to acquire the necessary vocabulary in the target language. It appears that teachers such as those participating in the study continue to hold the traditional and purist view of language learning: that CS might defile, or detract from, the pure language context that learners should experience during their learning of English in the classroom in order for them to become competent in the language, a by now outdated view put forward in studies done in the 1980s (Ellis, 1984; Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Chaudron, 1988; Lightbrown, 2001).

The final chapter provides a summary of the findings, together with the implications of, and conclusions from, the findings, and recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed and analysed data obtained from the research conducted in four rural schools in Umbumbulu, south coast of Durban. The study explored the practice and usefulness of codeswitching of four teachers of English Second Language to learners in the four rural high schools.

Research has been conducted worldwide into the use of code switching in bilingual communities including schools. Although these studies have gleaned important findings, there is a shortage of such studies in South African rural high schools. This study is intended to add to the body of knowledge on code switching.

The study may be considered original in its design since it opted for concept maps at the beginning of the study to allow the participants to respond to questions at their leisure so that they could take their time to think and reflect on whether they use CS in class or not, how they use it, when and how often they use it, and also provide their reasons for their usage of CS. The second instrument, an open-ended questionnaire, was also designed to allow the participants ample time to read the questions and respond to them at their leisure after school hours and over a number of days before they were collected. This allowed them to provide as realistic a reflection as possible of the occasions when, and the ways in which, they were using CS during classroom interactions. The open-ended audio-recorded telephone interviews were intended to constitute a reinforcement of the other two data collection instruments. These interviews allowed the participants distance from the interviewer and in that way allowed them to be themselves in responding to questions.

In this chapter, I begin by summarising the findings of the study presented and discussed in Chapter 5. I then discuss the theoretical implications of the study, followed by a discussion of the LiEP, as well as implications of the findings of the study

for professional practice, the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and concluding remarks.

The main focus of this study was to understand code switching in the context of ESL teaching in rural high schools. Four teachers in four rural high schools were selected for this purpose. The thesis aimed to address the following questions:

- e) Where, when and how is code switching used by the four participating teachers of English in the classrooms of each of the four rural high schools?
- f) Why is code switching used by these four teachers of ESL in the four rural high school classrooms?
- g) What are the attitudes of these ESL teachers code switching in the four rural high schools?
- h) What are, or have been, the experiences of these four ESL teachers in their use of code switching in the four rural high schools?

6.2 Main Findings

6.2.1 Where, when and how participating teachers of ESL use code switching in four rural high schools

Before the participants could indicate where, when and how they used code switching in class, it became imperative to establish whether and how they understood, or were in agreement about, what code switching entails.

This study has shown that code switching is an existing phenomenon used by the four teachers of English Second Language in the four rural high schools. One participant also indicated that other teachers at their schools were using learners' L1 to teach content subjects. Their responses to questions on their understandings of CS confirmed that they appeared to know what CS entails. Two of the teachers' explanations of what CS entails actually described it in terms of the list of reasons for why it was sometimes used, for instance, as a pedagogic practice/tool or communicative tool that can be used due to the English language limitations of their learners and, also, for reasons of clarifying certain concepts and explaining new words from the target language as well as translation from the target language to learners'

L1. However, two other respondent teachers described it as a multilanguage tool, as well as, language shift, as indicated in the following responses:

ED1: Multilanguage using, changing languages. As an educator, you speak English and change to your learner's language at the time. In a case where learners speak isiZulu, you switch from English to isiZulu, and where learners speak Sotho, you switch to Sotho, and...

ED 2: Code switching means changing from one language, English, to the home language of the learner, isiZulu.

The multilingual facility of the ESL teacher, who has been trained in the second language, allows him/her to switch to any language on the spur of a moment 'if the need arises'. Findings of the study also confirmed that teachers' exposure to CS has been through their personal learning and teaching experiences. The findings also indicated that, when becoming aware of, and experiencing, a considerable language barrier between the teachers and their learners, the teachers were codeswitching to enable their learners' understanding of the subject matter and English language conventions.

Furthermore, the findings showed that the four participating teachers appeared to a large extent to be implementing the 1997 Language in Education Policy (LiEP) which promotes multilingualism and biliteracy in education without knowing that they were doing so. The responses they provided clearly revealed that, although they know that the LiEP promotes the use of learners' L1 at primary schools, they felt guilty when they used learners' home language themselves. The reason for this was that CS has not as yet been incorporated into teacher training, nor does it align with the choice of most high schools of the LoLT. Using it therefore made them feel they were breaching the code of received practice as well as the school's preferred LoLT. The study findings indicated that, because they feared this, they smuggled CS into the classroom in what they thought was a breach of the school's official language policy.

The study found that, generally, the schools where these teachers were teaching at the time of the study, and the learners at the schools, had limited exposure to the English language. It was evident from the findings that, when learners, such as those

living in the rural area where the four schools are situated, move from primary to high school, they come with a limited understanding of English as they lack the necessary vocabulary. The findings thus revealed that the four participating teachers were facing daily challenges with the learners they teach struggling to understand what was being taught in English due to their language barrier or 'deficiency'. Due to this predicament, teachers often found themselves in a position where they had to do whatever it takes to ensure that understanding in the classroom is achieved, whether or not this 'contravened' the school's language policy, or the stipulations of the curriculum. This often led them to resort to code switching, where they switched from English to the learners' L1 (isiZulu) for ease of understanding. Interestingly, it was noted that what makes this possible for teachers is the fact that they are also second language speakers of English and that they were probably taught the same way. Thus, the knowledge and experience that they have enables them to understand the dilemma facing their learners on a daily basis in English Second Language classrooms. Equipped with this knowledge they appeared to know exactly how and when to assist their learners. This was another significant finding: in teaching situations where teachers and learners share the same linguistic background, that is the same first language, it becomes easy for teachers to help learners who struggle to understand the target language.

One of the most significant findings to emerge from this study was that the CS used by the four teachers is unplanned, spontaneous, and context based, being used as the situation requires or arises. All four participants concluded that CS is useful as a communication strategy when consolidating understanding, clarifying difficult parts of the lesson, motivating learner engagement, especially when brainstorming for ideas during mind mapping, analysing characters in Literature, when teachers wanted to avoid direct translation, as well as occasions when introducing an English comprehension's new setting. CS was also found to assist in consolidation, clarification and explanation of difficult parts of the lesson, questioning and explanation of terminology, as well as in reiterating significant points in the lesson presented in class through repetition in the learners' L1.

The various moments and circumstances when CS was being used by the study participants may be summarised as follows:

- Where isiZulu-speaking learners fail to understand what is being taught or explained at a particular moment, teachers switched to isiZulu to provide the necessary explanation to enable learners to understand what the teacher had tried to explain to them in English. This also represented an attempted to create a close relationship (solidarity) with the learners by switching to mother tongue in order to create a shared meaning amongst themselves and the learners.
- During the teaching of EFAL Literature or reading, learners would sometimes be confused and passive in class when they did not understand the content presented to them in English. When these teachers noticed the confusion in their learners' faces, they would sympathise with them and become concerned. This is an indication that these teachers are sensitive to their learners. In those instances, the teacher would enact two or more relationships among the same set of individuals, in other words, with his/her class, and perform a codeswitching function termed 'addressee specification' (Myers-Scotton, 1993). In this scenario, the teacher would insert some isiZulu words where she or he considered it necessary to do so in addressing the whole class. Situational code switching redefines the situation at hand due to the circumstances of the language barrier mentioned above. The four teachers often shifted from English to isiZulu to enable communication between learners and themselves and more learner engagement in the content of the lesson. This process often requires teachers to present explanations in isiZulu. When learners are given the space to have informal discussions during formal teaching and learning, such as group activities where they have to report back in English, their communication skills are sharpened and promoted. The four teachers were, however, concerned that, even though CS appears to be a useful communication strategy, it cannot form part of lesson planning as CS as a teaching strategy has not, as they understand it, been explicitly stipulated in the LiEP or in CAPS.
- The participants in the study stated that certain concepts in the EFAL curriculum/CAPS, in both the Language and Literature sections, for instance Figures of Speech, such as, oxymoron, irony and paradox, are often difficult to explain using the target language. The participants often switched to the learners' L1 to provide learners with examples of these for ease of understanding.

