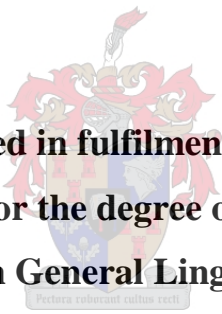


**DISCOURSE STRATEGIES
OF LECTURERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION
CLASSROOM INTERACTION:
A CASE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF
DAR ES SALAAM, TANZANIA**

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**Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of
PhD in General Linguistics
at
Stellenbosch University**

The image shows the crest of Stellenbosch University, which is a shield with a red and white design, topped with a crown and a banner. The crest is positioned behind the text of the dissertation submission.

Supervisor:

Prof. Christine Anthonissen

March 2013

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a similar or any other award.

22 December 2012

Nikuigize Erick Shartiely

Date

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates how linguistic super diversity is managed in a higher education context in Tanzania. Specifically, the use of language in lectures to large classes made up of students with linguistically diverse backgrounds at the University of Dar es Salaam is in focus. Considering the multilingualism of the students as well as the lecturers, and a language-in-education policy, which prescribes English as the language of teaching and learning, the study is interested in the perceptions and practices of those teaching big numbers of students in large lecture halls.

The data comprised eight recorded lectures and interviews with the respective lecturers. The intention was to identify, describe, document and analyse interactional strategies that lecturers use, particularly the discourse strategies that lecturers use in conveying new information at a relatively sophisticated level of academic rhetoric, and to facilitate interaction between them and students. With large numbers of students in the audience, and given that they are first year students new to the university-spoken register, lecturers are likely to make remarkable language choices consciously or unconsciously.

Conversational Analysis (CA) and Discourse Analysis (DA) approaches facilitated the identification and analysis of conversational and discursive features of lectures as part of spoken registers that are generically used in university teaching. The analysis particularly considered the linguistic diversity of the participants in the higher education context in Tanzania and how lecturers use language to cater for such diversity. The sample involved eight lecturers, four from each of two departments regarded among those with the highest student numbers in the College of Arts and Social Sciences of the University of Dar es Salaam, namely the Department of Political Science and Public Administration and the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology.

The findings indicate that lecturers use a selected number of both propositional and structural discourse strategies during lecture sessions. The three most notable propositional discourse strategies are repetition, use of questions, and use of code switching between English and Kiswahili. Lecturers use phrasal and clausal types of repetition to achieve cohesion, topic continuity and emphasis. They use tag, rhetorical, open and closed types of questions to check for comprehension, to stimulate higher level thinking, to manage classroom behaviour as well as to encourage students' participation and independent study. They also use inter and intra sentential

types of code switching to engage with students, to translate some concepts, explain, and manage students' behaviour and to advise or encourage students. Regarding structural discourse strategies, the study shows that lecturers notably use discourse markers *so* and *now* as cohesive devices, marking such textual functions as framing, linking and showing consequential relationships. They use the discourse markers *so* and *now* to achieve similar communicative goals as those achieved using propositional discourse strategies. In referring to themselves or their audience, they use specific pronouns *you*, *we*, and *I*, to perform different functions. They use the pronoun *you* not only as an interactive device, but also as an explanatory device of significance in classroom interaction. They use the pronoun *we* not only as a solidarity device, but like *you*, also as a strong explanatory device. They also use the pronoun *I* to mark speaker's knowledge and his or her stance about it, and speaker's circumstance and experience.

This study not only describes generic features and language practices in big lectures; it also engages critically with some of the established practices and in so doing adds to the literature on individual and societal multilingualism and how lecturers manage it in an African higher education context.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie is 'n studie van die wyses waarop talige superdiversiteit binne 'n konteks van hoër onderwys in Tanzanië bestuur word. Meer spesifiek, word aandag gegee aan die gebruik van tale gedurende lesings vir groot klasse wat bestaan uit studente met talig diverse agtergronde. Met inagneming van die veeltaligheid van die studente sowel as die dosente, asook 'n taal-in-onderrig-beleid wat Engels as die taal van onderrig en leer voorskryf, stel die studie belang in die persepsies en praktyke van diegene wat groot getalle studente in groot lesinglokale onderrig.

Die studie is kwalitatief dáárin dat dit gewerk het met 'n beperkte aantal opnames van lesings en van onderhoude met die dosente wie se klasse opgeneem is. Die bedoeling was om die mees opvallende interaksionele strategieë wat by die Universiteit van Dar es Salaam aangewend word, te identifiseer, te beskryf, te dokumenteer en ook te analiseer. Veral is gekyk na die diskoersstrategieë wat dosente gebruik om nuwe inligting op 'n redelik gesofistikeerde vlak van akademiese retoriek oor te dra, en om interaksie tussen die dosent en die studentegehoor te fasiliteer. Die generiese eienskappe van hierdie lesings is geïdentifiseer deur die hele reeks opnames na te gaan. Die groot getal studente in die gehoor en die gegewe dat hulle eerstetaalsprekers van 'n verskeidenheid verskillende gemeenskapstale is, sal dosente noodwendig, bewustelik of onbewustelik, interessante taalkeuses maak. Die feit dat beide Engels en Swahili amptelike tale in Tanzanië is, dat die meerderheid studente vlot sprekers van Swahili is, selfs al het hulle hulle hoërskoolonderrig deur die medium van Engels ontvang, lei tot die aannames dat (i) Swahili 'n sterk lingua franca tussen sprekers van verskillende eerstetale is, en (ii) voortgesette hoër onderrig deur die medium van Engels onproblematis behoort te wees.

Die benaderings van Gespreksanalise (GA) en Diskoersanalise (DA) het die identifikasie en analise van gesprekseienskappe en diskursiewe eienskappe van lesings as deel van die gesproke registers wat generies in universiteitsonderrig gebruik word, gefasiliteer. Die analise het veral in die talige diversiteit van die deelnemers in die konteks van hoër onderrig in Tanzanië en in die wyse waarop die dosente vir hierdie diversiteit voorsiening maak, belanggestel. Die deelnemers aan hierdie studie was agt dosente, vier elk uit twee departemente met die hoogste studentetal by die Kollege van Kuns en Sosiale Wetenskappe van die Universiteit, naamlik die Departement Politieke Wetenskap en Publieke Administrasie en die Departement Sosiologie en Sosiale Antropologie.