- When a teacher finds him/herself having to link what he/she is teaching in Literature to her/his learners' real-life situations.
- To evaluate learners' understanding.

From the findings it can be concluded, and possibly generalised, that CS as a pedagogical practice is common and often dominates English Second Language classrooms in rural high schools. These findings, although based on data collected from a small sample, could be representative of most high schools in rural areas. Thus, CS could be an unwritten/unofficial practice that these schools, or many of the teachers at the schools are likely to have bought into it and/or use it spontaneously. It may be assumed that learners in such schools do not hear, and therefore do not use much English on a daily basis. In this context it is possible to assume, and confirm by observation of ESL lessons in rural high schools, that the degree of domination of learners' L1 during an ESL lesson is such that it may at times be difficult to decide whether the lesson is an isiZulu or an English language lesson. This is an indication of a South African reality: many high school teachers are having to teach learners who have either been minimally, or have never been, exposed to English in primary school. As indicated in Chapter 5, section 5.3, which provides reasons for the use of CS, learners at the four schools appeared to be exposed to very little English, both at school and at home. This would limit their competent use of English both in the classroom as LoLT, as well as outside of the classroom. The consequence is low scores obtained in tests, examinations, and assignments where they have to respond to questions presented in English. Their overall concern was that what leads to overuse of CS by teachers in the classroom was learners' minimal or zero exposure to English in their communities. Although teachers in this study do not say much, or time did not allow for their expanding on, the specifics of the effect of this barrier on the overall performance of learners, it is clear from the findings that learners in these schools do not fare very well in assessments, assignments and examinations. Teachers in this study, while appearing to support the use of CS as a necessary and useful pedagogical practice, also appear to be concerned about the overuse of L1, claiming, or believing, that it often leads to learners' diminished chances of acquiring the target language (English) vocabulary and instead increases chances of acquiring L1 (isiZulu) vocabulary. The implication of this belief is that, whether they are required

to write or to speak in the target language, learners are bound to commit errors as a result of overuse of their L1 at the expense of the target language. While the perceived overuse of CS by participating teachers in this study was seen to limit the development of learners' competence in the target language, they indicated that they use CS minimally.

6.2.2 Reasons given by study participants for teacher code switching in the Classroom

The findings revealed that, when teachers are teaching the target language, they sometimes have to create different relationships or identities or roles through the linguistic means they choose in order to make interactions with learners comprehensible during teaching and learning (Gumperz, 1982). The situation in what is essentially a multilingual classroom is marked, meaning that it only allows a target language to be used as it is officially, in line with the curriculum, an English, or ESL class. Since teachers are often faced with a situation of language deficiency in the target language within the learners they teach, they create marked codes for a specific context, in the case of the learners in the ESL classes of the participating teachers, a context of language limitation, thus making it unmarked (Myers-Scotton, 1993). This means that they have created a mutual context which allows both speakers and listeners to communicate with understanding.

The findings in this study indicated that the four teachers often resorted to CS due to the linguistic background of their learners as described above: where English is not used or heard. They also indicated that they use it minimally, for instance, 10%, 15% and 20% of the teaching time to enable learners to be exposed to more English in the classroom. The results did not specifically indicate whether the reason for this non-usage was because English was not known in these rural communities, or was known but not used. The findings also indicated an unmarked context of poor English background that primary school learners are exposed to where they are taught in mother tongue. Even though in theory primary school teachers apply the principles proposed by the LiEP, high school ESL teachers confront the challenge of having to teach Grade 8 learners who are assumed to have never been exposed, or have been minimally exposed, to English in the lower grades. These learners come with poor

vocabulary due to the fact that English is seldom – apart from in an ESL class - spoken or used in teaching in the primary schools in rural areas. The result is learners' serious lack of proficiency in the target language. The findings therefore reveal that, even though it is often expected that CS would be judiciously and expertly used in bilingual teaching according to the policies promoting multilingual education, the situation these teachers face does not appear to be bilingual due to learners' lack of exposure to English limiting their use of the English in the classroom. Teachers such as those participating in this study therefore use CS as scaffolding or as a bridge to learning English. What then makes the situation 'unmarked' is that they are now expected to use CS in this situation. What this means is that teachers have to change a situation marked for English use to one unmarked for CS use, one which will be for the convenience of everybody in the classroom. Findings in this study thus revealed Myers-Scotton's Markedness model in action, where teachers (spontaneously) design their conversations in line with the addressees' expectations; in this case, the learners who do not understand English, while also basing their linguistic patterns on, and shifting to, their learners' first language, based on the linguistic choice of a specific social/cultural group (IsiZulu speakers). This is for the sake of helping learners to understand the target language. The linguistic choices the teachers make in this scenario suit the persona and/or relationships they have in place with their learners. The unmarked rights and obligations (RO) set initiates from situational features: occupation (the teacher's job of teaching), ethnic group (Black isiZulu-speaking learners) and socio-economic status (the rural socio-economic circumstances of the learners' families). As teachers who also share the same linguistic and ethnic background as their learners, they are expected to possess a certain level of making informed linguistic choices, which also determines their knowledge of how these learners will react. According to this CS/bilingual teaching model, teachers intentionally make such choices with specific social aims in mind and, therefore choose a specific semantic code presuming that the addressee will understand the choice with its intention. In doing so, teachers increase the rewards while decreasing the costs of the choice made (Myers-Scotton, 1993).

Another factor emerging from the findings is that learners in these schools are minimally supported by Government in terms of financial and learning resources. Thus, as was described in the previous chapter, they do not have dictionaries to assist

in the building of the necessary vocabulary in the target language. Since learners have a poor English language and English vocabulary background, one teacher in the study indicated he was using CS for inclusivity (ED4). Inclusivity is proposed by Education White Paper 6 (2001) and for the teachers in this study CS potentially becomes a useful tool for achieving this inclusivity. Through CS, teachers thus involve all learners in the discussions in class, and in that manner achieve positive academic outcomes.

The findings in this study further indicate that CS was being used by the four participating teachers for the following reasons:

- To guarantee they obtain feedback from their learners, teachers often progress from the known - learners' language and real-life experiences - to the unknown - the target language. The participating teachers reported that the CS they were using was context-based – depending on the level of classes.
- To provide better understanding but the teachers were of the view that learners tend to rely on teachers for translation.
- To describe the new setting in EFAL Comprehension.
- To translate/explain English grammatical terms or literary devices
- To allow free conversations in isiZulu, thus allowing informal interaction to take place.
- To explain new English words/vocabulary.
- To collect and organise activities.
- For 'self-fulfilment' and inclusivity purposes.

6.2.3 Attitudes of participating teachers of ESL towards code switching

As indicated in Chapter 5, the four respondent teachers appear to hold mixed perceptions regarding CS use in teaching the target language, depending on their individual personal characteristics, their distinct experiences in teaching ESL, their educational and training background, as well as their adherence to the LiEP or official language policy for the school's LoLT.

The four teachers displayed positive attitudes towards CS use in the classroom in terms of the role it plays in enhancing learner understanding and clarifying certain

concepts. One participant (ED3) further indicated that learners always enjoy CS and even playfully and creatively translate certain from isiZulu to English while trying to maintain the Zulu version of the word, examples of which are cited in the previous chapter. Teachers indicated that they do not feel guilty when using CS because it is spontaneous and always unplanned in these particular contexts.