Die bevindinge dui daarop dat dosente gereeld en generies 'n telbare aantal proposisionele en strukturele diskoersstrategieë gedurende lesings gebruik. Die drie mees opvallende proposisionele diskoersstrategieë is herhaling, die gebruik van vrae en die gebruik van kodewisseling tussen Engels en Swahili. Dosente gebruik frase- sowel as klousherhaling om kohesie, kontinuïteit van die onderwerp en klem te bewerkstellig. Hulle gebruik einddeel-, retoriese en oop en geslote tipe vrae om begrip te toets, om 'n hoër denkvlak te stimuleer, om die gedrag in die klaskamer te beheer, asook om die studente se deelname en onafhanklike studie aan te moedig. Hulle gebruik ook kodewisseling binne en tussen sinne ten einde nouer met die studente te skakel, sekere konsepte te vertaal, studente se optrede te verduidelik, te vertaal en te beheer en studente te adviseer of aan te moedig. Betreffende die strukturele diskoersstrategieë toon die studie aan dat die diskoersmerkers *so* en *now* wyd deur dosente gebruik word as kohesiemeganismes wat tekstuele funksies soos raming, skakeling en oorsaaklike verhoudinge aandui. Hulle wend die diskoersmerkers *so* en *now* aan om dieselfde kommunikatiewe doelwitte te bereik as dié wat bereik is met die gebruik van proposisionele diskoersstrategieë. In verwysing na hulleself of die toehoorders, span hulle spesifiek die voornaamwoorde *you*, *we* en *I* in om verskillende referensiële funksies of aanspreek funksies te verrig. Die voornaamwoord *you* word nie slegs as 'n interaktiewe meganisme gebruik nie, maar ook as 'n beduidende verklarende meganisme in klaskamer interaksie. Hulle gebruik die voornaamwoord *we* nie net as 'n samehorigheidsmeganisme nie, maar ook, soos *you*, as 'n sterk verklarende meganisme. Hulle gebruik ook die voornaamwoord *I* om sprekerskennis te merk en sy/haar houding daaromtrent uit te druk, asook die spreker se omstandighede en ervaring.

In die analise word aandag gegee aan relevante aspekte van tweetalige onderrig, die gebruik van Engels as 'n lingua franca, en die verskynsel van kodewisseling in akademiese diskoers binne 'n veeltalige onderrigkonteks. Die studie beskryf nie alleen generiese eienskappe en taalpraktyke in groot groep lesings nie; dit oorweeg ook sekere gevestigde gebruike in groot lesings dra daarmee by tot die literatuur oor individuele en gemeenskaplike veeltaligheid en hoe dit hanteer word deur dosente in 'n hoër onderwyskonteks in Afrika.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Cl.	=	Clausal
CS	=	Code-switching
Phr.	=	Phrasal
Prn.	=	Pronoun
Qn.	=	Questioning
Rptn.	=	Repetition

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CCE	=	Centre for Continuing Education
CSU	=	Communication Skills Unit
DM	=	Discourse Marker(s)
DS	=	Discourse Strategies
ELF	=	English as Lingua Franca
ELTSP	=	English Language Teaching Support Project
IRE	=	Initiation Response Evaluation
IRF	=	Initiation Response Feedback
LoI	=	Language of Instruction
NGOs	=	Non-Governmental Organisations
NL	=	National Language
NORAD	=	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
ONL	=	Official National Language
PDS	=	Propositional Discourse Strategies
QAB	=	Quality Assurance Bureau
SDS	=	Structural Discourse Strategies
TANU	=	Tanganyika African National Union
UDSM	=	University of Dar es Salaam
URT	=	United Republic of Tanzania

LIST OF KEY TERMS

bilingualism

bilingual education

bilingual education models

classroom interaction

code-switching

conversation

conversation analysis

discourse

discourse analysis

discourse markers

discourse strategies

English as lingua franca

higher education

lecture method

lingua franca

multilingualism

pronouns

questioning

repetition

Tanzania

University of Dar es Salaam

Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

This study addresses aspects of discourse structure in a multilingual tertiary education institution in Tanzania. It specifically focuses on the University of Dar es Salaam, because there has not been any exploratory or systematic linguistic analysis of the language of classroom interaction at the university in order to identify, analyse, describe and document interactional strategies that transpire. As a result, we do not know what Discourse Strategies the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use to facilitate classroom interaction. Altmayer (2009:101) has indicated that research into the use of various languages in multilingual classrooms in Africa, as elsewhere, so far lacks empirical evidence that will clarify how policy and practice actually meet. This dissertation will address exactly that need. Studies on Language of Instruction in Tanzania report on issues related to language policy (cf. Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya et al., 2008; 1998; Vuzo, 2005; Mlama & Matteru, 1978) without attending to purely pragmatic linguistic issues such as how the discourse of the classroom interaction is organised to facilitate classroom communication and learning. There is scant attention to pedagogical issues such as how lecturers draw on their own and students' language skills in delivering the content of the subjects they are teaching.

Tanzania counts among the highly linguistically diversified countries in the world with more than 120 spoken languages (Muzale & Rugemalira, 2008; Ethnologue, 2005; Mafu, 2004). Tanzania is also one of the few countries that promote the use of an indigenous African language (Kiswahili) as the language of instruction up to the completion of primary school and at certain levels in Teacher Training. However, the planning for and the choice of Language of Instruction (LoI) in the country has been a remarkably complex process. The complexity of the process, as is the case for many post-colonial countries, has been attributed to ratification of weakly conceptualised language policies in the country. For instance, shortly after independence, from 1961 to 1967, the government endorsed the use of Kiswahili as LoI from grade one to grade seven. Accordingly, the government also proclaimed its intention to develop conditions for use of Kiswahili in teaching up to tertiary level; plans that never were implemented. Instead, in 1995, the government endorsed a new education and training policy, which paved the way for the establishment of privately owned

International schools or Academies. Many people choose to send their children to these schools rather than to the government schools because of the utilitarian benefits that English apparently has (Qorro, 2009).

Since 1995, the decision about LoI in such private schools or academies lies in the hands of individuals, mostly school owners and parents. This trend has resulted in a discrepancy in English language proficiency between children who attend International schools or Academies and those who attend public schools. Financially strong individuals or Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) own most of the International schools or Academies, thus they can recruit well-qualified teachers and can afford fairly advanced teaching and learning facilities. This is said to account for superior English proficiency of their graduates in comparison to their counterparts from public schools. The expectation this raises is that first year students from public secondary schools would have lower English proficiency and would be less prepared for tertiary level learning. However, graduates from International schools or Academies and public schools meet in the same classes at university and, until now, there is no established difference in their academic progress that can decisively be correlated with their particular schooling background. Studies elsewhere (such as South Africa) have established a measurable difference in performance of students at university level that reflects learners' schooling background (see Leibowitz, 2005). For Tanzania, research that can confirm or contest the effect on academic success of access to English before entry into higher education, is not existent yet.

Studies conducted on the LoI in Tanzania are mainly about policy and policy implications on primary and secondary education (cf. Brock-Utne et al., 2006; Galabawa & Senkoro, 2006; Dachi, 2006; Tilya, 2006; Qorro & Roy-Campbell, 1997). Even those that somehow focus on actual classroom interaction mainly focus on the perceived incompetence of teachers and students in their use of the English language of the classroom (cf. Tibategeza, 2010; Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya, 2008; Brock-Utne et al., 2006; Qorro & Roy-Campbell, 1997).