The teachers displayed discomfort when they thought CS was being used extensively. What seemed to concern these teachers was that there are concepts that cannot be explained in the learners' first language. When this situation occurs, these teachers felt they did not have the necessary vocabulary to explain these concepts in English, and could be perceived as being incompetent to teach, or even use, English. The teachers also believed that use, or overuse of CS makes learners over-reliant on teachers to translate information for them. However, the findings reveal that what the teacher was doing could not be defined, or always defined, as code switching, which normally incorporates an insertion of a word or a group of words from another language rather than a direct translation of a chunk of text in that language.

Furthermore, the four respondents felt that it would be beneficial if CS could be accommodated for in the LiEP for assessment purposes.

Finally, the findings in this study indicate respondent teachers' negative feelings towards CS due mainly to their feeling they were breaching the principles of the LiEP or the curriculum, neither of which overtly stipulate the need for code switching when teaching English. Participant teachers also indicated that, since they were never trained to utilise CS in ESL classrooms, they were officially having to teach in the target language only. In addition, respondent teachers felt the use of CS in ESL classrooms to indicate lack of language proficiency from their side. This would often lead to them to using it discretely in class where signs of a language barrier from learners surfaced.

6.2.4 Teacher experiences of using CS in the classroom

One participant indicated that when he used CS in the classroom, he always found learners excited when CS was used for ice-breaking exercises. The whole interactive

learning experience becomes self-fulfilling for learners as they enjoy being involved. From their experiences, the participating teachers thought that CS should be incorporated into the Language Policy to enable them to use it formally and legitimately in the classroom, as well as when assessing learners.

Teachers in this study maintained that, regardless of the usefulness of CS in the classroom, it should, however, never be used to teach ESL grammar lessons, thus enabling learners to attain higher levels of target language vocabulary and grammatical competency.

In spite of its usefulness, the teachers felt that CS should be used minimally as it can become detrimental to their learners' linguistic growth, because learners could become over reliant on CS and there would be insufficient pressure to learn more and become better in the target language.

Finally, the teachers indicated that classes, and individual, or groups of, learners are treated differently, at the teacher's discretion, in terms of the use of CS. CS application is guided by how much a particular class needs it. They were trying to guard against what they perceived to be excessive use of CS because they believed learners might become lazy to learn the new vocabulary in the target language. Thus, these teachers, while being on the whole positive towards the use of CS, also showed ambivalence towards its use and applied negative connotations to its use, such as 'laziness', 'over-reliance' etc.

In conclusion, it was inferred from the findings in this study that the participating teachers had limited pre-existing knowledge of what code switching entails, although this varied, including the moments when, and situations in which, it becomes necessary to use it in an ESL classroom. To be more explicit, participants in this study showed ambivalence and confusion regarding CS, that is, what exactly it is, and its use, and whether it should be consciously and deliberately used as a (planned) teaching strategy or not – rather than (guiltily) 'smuggled' in.

While the four teachers also appeared to be skilled in assessing how and when to use CS – as they understood it - in their classrooms, as well as in providing reasons why

they were using it, from their experiences, while CS appeared to have become a useful tool for teaching English to isiZulu learners, they agreed that teachers should guard against its overuse, being of the view that it tends to deprive learners of opportunities to develop the necessary language skills and vocabulary required to be competent in the target language. Their responses throw up both positive and negative connotations around CS, and moreover, appear to contradict themselves often, for instance, their perceived negative connotations around laziness, stating that CS use encourages learners' dependence on their L1 and stops them from developing their independence or growth, as well as its use being an act of 'breaching' the school's language policy and directives from DBE and CAPS. Their indication of CS use "when necessary" shows their ignorance of the LiEP. 'Intuitively' they know they need/have to use it, as a teaching strategy, not only "when necessary". At heart they know that CS is a good, not only a necessary, teaching strategy, but are trapped by the way the LiEP is – or is not – being implemented at schools. Their responses show confusion between the LiEP and the school's language policy. What we know is that parents and schools (principals, HODs and teachers) are not familiar with the LiEP, have not engaged with it, and are uninformed about the cognitive/linguistic knowledge/research informing the policy regarding language development and multilingualism. In addition, according to my knowledge and perceptions, teacher training, both at HEIs and in-service training workshops, such as the July training sessions, LiEP has not yet been featured or engaged with.

The research which informs the LiEP indicates that children are better able to learn another language if they have a firm grounding in their own language, hence the reason L1 should be used to teach from Grade 1-3 . At high schools, such as the ones where the four participants in this study teach, teachers appear to be uninformed by the thinking and research behind the LiEP, and are therefore not able to take it for granted that their learners have had a good grounding in their own language in primary school, and/or were taught and able to develop, internalise and apply abstract concepts (particularly in Maths and Science), and that English was introduced according to the additive bilingualism model advocated by PRAESA and others. So they are caught between what they know either consciously or intuitively/from their own teaching experience and practice, and what they are being fed by the school, the DBE, and the parents, all of whom appear to be ignorant about the cognitive and

pedagogic reasons for using CS and what additive bilingualism is. The repressive myths seem to be:

- that English is the path to tertiary education, employment and higher socio-economic status
- that learners become 'lazy' and dependent if the teacher uses their language "too much".

What should, also be noted is that participants' responses showed their unwillingness to admit to their use, especially frequent use, of learners L1 for all these reasons. Yet they know – 'intuitively' – that they have to use it where there is a language barrier.

Therefore, in attempting to answer the question "what exactly IS CS and how and when should a teacher in a multilingual teaching situation use it?", what their responses show regarding CS, together with recent research conducted by Probyn (2009) and McKinney and Guzula (2016), is that there is a clear difference between direct translation of chunks of text presented by the teacher or read from a textbook, and CS, and that CS requires a particular skill – how to mix the languages, and how to judge when and how this should happen or be done.

6.3 Theoretical Implications

This study has been found to support the existing understandings of the theories that underpin the nature and use of CS in a multilingual situation, a multilingual classroom in particular. The Gumperz's Semantic Model of Conversational code switching was seen to apply to the teaching situation on which the current study focused, where the teachers' perceptions of what code switching entails appeared to largely tally with what the model depicts. The findings of the current study align to a large extent with the Semantic model of code switching, indicating that the teachers in the study often use their experience to create or switch codes with their learners within a sentence or conversation which may constitute single words or a portion of words in the learners' L1 for the purposes of enabling understanding of the subject content being taught at that particular time. When teachers do this, they create multiple identities or associations in order to interact with their learners to create shared meaning, which often creates solidarity between teachers and learners in the process of learners

coming to understand the content and conventions of the target language. Evidence from the findings indicates that the study participants understand that the fact that they share the same ethnicity and culture as their learners creates mutual understanding, that English is not their first language, and that they struggle to understand it due to their ethnic background and lack of exposure to English. With this empathetic understanding, teachers embark on using codes in the learners' L1 that enable them to understand what is taught. Through Gumperz's' Semantic Model, teachers are thus able to not only create multiple identities through the use of different codes to enable understanding, but also to conceptualise the functions of code switching by giving an account of why they make such choices.

The findings further verify that, as the participating teachers were code switching, they were providing their own reasons for the switches they were making, such as helping learners to understand difficult concepts, creating inclusivity, lessening the language barrier, helping learners understand and identify with characters in Literature, compensating for learners' poor economic and linguistic backgrounds and lack of exposure to English, as well as taking learners from what they know (their language) to the unknown (the target language). Code switching was found to be dependent on the context, which indicated that these functions are a result of the situations or contexts in which these teachers found themselves and which they considered to necessitate the switches during their teaching of English Second Language. This is what Gumperz refers to as situational code switching. The findings in this study also revealed cases of 'metaphorical' code switching which relates to Gumperz' (1982) Semantic model, which happens between teachers and learners. Thus the results of the current study indicate that the participating teachers were switching codes to reiterate or repeat information initially presented in the target language using the learners' L1 - which aligns with Gumperz's Semantic model of conversational code switching. In the study, reiteration or repetition was perceived to occur during the teachers' comprehension lessons where new or unfamiliar settings needed explanation or mediation.

The results of this research also support the idea that when speakers realise that their interaction is prohibited by the language barrier, which makes the context 'marked' as indicated by Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model, one speaker who is bilingual will

select codes that enable a 'shared' or 'unmarked' context, a context that will be conducive to both speakers, and which will enable mutual understanding of what is discussed in class. Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model enables teachers to do this while they are teaching. The Markedness Model used as a basis for the current study enabled the researcher to theoretically categorize the marked versus the unmarked distinction of the choices the participating teachers indicated they made during classroom interaction, as well as enabling the researcher to explicate the social and psychological motivations behind the choices that the four teachers – usually unconsciously/spontaneously - made over other possible choices. These teachers were, on reflection able in their responses to supply reasons for the choices they were making. These reasons have been listed above: learners come from Black rural communities and are not used to listening to the English language being spoken in their environment. This indicated that these teachers were both aware of, and familiar with, the social context of their learners and accordingly assisted these learners. In essence, the Markedness Model assisted the researcher in identifying unmarked versus marked code choices made by the teachers to assist their learners, as well as their supplying reasons for their choices. The participants in this study had to move from an unmarked situation (poor English background) to a marked context where they had to use their learners' first language code choices to enable understanding in the English language context. The participants also had to move from unmarked context (using English as the LoLT when teaching English Second language) to marked context, where they had to choose isiZulu codes to interact with learners in an English language classroom context and, therefore make the context unmarked (relevant to the situation at hand and the relationship they have with learners). They had to evaluate the costs and rewards of the choices to be made and opted – consciously or unconsciously/spontaneously - for choices relative to the relationship they have with their learners.

Even though the two theories enabled me to conduct the research and to analyse the results, they failed to indicate how learner social/cultural background contributes to the level and frequency of CS use in the participating teachers' classrooms. This might point to a limitation of the theoretical framework for this study.

6.4 Implications for policy

The attempt of the LiEP (1997) to address the inequities of the apartheid past, was described in detail in the introductory Chapter 1 (1.3) as well as the reasons for parents and schools, such as the rural schools in the current study, opting for English as the LoLT of the school. Also described were the challenges faced by teachers in schools such as the teachers under study having to teach ESL to learners for whom English is their L2, and using only English according to their school's LoLT policy, and for this reason finding themselves having to use code switching, while at the same time feeling they are going against the school's language policy as well as the recommendations and stipulations of CAPS.

As was noted in Chapter 5, evidence from the study indicates that, although the 1997 Language in Education Policy promotes the use of learners' home language where necessary in classroom teaching, teachers are either unaware of how this should be done or have not been trained in incorporating it in their teaching of ESL. However, it is clear from the findings that, even though the four teachers found themselves using CS, they felt that they were breaching codes of good practice as what they were doing was, and is as yet, not sanctioned, or specifically included, in teacher training. One implication of these findings is that the existence of Code Switching as a practice in multilingual classrooms should be taken into account when education and institutional language policies are agreed-upon and planned. Evidence from the study indicates a definite need for the explicit inclusion of CS as such, in addition to additive bilingualism, to update both the 22-year-old Language in Education Policy and the curriculum.

Important changes which need to be made to update the LiEP could and should include a clear statement in the policy to the effect that CS can and should be used in multilingual classrooms in the teaching of the target language, or when having to use English as the LoLT according to the school's choice of LoLT, so that teachers will not be afraid of using CS for the benefit of learners whose L1 is not English.

Secondly, the study indicates the need for preparing African-language learners for entering the English-dominated environment of higher education. These learners are

hindered from doing so by their linguistic and education background. This education system also requires changes in the outdated LiEP to accommodate this situation. By education role players promoting the skilful and knowledgeable use of CS by teachers at high schools, learners would find it easier to enter and to fit into higher education where research in, and moves towards, translanguaging are already in place. Ideally, ESL speakers should be awarded an opportunity to learn in their own language in the same way as speakers of Afrikaans and English are.

The current South African Language in Education policy (LiEP) of 1997 in theory accommodates the multilingual contexts and biliteracy education. However, studies reveal a challenge facing education where it has become more significant, or of economic importance, to tailor language education discourses in such a way that they are fit for “international economic participation” due to global migration, instead of putting these policies into practice (Hibbert & van de Walt, 2014, p. 3).

Taken together, these findings do not support the strong recommendations by some writers, parents and SGBs that the current status awarded to English as a language of wealth and success be maintained. Instead it should be recognised that learners’ first language holds a similar position if properly incorporated into the teaching of the target language.

6.5 Professional practice implications

The findings in this study have significant implications for my current and future practice. In the first place, the study opened my eyes to the harsh reality that high school learners in schools, such as those in my study, face on a daily basis while being expected to do well enough at school to be able to access institutions of higher learning. The fact that these learners continue to struggle after twenty five years of democracy, and the promotion of multilingualism in South Africa, indicates that much more needs to be done by the DBE and DHE about this situation. It becomes clear that both pre- and in-service training needs to be implemented on a regular basis to upgrade in-service teachers and help them engage with language policies and new, creative, sensitive, and innovative ways of teaching using CS. This could be through

their attending workshops to develop the appropriate skills and also through further studies to improve their professionalism.

The findings in this study have implications for how I should be teaching my English classes. The findings have motivated me to closely examine and reflect on the methods that I currently use in order to see how I can incorporate the use of my students' L1 to assist them to understand the content taught in an ESL classroom. The study also served as an eye-opener for me and a wake-up call to find out about my learners' socio-economic, cultural and linguistic backgrounds, and to use this knowledge to determine how to use CS appropriately and sensitively.

As a researcher, the study has stimulated my interest in pursuing further research in this field, as I observe increasing numbers of students from diverse language backgrounds enter institutions of higher learning. The more I investigate this phenomenon the more I believe I will be able to tailor my methods of teaching English to accommodate the wealth of knowledge and language resources this diversity of students bring into my classroom. As someone who teaches English Home Language to students, of whom about 90% are second language speakers of English due to the particular context of the university where I lecture, I should bear in mind that shifting sensitively and judiciously to their language, where and when "necessary" may contribute to their understanding of, and active engagement with, the content I teach, as well as sensitising English L1 students to the diversity of students in the class, and people in our country. This study has also made me realize that I should continue researching similar and/or related topics: the topic of code switching is on-going and new research on this and topics such as translanguaging emerges regularly across various multilingual and social contexts.

A significant and disturbing factor needing to be considered is that the study has revealed that the teacher training programmes offered to teachers do not include ways in which to incorporate learners' L1 into the teaching of English Second language. This indicates an urgent need to re-visit the curriculum at teacher training institutions as well as school curricula.

The study showed instances of teachers surreptitiously smuggling the vernacular into the classroom for fear of being charged by the DoE for breaching the code of good practice, a situation – no doubt widespread - caused by the fact that CS has been neither acknowledged nor included in teacher education and training, As a researcher, I believe it might be useful for the results of this study to be brought to the attention of education authorities so that CS may be considered as one of the teaching methods teachers may legitimately use when teaching English to Second language learners or in multilingual classrooms.