The issue of LoI in higher learning in Tanzania is historically a matter of much debate. Qorro and Roy-Campbell (1997) report serious concern in both public and professional sectors since the mid 1970s over the falling standards of English language proficiency among secondary and post-secondary school students in the country. Complaints about the reduced English language proficiency of undergraduate students were noted by lecturers at the University of Dar es Salaam as well as by external examiners. Lecturers objected to having to spend more time teaching English language skills instead of their subject matter.

In response to this concern, the Ministry of Education and the University of Dar es Salaam devised some intervention measures. On the part of the ministry, one such measure was the launching of the British Council supported English Language Teaching Support Project (ELTSP) in the 1980s. The project was aimed at promoting a reading programme to improve English language reading ability in Tanzanian secondary schools. It involved the introduction of a training programme for secondary school English subject teachers. The training was conducted in both Tanzania and England. Nevertheless, the project did not deliver any significant improvement in students' language skills (Qorro & Roy-Campbell, 1997:109).

On the part of the University of Dar es Salaam, a Communication Skills Unit (CSU) was established in 1978. The unit was introduced to assist first year students with language-related learning difficulties. However, as Qorro and Roy-Campbell (1997) report, the CSU also had limited success. The kinds of difficulties that were identified seemed to need more than the sixty hours per year allocated for the Communication Skills course to first year students. Recently, the University of Dar es Salaam, through the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics, has launched a two-month project funded by the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) to help first year students with English language-related learning difficulties. The impact of this project has not been evaluated yet. Additionally, the University has established a Quality Assurance Bureau (QAB) to monitor and evaluate, among other things, the teaching and learning process at its campuses. This is done through a subsection of the QAB, namely the Centre for Continuing Education (CCE). The topics under scrutiny with a view to improved teaching and learning include teaching methods for lecturers and writing skills for both lecturers and students. All these interventions imply awareness, if not open recognition, of a notable problem concerning the language of classroom interaction at all levels of learning in Tanzania. Most stakeholders in the issue of LoI- in Tanzania have at one occasion or another expressed their concern about languages in learning, not only about perceived lowering standards of English, but also about the way in which language difficulties affect learning in specific academic disciplines. To demonstrate the pervasiveness of the debate about the LoI issue in Tanzania, Qorro (2009) laments:

It is not easy to talk of new ideas when discussing the language-in-education or the language-of-instruction issue, since for almost 50 years African countries such as Tanzania have been debating this issue, with the debate almost going stale at times (Qorro, 2009:58).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study takes a linguistic and practice-oriented approach to establish the discourse strategies that university lecturers actually use in classroom communication. It intends to investigate what strategies lecturers use in order to ascertain what kinds of discourse patterns best characterise the current teaching and learning process in a number of higher education lectures to big groups of students. Such information on interactional behaviour of lecturers in the Higher Education classrooms of Tanzania will assist in answering questions related to the exploitation of multilingualism even when English is the only official language of instruction.

1.3 RESEARCH AIM, OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS

1.3.1 Research aim

This study aims to identify the discourse strategies that the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction, in order to categorise them in terms of their occurrence patterns in bilingual tertiary education. Specifically, attention goes to strategies used in lectures to facilitate the learning of multilingual students for whom the language of learning is not their first language. Although as from the beginning of secondary school (thus from Form 1), English is the only LoI in Tanzania, for the overwhelming majority it is not a home language nor otherwise used in informal interaction. Batibo (1995) reported that only 5% of Tanzanians speak English proficiently.

1.3.2 Research objectives

To achieve the aim of the study, four objectives were targeted:

- (i) To identify and describe discourse strategies used by lecturers at the University of Dar es Salaam during classroom interaction;
- (ii) To describe how and how widely the various strategies are used by the lecturers during classroom interaction;
- (iii) To establish the reasons for the lecturers' use of such strategies during classroom interaction;
and
- (iv) To reflect on the use of the most prominent strategies used in lectures in terms of their likely functionality in facilitating learning.

1.3.3 Research questions

The overriding research question that this study sought to answer in order to achieve the research objectives was "what Discourse Strategies do lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use; how, how widely and why are the various strategies used?" In order to answer this question fully, four sub questions were articulated:

- (i) What discourse strategies do the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during lectures?
- (ii) How and how widely do the lecturers use the various discourse strategies identified in question 1, during lectures?
- (iii) Why do the lecturers use the various discourse strategies during classroom interaction?
- (iv) How effective are the various strategies likely to be in terms of facilitating the learning of the particular community of multilingual students at the University of Dar es Salaam ?

1.4 LINGUISTIC DIVERSITY IN TANZANIA

Tanzania, as is the case with many African countries, is an extremely linguistically diversified country. It is difficult to determine the actual number of indigenous languages in the country. This has not yet been finally established, but the numbers seem to grow as more people investigate the linguistic variety from many different perspectives. For instance, the numbered list of languages has changed from 120 (Rubagumya, 1991), through 127 (Ethnologue, 2005) and 130 (Mafu, 2004) to the most recent report of 150 different languages (Tibategeza, 2010; Muzale & Rugemalira, 2008). Despite this discrepancy in the documentation of the languages of Tanzania, the fact is that among all those languages Kiswahili is the only one that has been privileged to play role in the education system of the country. Moreover, the language is spoken by over 95% of the more than 35 million population of Tanzania as either first or second language. Used widely as a lingua franca, it developed a unifying function in the years before independence, that is, before 1961. Since then it has been awarded the status of National Language (NL) of Tanzania (Brock-Utne, 2007). The position of Kiswahili and English are central to understanding language-in-education in Tanzania. Therefore, more information on these two languages in the country is required, as is given below.

1.4.1 Kiswahili in Tanzania

The history of the development of Kiswahili is that it developed as a national lingua franca due to a number of roles it was assigned before, during and after the colonial era in Tanzania. Anderson (1983) notes that Arabs were the first foreigners to come into contact with inhabitants of the East African coast and that they introduced Islam, and educated young men and women in Madrassa schools where they taught Islamic religion and culture in Arabic script. Kiswahili developed as a contact language between Arabic traders and speakers of other languages in the region. Later European missionaries elaborated Kiswahili, the indigenous language of the coast, which had already borrowed significantly from other languages such as Arabic, Hindi and English. Since education had already been provided in Arabic, when Kiswahili was first written it was in Arabic script. Anderson (1983) further notes that the opening of a printing press by missionaries led to standardisation of local languages because of the need of translating scriptures into local languages. The missionaries also wrote Kiswahili grammars and compiled Kiswahili dictionaries.

Mafu (2004:57) reports that during the colonial period in Tanzania, that is, during both German and British rule, Kiswahili functioned as lingua franca for administrative communication. Official documentation of governmental departments was first in German only and after the British take-over, in English only. During the German rule (1880-1918), Kiswahili functioned as LoI, language of administration and religion for indigenous populations. The British rule (1918-1961), introduced a tripartite racial education system by which Kiswahili functioned as LoI in African schools while English functioned as LoI in European and Asian schools. Although this opportunity of Kiswahili being used throughout the colonial administration was meant to facilitate contact between the ruler and the ruled, it paved way for Kiswahili to start attaining the status of lingua franca quite early in the 20th century. When the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) party started the struggles for the independence of Tanganyika, Kiswahili was adopted as a language of politics for unifying the disparate groups not only during the run-up to independence, but also later after independence of the former Tanganyika (Mafu, 2004:57).

Furthermore, Mkilifi (1972:201) notes that, although a strong emphasis was placed on teaching English to African students in secondary schools, they had no opportunity for a free interaction with native speakers of English because they were segregated due to the policy of racial compartmentalisation. Since the schools were boarding schools, the African students resorted to Kiswahili in settings requiring informal, slang, colloquial or affective socialisation. Consequently,

Kiswahili continued to be the basis of affective socialisation inside and outside school despite there being regulations insisting on the use of English only.

Mafu (2004:58) describes three social practices that promoted the development of Kiswahili as a national lingua franca after the independence of Tanganyika. The first was President Nyerere's Socialism policy of 1967 by which rural people were resettled to live together in 'Socialist' villages with the aim to facilitate collective agricultural production and easy provision of social services. The second was the increasing migration of rural people to urban areas in search of employment because of industrialisation and or urbanisation. The third was the deliberate practice of the government to discourage the use of the wide variety of indigenous languages in education and administration. Thus, Kiswahili was supported with the aim to promote national unity. These three practices enabled contact and communication among people with varying linguistic backgrounds who then needed a common language of interaction; a role that only Kiswahili could play.

1.4.2 English in Tanzania

During the 20th century, English enjoyed more economic, political and social support than Kiswahili, which ultimately contributed to its establishment as official language and its wide use as lingua franca in public spaces before Tanzania's independence. For example, during the British colonial period (1918-1961) English was LoI in the entire educational system except in the first four years of primary education in schools attended by African learners (Rubagumya, 1991:74). It was highly valued and the school system did whatever was possible to promote it by praising those few Africans who could speak it well and admonishing those who could not (Rubagumya, 1991:74). During that period, there were even plans to remove Kiswahili from the curriculum on the claim that it was standing in the way of the strong development of English (Cameron & Dodd, 1970:110). In 1982, the government of Tanzania brought in a rather astonishing arrangement when they rejected an earlier proposal of the Presidential Commission on Education intended at extending the use of Kiswahili into secondary schooling, and decided to support continued use of English as the LoI. They claimed that Tanzanians had to learn from foreign nations, and presumed that English is the only language that can facilitate learning in such globalising circumstances (Rubagumya, 1991:75).

Other factors that contributed to the establishment of English as official language alongside Kiswahili in Tanzania include the acceptance of the conditions accompanied by the IMF loan awarded to Tanzania in 1986. Those conditions were liberalisation of economy and devaluation of currency. The belief was that economic recovery would go hand in hand with the raising of the

standards of English (Rubagumya, 1991:75). This is the period when projects such as ELTSP were launched. However, neither the economic liberalisation nor the liberalisation of English achieved the intended goal (Rubagumya, 1991:76). The value of English in Tanzania can therefore be described under the concept of 'symbolic value' (Bourdieu, 1977). By this concept, we can say that English in Tanzania has a good market with resultant high demand in public spaces, while Kiswahili has a reduced market with resultant low demand in public spaces. The enhancement of the symbolic value of English in Tanzania is manifested by its continued use in secondary schools, the launching of ELTSP for secondary school level, the establishment of CSU, NORAD fund; QAB and CCE at the University of Dar es Salaam.

Moreover, English was announced as a co-official language to be taught as a compulsory subject at primary school level when, in 1967, Kiswahili was declared Official and National Language (ONL) of Tanzania. Mkilifi (1972:201) established that in secondary schools, at the time, teachers who were mostly native speakers of English provided rigorous English instruction. Moreover, it was often used as LoI, even in the teaching of Kiswahili. Mastering English was regarded as a yardstick for one's academic performance generally, because it had become established as a language of learning. Later, at post-secondary level, Kiswahili was used complementary to English, giving rise to code switching and code mixing between the two languages according to requirements of different cultural settings (Mkilifi, 1972:202).

1.5 LANGUAGE POLICY AND LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION POLICY IN TANZANIA

With regard to language policy and language-in-education policy in Tanzania, there have been many contradictions in the ratification of the policies and their implementation. In the language policy of 1995, Kiswahili was proclaimed to be used as LoI from pre-primary to end of primary education, while English would continue to be used as LoI in secondary schools through to tertiary level. Some scholars have called the language-in-education policy in Tanzania dualistic (Kimizi, 2008); others refer to it as contradictory (Swilla, 2009). Swilla (2009:2) identifies three ideological periods in relation to language-in-education policy in Tanzania. The first period is the first five years after independence (1961-1966) in which Tanzania continued a Capitalist form of government that it had inherited from the previous regime. The second is the period between 1967 and the early 1980s in which Tanzania adopted Socialism as a form of government. The third is the period from the late 1980s up to the present in which Tanzania returned to Capitalism. All these ideological changes have had a significant impact on the language in education policy in Tanzania as explicated below.

In the first period (1961-1966), the government made significant changes to the former colonial system, including the abolishing of school fees for secondary school education with the aim of allowing wider access for African learners. However, Swilla (2009:3) notes, the government maintained the colonial curriculum and LoI policy whereby Kiswahili continued to be used as LoI in the first years of primary education and English continued to be used as LoI from the sixth year of primary education through secondary school up to post-secondary school level.

In the second period (1967-mid 1980s), the government nationalised all the major means of production in the country. The Education for Self Reliance policy was adopted and the government promised free provision of social services including education. At this stage, Kiswahili was adopted as LoI for the entire primary school education. A small number of English medium primary schools were maintained to cater for children of expatriates. However, these schools were not allowed to enrol Tanzanian learners (Swilla, 2009:3).

In the third period, Socialism was gradually abandoned, though it is still officially included in the Tanzanian constitution. This was mainly due to economic pressures that the government had experienced in the late 1970s due to rising oil prices, the falling prices of raw materials on the world market, drought, famine and the war against Idi Amin of Uganda. This necessitated a move from state controlled to free market economy that entailed liberalisation and privatisation of major means of production and state owned enterprises. Eventually, privatisation was re-introduced into the education system by legalising the use of English in private primary schools in 1992 and finally, by extending the right to use English as LoI in 1995, by means of the Education Amendment Act No. 10 of 1995 (Swilla, 2009:4).