An important practical implication is that more workshops need to be conducted by the DoE's subject advisers/curriculum specialists in the informed and judicious use of CS in ESL teaching. In addition, more resources should be made available to teachers and learners for use in bi-/multi-lingual schools in rural areas. Since the current reservoir of books and textbooks used are usually foreign to South African rural and other Black learners, more books that accommodate their context and life experiences should be developed for the benefit of increasing learner interest and understanding of content presented in English for ESL learners. This does not mean that English must be done away with in these schools, but that learners of English as a second language should be allowed to benefit from the use of their first language and its cultural contexts in order to understand and relate to content presented in English. Currently, all assessment is conducted in either English and/or Afrikaans. It would obviously benefit Black rural learners in high schools if their languages were included in assessment processes at their schools.

Equally important to consider, is that learners' L1 may provide the necessary assistance to their learning in a L2, since, as researchers in the field of multilingualism have shown, learners are already in possession of a language system with its communicative and functional usage. This language system has been shown by recent research to contribute significantly to their learning of the target language. Past and recent research has not only acknowledged the positive role played by the mother tongue, or L1, in an ESL classroom, but has also highlighted a number of other functions, such as classroom management, language analysis, rules-governed grammar, discussion of cross-cultural issues, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors and checking comprehension. This large body of research suggests

that it is imperative that learners learn and develop strong competency in their home languages in order to have a sound base from which to learn a second language.

Lastly, other types of interventions could include:

a) Translanguaging being introduced at both primary and high schools to allow high school learners a smooth transition to higher education where the concept is slowly beginning to be implemented.

b) Activities aimed at promoting learners' L1 and raising its status in order for it to be viewed as a language that is as important and respected as the English language.

(c) A reasonable approach to tackle this issue could be to start, as PRAESA has done, by developing glossaries of subject-specific terminology in multiple languages for high school learners that would assist in their understanding the target language.

6.6 Limitations of the study

The current study has only explored teachers' code switching in the classroom when teaching English Second Language to L2 English speakers. The study explored this using only the responses of the four participating teachers in the concept maps, open-ended questionnaires, and audio-recorded telephonic interviews. The study could have benefited more if ethnographic observations in class had been included and recorded. These would have provided authentic evidence of what takes place in an ESL class in a rural school, as well as examples of code switching as it takes place in class. A study of this nature that includes this data collection method would be ideal for future more in-depth research.

6.7 Recommendations for further research

- A study to determine how informed teachers, principals, parents are about the LiEP and its principles.
- A large-scale study looking at teachers' attitudes towards, and experiences of, code switching specifically in South African rural high schools.

- An action research study with teachers to enable and deepen understanding of code switching practices and how they do or do not fit into, or with, the DoE's present language policies.
- Should this student be replicated in the future, it might be important to include a professional development programme, and observe and interview teachers to further enhance the claims made.

6.8 My Personal Reflections on my PhD Thesis Writing Experience

The greatest motivation I ever needed

When I look back from the start of the journey of writing this research work, I am filled with joy and admiration of immense strength that I only notice now that I have of putting together such esteemed piece of work. This is the strength and ability I never knew I had until my supervisor said to me, "You can do this!", rightly said after profusions of tears streaming down my face as I thought it was all over for me. These words will forever stay with me for as long as I live.

The Introductory Stage

The whole journey of writing this thesis was accompanied by various challenges, as well as, wonderful experiences. The initial obstacle began when I finished my Master's degree and I could not get a supervisor for my PhD study in 2010. I had to do another but different Master's degree (MBA) instead of not continuing with my studies. In 2015, when I registered at another university for a DBA, I finally got a supervisor, who eventually advised me to register in my area of specialisation, English/Linguistics. I had to change the topic and start with proposal writing, and given my current supervisor who is a specialist in the field I was undertaking. This took me over a year to finish. My supervisor was able to guide me in re-finishing my topic, selecting relevant research approaches and data collection techniques, as well as, in finding the relevant literature for my study.

Field work

Before I could start my field work, after obtaining my clearance letter from the Research Ethics Office, I was supposed to make appointments with the principals and visit each school to introduce myself and provide the principals with the letter

requesting permission to conduct research at their schools. I had to ask them to assist in identifying teachers who were English specialists and were currently teaching English First Additional Language (termed English Second Language in this study). Once the teachers had been identified, they were supplied with the two data collection instruments, namely, concept maps and questionnaires to finish after hours at the leisure of their time so that teaching time could not be disturbed. I only managed to collect the concept maps and one questionnaire and had to relocate to Cape Town due to work promotion. This affected my third data collection instrument which was telephonic video interviews. This was then changed to telephonic audio interviews. I was able to make appointments with each participant for the interviews which lasted from 15-20 minutes each. The rest of the questionnaires were emailed to me at this time.

The Research itself

Conducting this study has been a journey of learning to understand the pedagogic circumstances under which teachers of ESL attempt to teach the target language in rural high school classroom context where, at times, the lack of resources and exposure of learners to L2 prohibits successful learning. It is tempting to, sometimes, think this is an easy task to do until one gets into glimpse with what transpires during classroom interaction. The study has contributed a great deal to my knowledge as a teacher/lecturer of English in that it helped me understand and learn ways and means to reach out to my students during times where they struggle in learning L2. The study is contributing to the field of second language learning in the sense that codeswitching is highlighted as a successful pedagogic tool in the target language teaching if used judiciously for the success of Second Language Acquisition and learning. The current study challenges the monolingual ideology of English language teaching in its belief that it is through English-only teaching that competency in the target language will be achieved. It emphasises the role that the incorporation of learners L1 into the teaching of English or codeswitching plays in enabling learners to succeed in being competent in the language.

The Write-up

This was the most daunting and frustrating task I had to undertake. The findings were interesting to write about, however, the thinking and working alone, as well as, the style of writing required more time than I ever realised was needed. These were the times where I felt like quitting and almost lost hope that I would ever obtain this degree. Another challenge at this stage was that I was in the Western Cape and was unable to meet with my supervisor face to face. Constant communication via email and messaging with my supervisor greatly enabled me to write this final piece of research work. What I realised was that a huge difference exists between a Masters dissertation and a Doctoral thesis. I had to learn not to rely heavily on other authors' work but to also incorporate my ideas into literature. I learnt that originality is of utmost significance in a doctoral research. I learnt that this can be achieved through various ways, such as, application of existing theories to the newly-found knowledge, development of new theories and challenging and re-interpreting the existing theories. My thesis relied more on the first approach, but as I progressed with the analysis, realised that re-interpreting these theories through the findings in my study was also necessary. It was indeed a very interesting and rewarding discovery. When I look back where I started from, I can definitely see great improvement in my academic research and writing skills. This is indeed as a result of my constant interaction with other authors' work, rigorous analysis of data and re-writing and editing several drafts of the chapters in this thesis.

The Final Stage

After the write-up of the whole thesis, several requirements as per university standards had to be considered before final submission for examination purposes. These were requirements to be adhered to, such as, the expected word processing, font type and size, margins, content presentation, as well as, binding specifications and procedures necessary before final submission of the thesis. This journey was not as easy as I expected because proof-reading of the content took longer than expected, while I had to send my work to another proof-reader for my references. I am very grateful to the support that I had from my first supervisor, my current supervisor, people who pushed me to the limits to finish this work, prayers and God Almighty who made it happen.

6.9 Conclusion

This thesis is intended to add to the body of knowledge regarding teachers' use of, reasons for, perceptions of usefulness, attitudes to, and experiences of using code switching in multilingual classrooms, particularly those in rural schools. The use of the three data generation instruments assisted in generating in-depth findings. The study might be viewed as original in its use of visual data as the starting point and stimulus of exploration around this topic.

Although the research was limited to only four teachers in four rural high schools, which means results may not be generalised, the findings in the study highlight certain problems that may be facing many rural, and possibly urban, high schools in South Africa. In other words, although the study is based on a small sample of participants, the possibility exists that findings could be applicable to many other rural high schools, in South Africa and especially in the Eastern Cape.