1.5.1 The language of classroom interaction in Higher Education in Tanzania

1.5.1.1 Language policy

As Tollefson (2002:179) remarks, in multilingual societies language policies form an important tool in mitigating potential social conflict among competing language groups. Because these language groups have different political, economic and social motives they wish to advance, language policy in education functions to favour some groups over others. In Tanzania, as is the case for most countries once colonised by Britain, the language policy in higher education (HE) stipulates English should be the only language for higher education teaching and learning. After independence, even with growing support for the use of Kiswahili as LoI, English continued to play a role as the official

LoI in secondary and tertiary education.¹ Although most of the lecturers and students of the University of Dar es Salaam are multilingual in the languages of Tanzania including Kiswahili, the policy states that all academic affairs should be handled in English. In practice, adherence to this policy varies in that some individuals strictly use English only, and others are more flexible in their language choice. This study aimed at investigating some instances in which lecturers defy policy stipulations during classroom interaction and the reasons for the practice.

1.5.1.2 Status and use of English at the University of Dar es Salaam

As alluded to above, English has the status of LoI in HE in Tanzania by which all subjects other than Kiswahili² are supposed to be taught solely in English. For example, examination questions for all courses are set and answered in English. Examination regulations are written in English and examination reports and results are released in English. Moreover, all information that is communicated to members of staff or posted on notice boards is in English. For example, all announcements about promotion of academic members of staff, press releases, communication by the office of the Vice-Chancellor to academic staff and students are done in English. Essentially, English plays a great role in the academic undertakings of the University of Dar es Salaam.

1.5.1.3 Status and use of Kiswahili at the University of Dar es Salaam

Although officially, Kiswahili is not recognised as LoI beyond the Institute of Kiswahili Studies (IKS), in practice, however, it has the status of an academic Lingua Franca in that it is often used to facilitate teaching and learning experiences. In university administration Kiswahili has the same status as English, thus either language (or both) can be used. Nevertheless, increasingly Kiswahili is used as the primary medium of communication among administrative staff at the University of Dar es Salaam. Kiswahili is used for communication about matters that are not academic per se and that involve either administrative staff only or both academic and administrative staff.

Moreover, Kiswahili is used as LoI for all Kiswahili courses offered by the IKS from undergraduate to postgraduate level. The past five years have seen drastic changes in the use of Kiswahili in certain academic contexts at the University of Dar es Salaam, notably in the IKS. All post graduate Linguistics courses in the Department of Kiswahili that used to be offered in English, jointly with the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics of the University of Dar es Salaam, are now

¹ As indicated earlier, a number of state owned teacher training colleges do actually use Kiswahili as LoI.

² Thus, all courses offered in the Institute of Kiswahili Studies (IKS) are taught in Kiswahili, in the same way that French courses will be taught in French.

offered by IKS in Kiswahili. Most notable is the fact that today students are permitted to write dissertations in Kiswahili.

Furthermore, recent developments at the University of Dar es Salaam have seen Kiswahili used in conferences and workshops parallel with English. It is no longer mandatory to use English only in academic gatherings because a speaker now has the liberty to choose which of the two languages s/he prefers in preparing and delivering a presentation. The communication in the University of Dar es Salaam Academic Staff Association (UDASA) is also done in either language.

1.5.1.4 Language choice and code switching at the University of Dar es Salaam

Essentially code switching (CS), that is using English and Kiswahili intermittently in a single conversation, occurs in the offices, corridors and classrooms of the University of Dar es Salaam. This is inevitable because of the multilingual context of the community members of the University of Dar es Salaam. Mkilifi (1972) describes three related and overlapping factors that influence the mode of language maintenance and code switching among bilinguals. These are the socio-cultural settings in which languages have been acquired and used, the purposes for which each language is used, when speaking to whom about what, and the state of development of each language in terms of its adequacy in situations of modernity (Mkilifi, 1972:198).

Additionally, there are two major types of code switching taking place at the university, situational and metaphoric code switching. According to Bloom and Gumperz (2000:126) situational code switching is done according to change in situation and metaphoric code switching is done in order to achieve a special communicative effect. At the University of Dar es Salaam, this can be illustrated when an academic administrator switches from English, the academically unmarked code, to Kiswahili, the marked code. Such a switch is motivated by the fact that the university community is made up of academic and non-academic members of staff. Among non-academic staff, use of English is not mandatory and many probably do not have an advanced command of English. Communicatively, the administrator imparts the sense of sharing and togetherness among the university community in using Kiswahili. On the other hand, when the same administrator issues a notice about examination invigilation regulations in English, s/he obviously maintains the unmarked code that is used in situations such as examinations; then s/he signals that the information is intended for the academic staff only.

The kind of code switching explained above is what has been described as code switching at a macro level whereby two languages, each with distinct functions in specific situations, are used in

alternation. Language choice is made based on consideration of topic, interlocutors and setting (cf. Fishman, 1968). In the following part, I explain code switching at a micro level; code switching of this nature is unusual in the classroom interaction of interest in this study.

Code switching at a micro level entails what Gumperz (1982:61) and Bloom and Gumperz (2000:126) have referred to as conversational code switching. This is a phenomenon characteristic of verbal interactions among speakers of more than one language. It functions to mark aspects of discourse such as quotations, addressee specification, interjections, reiteration, message qualification and personalisation.

At the University of Dar es Salaam such conversational code switching occurs during classroom interaction, specifically in lectures. Similar to what happens in the communication between the university administration and the university's academic community, classroom interaction often exhibits code switching between English and Kiswahili. These code-switches have specific functions and are specific to the situation where it is directed towards achieving a certain communicative effect. This form of code switching, its functions and effects, will be illustrated in the analysis to be presented in chapter four.

However, unlike the macro level code switching, which is between two distinct languages that are alternately and systematically used in different situations by designated participants, micro level code switching occurs within a single speech event, often in the spoken contribution of a single participant. It occurs between sentences (inter sentential), within sentences (intra sentential) and even within words, as will be illustrated in the analysis to be presented in chapter four.

Models of code switching such as the Matrix Language Model (MLF) (Myers-Scotton, 1997) have been developed to explain such patterns of bilingual language use. This kind of code switching is one of the characteristic aspects of discourse that I sought to identify and analyse from the recorded lectures (cf. chapter four). This is particularly relevant to the study as there is an ongoing debate about teacher code switching at different levels of education in Tanzania. For example, quite recently notices were posted reminding University of Dar es Salaam lecturers that the official language of classroom interaction was English.

Although code switching and code-mixing is actively discouraged in official planning and policy regarding languages of teaching and learning, it is unlikely that in a context as multilingual as the one at the University of Dar es Salaam, there will be no use of or reference to community languages other than English. Therefore, this study will also attend to the possibility of lecturers drawing on or

allowing the use (even if just informally) of indigenous languages such as Kiswahili in the course of lectures. Literature on the use of more than one language in teaching and learning in multilingual settings, particularly at tertiary level (cf. Taha, 2009; Garcia, 2009; Zabrodskaia, 2009, 2008, 2007; Banda, 2007, 2003) is particularly pertinent to this study.

1.5.2 The language of classroom interaction

A primary focus of this study is the language of classroom interaction at the University of Dar es Salaam. The major aim is to document how non native English lecturers use language to facilitate teaching of students who are not native speakers of English and who probably are not proficient enough in English to understand the advanced spoken register typically used at university level. The language of classroom interaction has become a prominent topic of academic interest to researchers in many parts of the world though with different foci in different contexts (cf. Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Rubagumya, 2008; García, 2007; Goodwin & Heritage, 1990; Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Gumperz, 1982). This section will refer briefly to aspects of research into classroom interaction that are relevant to the research questions of this study. Although much reference is made to research into classroom discourse at primary and secondary school level (cf. Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya 2008; Qorro, 2006), a clear distinction needs to be maintained between language practices at the different levels of schooling, specifically in primary and secondary school classrooms as opposed to classrooms at tertiary level.

1.5.2.1 Classroom interaction as institutional talk

The language of classroom interaction at the University of Dar es Salaam forms one of the aspects of institutional talk. Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008:137) classify the language of classroom interaction as 'institutional talk' done through verbal communication, a central social activity performed through social interaction. Goodwin and Heritage (1990:283) observe that language plays a crucial role in social interaction hence justifying a classification of it as a primordial means through which the business of the social world is transacted. They add that through language the identities of its participants are affirmed or denied, and its cultures are transmitted, renewed and modified (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990:283). The authors conclude that through language shared meanings, mutual understanding and the coordination of human conduct are achieved (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990:283). The human transactions such as is done in lecture room communication between lecturers and students, with lecturers controlling the talk, informed this study.

The language of classroom interaction such as the one under study forms an essential component of academic communication, which inherently is organised towards achieving a pedagogic goal. For Gumperz (1982:1), communication is a purposeful action rather than mere production of well-formed sentences. Scholars list the language of classroom interaction as one of the categories of academic discourse (cf. Castello et al., 2008; Davies, 2008; Biber, 2006; Sinclair, 2004; Scollon, 2001; Elbow, 1991; Spack, 1988). Elbow (1991:135) defines academic discourse relatively narrowly as the discourse that academics use when they publish for other academics. Spack (1988:29) notes that researchers and teachers endeavour to define academic discourse in terms of skills that facilitate successful teaching and learning in university studies. Of relevance to my study is the attention scholars have given to the large gap between the linguistic resources students bring to the academic community and what the community expects of them (Spack, 1988:30). The insights gained in previous studies on academic discourse are vital to my investigation into how lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam make use of discourse resources available to them to achieve the goals of teaching at a tertiary institution.

Wells (1996:74) observes that although classroom interaction is mainly conducted through spoken discourse, the relationship between the discourse and the activity goals it is intended to achieve, is rarely scrutinised or treated as a matter of conscious choice. For example, it is noted that teachers dominate talk in a typical classroom interaction (Gazden, 2001; Goffman, 1981; McHoul, 1978). This could be constructed as one-way conversation, which may not be conducive to student learning. However, teacher dominance in talk in such a setting is geared towards the achievement of knowledge transfer and skills development - thus for an empowering purpose (Wells, 1996:75).

Learning is a socialisation process that is mediated by language (Ochs, 1986:3). Teachers are charged with creating the conditions for successful socialization of learners. To do so, teachers need strategies that help them coordinate academic task structure and social participation structure (Erickson, 1982; Michaels & O'Connor, 1993). Nevertheless, this coordination is undertaken with a view toward a larger goal: the creation of a shared classroom culture that facilitates students' engagement with the relevant academic content (Michaels & O'Connor, 1993:318). This study will investigate how such social mediation is enacted in selected classrooms at multilingual Dar es Salaam University.

1.5.2.2 *Classifying and analysing classroom discourse*

Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008:137) classify the language of classroom interaction as 'institutional talk' done through verbal communication, a central social activity performed through social interaction. Institutional talk can take place face to face or via the telephone. It can also take place in a hospital, courtroom and educational establishment such as classroom (Heritage & Drew, 1992:3). Since language plays a crucial role in social interaction, particularly in our everyday thinking, learning and communication with one another (Davies, 2008:92), it can be classified as a primordial means through which the business of the social world is transacted, the identities of its participants are affirmed or denied and its cultures are transmitted, renewed and modified. This is because through language shared meanings, mutual understanding and the coordination of human conduct, such as is required in lecture room communication are achieved (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990:283).

1.5.2.3 *Functions of classroom discourse*

The language of classroom interaction as a pedagogic discourse works to create curriculum genres and curriculum macro-genres (Christie 2002; Smit, 2010). Christie (2002) distinguishes two types of register under which the two creations of pedagogic discourse should be understood. These are 'first order' or 'regulatory register' and 'second order' or 'institutional register'. The former relates to the overall goals, directives, pacing and sequencing of classroom activity while the latter relates to the particular content to be taught and learnt. Additionally, in any classroom activity the two registers interact with each other in patterned ways to perform five sub activities namely to (i) create the pedagogic activity (ii) establish goals (iii) introduce and sequence the teaching and learning of the content and (iv) evaluate the success with which the knowledge is learnt (Christie, 2002:5; Wells, 1996:76).

1.5.2.4 *Primacy of classroom discourse*

As Cazden (1988:2-3) emphasizes, the primacy of classroom discourse lies in the fact that any social institution can be considered as a communication system. Thus, the study of classroom discourse is the study of that communication system. Since the purpose of school is achieved through language (cf. Christie, 2002:2; Cazden, 2001:2), communication is central in educational institutions where spoken language is the prominent medium by which teaching takes place and students demonstrate to teachers much of what they have learnt. Classrooms being one of the most crowded human environments, and being the setting in which one person controls all that occurs during class sessions, classroom discourse becomes an important object of scrutiny. Moreover,

because classrooms usually include people from different linguistic backgrounds (Cazden, 1988:3), it is likely that some sort of multilingualism represented in most classrooms can emerge (Smit, 2010:20). Therefore, spoken language becomes an important part of all the participants (Cazden, 1988:3).

1.5.2.5 *Analysing classroom discourse*

As Dalton-Puffer (2007:1) asserts, the curricula of content subjects such as Sociology and Political Science for the case of the current study, constitute a reservoir of concepts, topics and meanings which can really become an object of study. A growing body of research indicates that the language of classroom interaction has attracted the attention of many people (Edwards & Westgate, 1994:1). This has been both in terms of their academic or professional orientation and in terms of the models that they have proposed to use in approaching its investigation, as well as the goals they have sought to achieve (Edwards & Westgate, 1994:3). Practically the endeavour to analyse the language of classroom interaction has involved researchers from fields such as ethnography, linguistics (pure, applied and educational) and psychology, with different resultant models (Christie, 2002:1).

1.5.2.6 *Purposes of analysing classroom discourse*

Dalton-Puffer (2007:15) observes that the term “classroom discourse” encompasses a highly complex real world event regardless of whether one experiences it as a live observer, watches or listens to recordings, or studies transcripts. As Wragg (1999:vii) puts it, observing our fellow humans in action is a lifelong activity. Classrooms as one of the arenas in which human beings act different roles, comprise of an enormous aspects for observation. Because we have the power of observation and deduction, in a classroom, like it is in real life, we can recognise what is familiar and what is novel (Wragg, 1999:vii).