Despite its exploratory nature, this study offers some insight into the complex, dynamic nature of language issues surrounding and faced by teachers of English Second language in South Africa and the world at large. I would argue that the various and varied beliefs, knowledge and attitudes that teachers have about and towards code switching need to be probed further and be addressed in order to assist teaching and learning in multilingual contexts.

Ultimately, the research makes a claim for the contribution of this study to the field of education and multilingualism with its focus on the use of code switching in rural under-resourced contexts, and in its use of innovative methodological practices in generating data. Code switching, if used knowledgeably and judiciously, can improve not only literacy scores in South Africa and elsewhere, but also contribute to 'social cohesion' and communication between the country's diverse groups of citizens.

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APPENDIX A Concept Map
EDUCATOR 1: MR CYPRIAN MAKHANYA

- Section A
- ① Is CS used in class?
* Yes
- ② When is CS used?
* It is used when the educator wants to consolidate the understanding or to make clear or to explain difficult parts in a lesson
* I also use CS when explaining questions to ensure that my learner know what to answer
- ③ How often is used?
* CS is used so often in such a way that it dominant ~~to~~ in the lesson because my learner do not understand English.
* I have observed in other educator using CS all the time sometimes you tell that English is a medium of instruction
- ④ Reasons for using CS?
* Learners come from black rural communities where English is not used, they only use English when they are at school.
* Learners have a poor English background from primary schools
- ⑤ Experiences of using CS?
* Sometimes learners fail to answer questions if CS is not done.
* Learners show signs of ~~attend~~ paying ^{more} attention when CS is done
* I have realised that CS is able to fill the gap

Figure 1: CONCEPT MAP

of

standing.

① Feelings towards CS use.

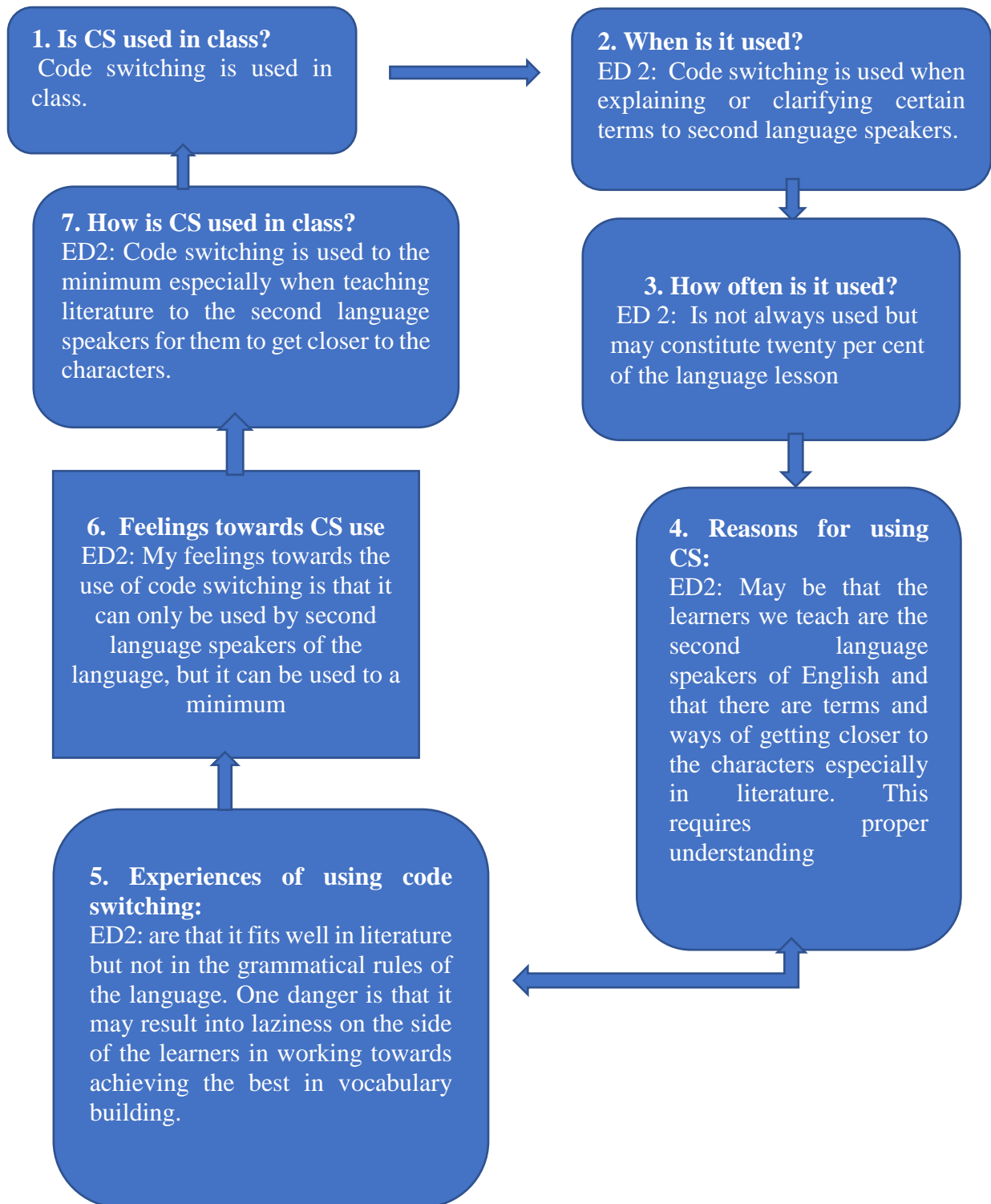
* I am OK with it because I know the background of my learner therefore it is the need, we can not do without it.

② How is CS used?

* ~~CS~~

* I am doing CS verbally

CONCEPT MAP: EDUCATOR 2



EDUCATOR 3: MRS NOKUTHULA MASONDO

1. Is Code Switching used in class?
"Yes, I do."

7. How is CS used in class?

I'm using CS especially when I'm teaching Literature. It's where I use CS mostly because when I'm trying to explain some of the things to the learners, they need further explanations. I need to relate that to their real-life situation, and for other reasons like Comprehension, but 10% for Comprehension
For other lessons like Language and Creative Writing it's not a big problem (I do not use CS).

2. When is it used?

I'm using Code Switching especially when I'm **teaching Literature**. It's where I use CS mostly because when I'm trying to explain some of the things to the learners, they need **further explanations**.

3. How often is it used?

I need to **relate that to their real-life situation**, and for other reasons like **Comprehension**, but 10% for Comprehension.

6. Feeling towards CS Use.

Yes, I am comfortable, cause even myself I feel the need for explaining so that they understand what I'm explaining
Yes, when I'm translating more than 20%, I feel like it's too much because they have to learn the target language. Like at the end of the lesson, when they say they did not understand. They must get 1st hand information in their target language. When you are an English teacher you want your learners to speak and understand the Language of learning and teaching. Even outside, learners would ask you, mam you're speaking English even outside the classroom.

4. When is CS Used?

When learners collect and organize, their activity.
When making some connections from the past with the present learning experience.