With the above account, it is a fact that the analysis of classroom discourse involves observation and Wragg (1999:5) mentions six purposes for which different individuals or bodies conduct classroom observation. For example, a school's language coordinator can observe a primary school teacher to devise means of responding to the concern about dropping levels of literacy among boys in the school. A head of department can observe a secondary school science teacher during a lesson as part of science department's self-appraisal exercise. A supervising teacher or tutor can observe a student on teaching practice. A school inspector can scrutinise a mathematics lesson during a formal inspection of the school. A textbook writer can observe a class in order to prepare a series of activities for learners. Lastly, as one of the targeted activities of this study, a researcher can watch a

class going on to study the teacher's questioning techniques by noting down the various questions asked by the teacher and the responses obtained. Although all these are watching lessons activities, their purposes and approaches are different. This means that the purpose, timing and context of an observation should largely determine its methods. As for this study, it specifically studied the lecturers' use of discourse strategies by noting down the various discourse strategies used, the pattern in which they were used and their potential functionality in facilitating learning in higher education.

1.5.2.7 *The language of classroom interaction as a structured experience*

Any language behaviour can be regarded as a structured experience (Christie, 2002). A casual conversation, such as in the family, workplace and among friends is also structured, although participants may not be aware of the structure. The central view is that a classroom activity is a structured experience and associated classroom work is a social practice (Christie, 2002:3).

Several studies have shown how structured classroom discourse is. For example, Leinhardt et al. (1987) using planning nets approach to study how teachers established the instructional structure in their classrooms, observed six lessons by expert teachers with focus on the role of routines in the evolving classroom discourse structure. They established that classroom discourse comprises two components; 'Activity structures' and 'Routines'. Accordingly they identified three classes of routines namely management, instructional support, and teacher-student exchange routines. Results further indicated that teachers used simple routines to form more elaborate strings of action. By doing this, they increased the variety and complexity of the classroom discourse. Concerning 'Activity structures', they focused on teacher-student action and found that functional activity structure and efficient supporting routines were a benchmark of a successful teacher (Leinhardt et al., 1987:136).

1.5.2.8 *Reasons for analysing classroom discourse in Tanzania*

Hyland (2006:37) notes that although academic discourse relates to wider social, cultural and institutional issues, until recently, there has been less emphasis on the variation in spoken genres such as lectures. This is because knowledge produced in academic institutions is largely in written language (Hyland, 2006:38).

As noted in section 1.12 above, there are a good number of important studies about the language of classroom interaction at different levels in Tanzania, such as for example, Mwinsheikhe (2009),

Rubagumya (2008), Brock-Utne (2005), Vuzo (2005), Brock-Utne (2007), Brock-Utne (2001a), Brock-Utne (2001), Qorro (1999), Rubagumya et al. (1998) and Mlama and Matteredu (1978). Nevertheless, politics, particularly debates about colonial legacy and postcolonial language policies and their effects, have largely influenced those studies. As a result, they have focused more on problems related to English language proficiency of both teachers and students in secondary schools. In this regard, they have unanimously reported that using the English language in classrooms has been a hindrance to both delivery of content by teachers and comprehension and retention of content by students.

A notable trend in those studies is the relationship between language and comprehension. The influence of English language competence and use on comprehension and retention at secondary education level is well documented. However, until today, the way classroom discourse occurs at higher learning level in Tanzania in the context of English being used as an academic lingua franca, has not been studied. Therefore, as it is argued that more than 75% of classroom talk time in higher learning classrooms is supposedly consumed by lecturers (cf. Morell, 2004), it is important to analyse the classroom discourse at that level so as to identify what goes on in that context (Milne, 2006:9).

1.5.3 Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis

The language of classroom interaction depicts both conversational and discourse features that provide rich material for linguistic analysis. They possess a conversational structure with such features as participants, openings and closings (cf. Sacks et al., 1974) and discourse functions such as explaining and questioning (cf. Dalton-Puffer, 2007). These linguistic characteristics of classroom language require the use of a conversational-discourse analytic framework in order to exhaustively analyse the language as it is used during lecture sessions at the UDSM. In the following sections, the terms 'conversation' and 'discourse' are clarified.

1.5.3.1 The term 'conversation'

As this research is interested in spoken classroom discourse, the analytic framework presented by conversation analysis is one of the approaches used for describing and interpreting the data. The framework developed by Atkinson and Drew (1979) and associated with the tradition of ascribing language to particular institutions within the conversation analysis research approach, was followed. However, different researchers have viewed the term 'conversation' differently. Cristal and Davy (1975) view it as a vague term that can be used to describe any discourse. Cook (1989) views it as a

term that refers to unplanned communicative tasks, which suspends power asymmetry among participants, which has a small number of participants, which has short turns, and which primarily addresses the participants and not an outside audience. Johnstone (2002) views it as any kind of spoken interaction ranging from unstructured casual conversation to structured conversation such as debates. Overall, the important issue in all these views is that they refer to conversation as one of a number of discourse types. This study will attend to conversational features that are evident in classroom interactions.

1.5.3.2 *The terms 'discourse' and 'discourse types'*

It is important at this point to define 'discourse' and 'discourse types'. Cook (1989:6) defines 'discourse' in education by distinguishing two kinds of language use as potential objects for study. The first type is the study of specific languages included in the curriculum; the second type is the study of language as a means of imparting knowledge. Thus, he distinguishes between an interest in learning of a language, and an interest in language as an instrument in teaching and learning. His interest, as the interest in this study, is in the coherent use of language used to communicate the content of a specific discipline in various educational settings. Therefore, for Cook (1989:50) 'discourse' refers to large units of language (spoken or written) that are unified and meaningful, and of which the cohesive devices can be identified and assessed. Other definitions are provided by Levinson 1983 who defines 'discourse' as a formal linguistic unit with a set of characterising features, and by Gee (2011) who defines 'discourse' in terms of the social functions of language. This study will prefer the definition of Cook; however, Levinson's structural features are partly integrated into Cook's view, and Gee's perspective of the social function of discourse is relevant when the relation between form and function of lectures as discourses is considered.

1.5.3.3 *Distinguishing between discourse and conversation*

Distinguishing between discourse and conversation is not an easy task because in modern literate societies the two terms seem to be dependent on each other. On the one hand, Abercrombie (1965) emphasizes that conversation is synonymous to spoken language, and Svartvik and Quirk (1980) find that about 99% of all speech is conversation. On the other hand, Cook (1989) maintains that there are various modes of discourse, among which conversation is specifically classified as spoken discourse. On this consideration, this study attended to conversation analytic as well as discourse analytic approaches to the investigation of classroom interaction such as is observed at the University of Dar es Salaam.