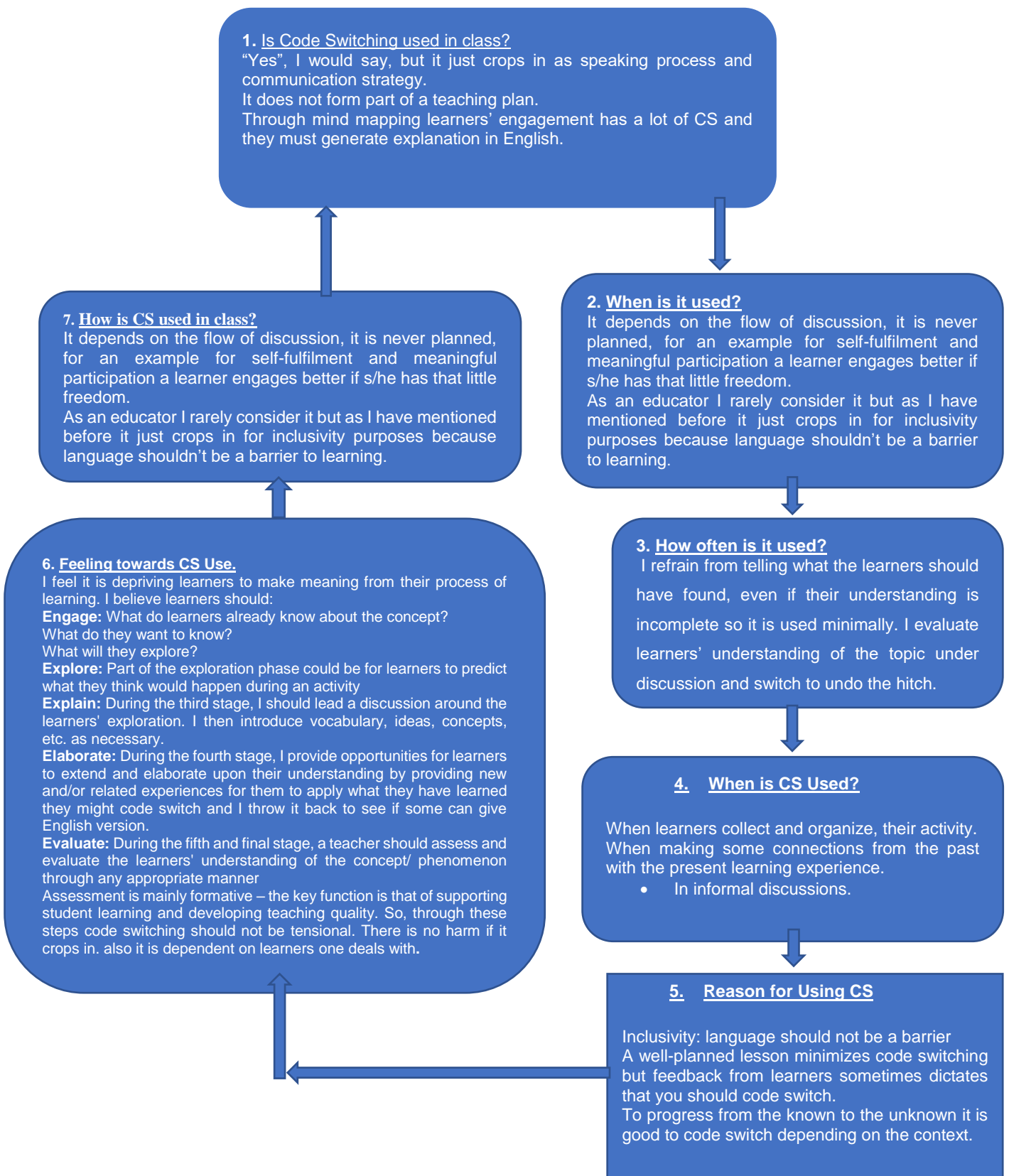
- In informal discussions.

5. Reason for Using CS

Eh, at times when you are reading, as I mentioned that I use for Literature or for reading, you find out when you are explaining, sometimes you see in their faces that they are a bit confused, because they use another language, you use it for their understanding

It is a useful tool because our learners understand mostly in their Mother tongue. What I've observed over the years is that, whatever is being taught, learners try and understand it in their Home Language and translate to their 1st Add Language, English. Sometimes you find that it's a direct translation into their Mother Tongue

EDUCATOR 4: MR MBONGENI MKHIZE



APPENDIX B

TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Make a cross [X] in the box against the item that describes your personal particulars:

1. Age in years

20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Over 60

2. Gender

Female	
Male	

3. Rank

Temp. educator	PL I educator	Head of Department	Vice principal	Principal

5. Qualification in English

Matric and below	M+1	M+2	M+3	M+4	M+5 and above

6. Experience in teaching English

0- 5 year	6-10 years	11-15 years	16-20 years	21-25 years	26-30 years	Over 30 years

21-25; 26-30; Over 30 years

SECTION B

The questionnaire focuses on finding out the degree to which the teachers used learners' L1 in the ESL classroom for the functions specified in it. It also investigates the extent to which teachers believe L1 facilitates L2 acquisition.

1. Which language do you use when teaching in class?

- A. English only
- B. IsiZulu only
- C. A mixture of English and IsiZulu

2. What is the effect of using both English and IsiZulu upon L2 learning of your English students?

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Any other comments?

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3. What do you understand by code switching?

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4. Do you think code switching increases chances of learner performance in English language?

Yes.....

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No.....

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5. I use code switching for the following reasons:

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6. I think code switching is necessary in classroom interaction because:

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OR

I think code switching is unnecessary in classroom interaction because:

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APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

Attitudes toward CS

1. **To investigate how code-switching is used by teachers of English in the teaching of English Second language (ESL)/First Additional Language (ESL) in the four rural high schools.**
 - a. Do you use code switching in your class when you teach?
 - b. How often do you use it?
 - c. When do use it?
2. **To explore the various reasons for the utilization of code-switching.**
 - 2.1 Why do you use code switching?
3. **To investigate educator attitudes toward code-switching in the teaching of English First Additional Language.**
 - a. Is code switching a useful tool in your classroom?
 - b. Are you comfortable when use it with your learners?
 - c. What makes you uncomfortable about using code switching?
4. **To determine the experiences of teachers as they use code-switching in the English First Additional Language classroom.**
 - a. What makes you ever resort to code switching?
 - b. How do feel when you use code switching during classroom interaction?

Appendix D:

Letter to DoE requesting permission to conduct research in KZN schools

P.O. Box 1522
Amanzimtoti
4125
17 October 2015

Attention: The Superintendent-General (Dr NSP Sishi)
Department of Education
Province of KwaZulu-Natal
Private Bag X9137
Pietermaritzburg
3201

Dear Sir

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

My name is Sibongile Elizabeth Hadebe, a PhD student in the School of Education at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus). As part of my degree fulfilment, I am required to conduct research. I therefore kindly seek permission to conduct research in four secondary schools under your jurisdiction in Umgungundlovu and Umbumbulu Districts. The title of my study is: **Code switching in the English First Additional Language classroom: A case study of four rural high school teachers in Umbumbulu, KwaZulu-Natal.**

This study aims to explore the extent to which secondary school educators of English First Additional Language use code switching during teaching and classroom interaction. The aim is to determine the extent to which the use of code switching is beneficial or detrimental to learners. The planned study will focus on secondary school teachers of English First Additional Language. The study will use open-ended semi-structured interviews, open-ended questionnaires and mind-mapping as methods of data collection. Interview questions, questionnaires and mind-mapping will be done during the teachers' spare time at the comfort of their homes outside working hours so that teaching time is not disturbed. This will constitute approximately 40-60 minutes at the times convenient to them which will not disturb teaching and learning. These will be collected after a week during break-time.

Responses will be treated with confidentiality and pseudonyms will be used instead of the actual names. Participants will be contacted well in advance for interviews, and they will be purposively selected to participate in this study. Participation will always remain voluntary which means that participants may withdraw from the study for any reason, anytime if they so wish without incurring any penalties.