1.5.4 Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis

This study used both Conversation Analysis (CA) and Discourse Analysis (DA) as approaches to assist in the investigation of language use in tertiary education classrooms, for two major reasons. The first reason relates to the historical development of studies on conversation and spoken discourse worldwide. Firth (1935) found the study of conversation important because it provides the key to a better understanding of what language is and how it works. This is an important consideration when one remembers the linguistic diversity of the higher education context in Tanzania and how lecturers at university level use language to cater for such diversity. The second reason relates to the central theoretical contribution of CA that talk, even informal, unplanned talk, is a highly organised and socially ordered phenomenon. Thus, as Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008:137) explain, in analysing oral communication as one finds in lectures, CA can reveal how the communicative event is organised, how lecturers attempt to achieve coherence in interaction and what the role of the event is in wider social processes. Heritage (1984:290) notes that the use of the acquired knowledge of discourse organization of institutional talk can demonstrate how institutions conduct institutional activities, such as teaching. Although it is not customary to use CA and DA as analytic approaches in the same study, the nature of the data used here, namely spoken language belonging to the discourse types of 'lecture' and 'interview', justifies reference to both, as will be further explained and elaborated in chapter two.

1.6 RESEARCH PARADIGM, DESIGN AND METHODS

1.6.1 Research paradigm

This study is a qualitative research project, which corresponds to the definition of Berg (2009) that defines qualitative research as attending to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols and descriptions of things. It answers questions by examining various social settings and individuals who inhabit these settings. For example, this paradigm allows for in-depth research into how people make sense of the way they conduct themselves through symbols, rituals, social structures and social roles. It was suitable for this study due to the nature of data sought and analysed. My main interest was to demonstrate how lecturers make use of the linguistic repertoire available to them in the teaching and learning process at a multilingual tertiary education level, as well as how they reflect on the discourse strategies they use. Banda (2009:6) refers to linguistic repertoire as the total range of codes available to the bilingual speaker that allow him or her to

perform different roles across ethnic, community, regional and national boundaries as well as different modalities, styles and registers s/he adopts in performing such roles.

1.6.2 Research design

This is a case study research design, an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context (Mouton, 2001). This approach allows for examining of relatively complex phenomena, with units of analysis varying from individuals to class groups (Creswell, 2007). It was suitable to this study because the study intended to explore intensively the languages of classroom interaction, as one aspect of the tools of teaching and learning at the University of Dar es Salaam, for understanding how diverse linguistic resources were used by lecturers.

1.6.3 Research methodology

According to the records of the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU), which was launched in 2005, Tanzania has eighteen accredited universities of which the University of Dar es Salaam is the oldest and largest. The University is composed of four colleges, two institutes and six schools that are spread across five campuses of the university. Thus, the population for this study comprises the students and academic staff members of the University of Dar es Salaam. As Berg (2009:3) recommends, a population like this was relevant because it was easily accessible to me as a researcher; it consisted the target population, and it contained all the necessary sources of information to answer the research questions of this study.

This study selected participants through the purposive sampling procedure. Berg (2009:3) recommends this sampling procedure for an exploratory study of this nature because it allows a researcher to use his or her knowledge or expertise about some group to select subjects who represent the population relevant to the study. This sampling procedure thus suited me as a lecturer in the College of Arts and Social Sciences (CASS).

The college is the focus of the study because it is appropriate both in setting and in population. It is the oldest and largest both in terms of teaching staff and in terms of number of students. It hosts eight departments namely the Department of Political Science, the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology, the Department of History and Anthropology, the Department of Geography, the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics, the Department of Economics, and the Department of Statistics. I sampled the first two departments for this study because at the time this

study was envisaged they were the largest in the college. I thus had a conviction that they would most likely provide as wide a spectrum as possible of the specific communicative and discourse strategies for observation. Four lecturers from each department who happened to be teaching first year classes by the time of data collection were selected based on convenience. This also applied for the courses that were on session by that time. This made up a total of eight lecturers and eight lecture hours.

To answer the questions for this study, I needed three sets of data: (i) data on discourse strategies that were used by the selected lecturers during classroom interaction with students; (ii) data on how and how regularly the lecturers used such discourse strategies; and (iii) data on the lecturers' own reflection on the use of discourse strategies bearing in mind the variety of linguistic resources of their students during lectures. For the first and second sets of data, I attended selected lectures and made video and audio recordings for later transcription and analysis with a view to identifying and assessing various observed discourse strategies. For the third set of data, following the attendance of the lectures, I interviewed the respective lecturers in order to gain introspective information from them on their use of the observed discourse strategies during lectures. The interviews were semi-structured in that they aimed at the interests of the project, but also allowed open discussion where lecturers chose to highlight what they found to be of primary importance.

The audio and video-recorded data were transcribed, analysed and interpreted using techniques and analytical devices presented by CA (cf. Psathas, 1995; ten Have, 2001) and DA (cf. Cook, 1989). These two approaches allowed for content analysis (cf. Busch et al., 2005) that gave insight into the coherence of the particular subject material and topic of the lecture. These research tools for analysing the meanings and relationships of words and concepts were used in the analysis that lead to reliable inferences about the structure as well as explicit and implicit content that had a bearing on the specific issues under investigation. Discourse was coded into manageable categories on macro and micro levels. Finally, the coded information on strategies and their uses were triangulated with interview data to gain as complete an impression as possible on the discourse strategies used in classroom interaction in such multilingual educational setting as the University of Dar es Salaam.

1.7 THESIS OUTLINE

This introductory chapter has provided the background and rationale for the study. It has identified and stated the problem, the research aim and objectives for this study. It has also presented an overview of the linguistic diversity in Tanzania particularly the variety of indigenous languages in

the country, the development of Kiswahili as a national lingua franca, the establishment of English as an official language and lingua franca in the country, and it has described the language policy and the language-in-education policy in the country. Additionally, the chapter has highlighted the language of classroom interaction in higher education in the country. It also presented the English only policy in place in the higher education system and the status and use of English as an academic lingua franca in higher education in the country. The chapter has further explained the status of Kiswahili as a local lingua franca as well as an informal language of learning in higher education in the country (in relation to language choice and use). It has briefly presented some general theoretical issues pertaining to the analysis of the language of classroom interaction and recapped on the issues pertaining to conversation analysis and discourse analysis. The reason for combining both Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis as analytic framework for this study has been explained. Finally, the chapter indicated the research paradigm, design and methods adopted for this study.

Chapter two reviews the state of the literature related to the topic under study. The review of literature presented here covers the conceptualisation of Conversation Analysis as a theoretical framework for the study. Particularly it presents definitions of “conversation” and conversational features. Then it presents the history of Conversation Analysis and the theoretical contributions of the analytic framework. The chapter further focuses on Discourse Analysis as a theoretical framework for the study. It specifically focuses on defining the terms ‘discourse’, ‘discursive features’ and ‘discourse types’. It also presents the history of Discourse Analysis, study of discourse strategies and touches on how Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis function as frameworks for analysing the language of classroom interaction. It then refers to pertinent issues of bilingualism and bilingual education, English as a lingua