You may contact my supervisors, UKZN Research Office or me should you have any queries or questions:

Supervisor:

Dr A. Pillay
Languages and Arts Education
Tel: 031 - 2603613
E-mail: pillaya3@ukzn.ac.za

UKZN Research Office

Mariette Snayman
HSSREC-Ethics
Tel: 0312608350
E-mail: snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

My contact number:

Cell: 0723252820
E-mail: sbohads1900@gmail.com

Your positive response in this regard will be highly appreciated.

Thanking you in advance

Yours sincerely
S.E. Hadebe (Mrs)

Appendix E:

Letter requesting permission from the principals to conduct research in schools

P.O. Box 1522
Amanzimtoti
4125
17 October 2015

The Principal

Umgungundlovu/Umbumbulu Districts

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

My name is **Sibongile Elizabeth Hadebe**, a PhD student and a lecturer in the School of Education at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Edgewood Campus). As part of my degree fulfilment, I am required to conduct research. I therefore kindly seek permission to conduct this research at your school. The title of my study is: **Code switching in the English First Additional Language classroom: A case study of four rural high school teachers in Umbumbulu, KwaZulu-Natal.**

This study aims to explore the extent to which secondary school educators of English First Additional Language use code switching during teaching and classroom interaction. The aim is to determine the extent to which the use of code switching is beneficial or detrimental to learners. The planned study will focus on secondary school educators. The planned study will focus on secondary school teachers of English First Additional Language. The study will use open-ended semi-structured interviews, open-ended questionnaires and mind-mapping as methods of data collection. Interview questions, questionnaires and mind-mapping will be done during the teachers' spare time at the comfort of their homes outside working hours so that teaching time is not disturbed. This will constitute approximately 40-60 minutes at the times convenient to them which will not disturb teaching and learning. These will be collected after a week during break-time.

PLEASE TAKE NOTE THAT:

- There will be no financial benefits that participants may accrue as a result of their participation in this research project.
- Your identity will not be divulged under any circumstance/s, during and after the reporting process.

- All the responses, observations and reviewed documents will be treated with strict confidentiality.
- Pseudonyms will be used to represent the school and names of the participants.
- Participation will always remain voluntary which means that participants may withdraw from the study for any reason, anytime if they so wish without incurring any penalties.
- Participants purposively selected to participate in this study and they will be contacted well in advance for interviews.

You may contact my supervisors, the Research Office or me should you have any queries or questions:

Supervisor:

Dr A. Pillay

Languages and Arts Education

Tel: 031 - 2603613

E-mail: pillaya3@ukzn.ac.za

UKZN Research Office

Mariette Snayman

HSSREC-Ethics

Tel: 0312608350

E-mail: snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

My contact number:

Cell: 0723252820

E-mail: sbohads1900@gmail.com

Your positive response in this regard will be highly appreciated.

Thanking you in advance

Yours sincerely

S. E. Hadebe (Mrs)

Appendix F

Declaration

I..... (Full names of the principal) of --
----- (School name) hereby confirm that I have been informed about the nature, purpose and procedures for the study: **Code switching in the English First Additional Language classroom: A case study of four rural high school teachers in Umbumbulu, KwaZulu-Natal.** I have received, read and understood the written information about the study. I understand everything that has been explained to me and I consent voluntarily for the school to be part of the study. I understand that the school is at liberty to withdraw from research at any time should the school so desire.

I **agree/ do not agree** that my teachers be interviewed.

Signature of Principal

Date

.....

.....

School stamp

Thanking you in advance

Sibongile Elizabeth Hadebe

.....DETACH AND RETURN.....

Appendix G:

Letter requesting permission from the educator to participate in the research

P.O. Box 1522
Amanzimtoti
4125
19 October 2015

The Educator
Sample Secondary School

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH

I am currently a PhD student in School of Education, English Language Studies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Edgewood campus. I am presently engaged in a research study which aims to explore how secondary school English First Additional Language use code switching during teaching and classroom interaction. The topic of my research is: **Code switching in the English First Additional Language classroom: A case study of four rural high school teachers in Umbumbulu, KwaZulu-Natal**. I would very much like you to participate in this study because I believe that you can provide valuable insight in extending the boundaries of our knowledge on this concept.

Your identity in this study will be protected in accordance with the code of ethics as stipulated by the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I undertake to uphold your autonomy as the participant. You will be free to withdraw from the research at any time without negative or undesirable consequences to yourself. However, you will be asked to complete a consent form. In your interest, feedback will be given to you during and at the end of the study.

You may contact my supervisors, UKZN Research Office or me should you have any queries or questions:

Supervisor:

Dr A. Pillay
Languages and Arts Education
Tel: 031 - 2603613

E-mail: pillaya3@ukzn.ac.za

UKZN Research Office

Mariette Snayman

HSSREC-Ethics

Tel: 0312608350

E-mail: snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

My contact number:

Cell: 0723252820

E-mail: sbohads1900@gmail.com

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours faithfully

BN Mkhize (Mr)

.....DETACH AND RETURN.....

Appendix H

Declaration

I..... (Full names of participant) hereby confirm that I have been informed about the nature, purpose and procedures for the study: **Code switching in the English First Additional Language classroom: A case study of four rural high school teachers in Umbumbulu, KwaZulu-Natal.** I have received, read and understood the written information about the study. I understand everything that has been explained to me and I consent voluntarily to take part in the study. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from research at any time should I so desire.

I **agree/ do not agree** to participate in this research.

Signature of Educator

Date

.....

.....

Thanking you in advance

Sibongile Elizabeth Hadebe

**APPENDIX I - 1
PROOFREADERS LETTERS**

LETTER FROM THE PROOFREADER 1– THE THESIS: Editor Rose Jackson

16 Chaucer
Road
Claremont
Cape Town 7008
10 March 2019

University of KwaZulu-Natal
School of Education
Edgewood Campus
Private Bag X03
Ashwood
3605

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I have edited Ms Sibongile Hadebe's PhD thesis: '**Code Switching in the English Second Language Classroom: A Case Study of Four Rural High Schools in Umbumbulu, KwaZulu- Natal**'.

The editing included proof reading, style improvement, some restructuring, and formatting. It did not include the editing of the list of references.

I have 19 years' experience editing dissertations, theses and academic articles and am a member of the Professional Editors Group (professional-editors-group-south-africa@googlegroups.com).

The authorship and the final responsibility for the edited draft of the thesis lie with my client.

Yours sincerely



Ms Rose Jackson 10 March 2019

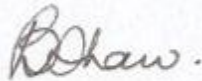
APPENDIX I - 2

**LETTER FROM THE PROOFREADER 2– THE THESIS: Editor Barbara Shaw:
References**

Barbara Shaw
Editing/proofreading services
18 Balvicar Road, Blairgowrie, 2194
Tel: 011 888 4788 Cell: 072 1233 881
Email: bmslaw@telkomsa.net
Full member of The Professional Editors' Group

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to inform you that I have done reference checking on the Master's thesis: **CODE-SWITCHING IN THE ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE CLASSROOM: A CASE STUDY OF FOUR RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS IN UMBUMBULU, KWAZULU-NATAL** by **SIBONGILE HADEBE**



Barbara Shaw

10/03/2019.

Turnitin Originality Report

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ETHICAL CLEARANCE



18 October 2016

Mrs Sibongile Elizabeth Hadebe 201509024
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mrs Hadebe

Protocol reference number: HSS/1147/016D

Project title: The use of code-switching in the English Second Language classroom: A case study of four rural high school teachers Umbumbulu, KwaZulu-Natal

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 27 July 2016, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Dr A Pillay
cc. Academic Leader Research: Dr SB Khoza
cc. School Administrator: Ms Tyzer Khumalo

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

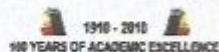
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/63504557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4009 Email: sinba@ukzn.ac.za / snmm@ukzn.ac.za / mohuro@ukzn.ac.za

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Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville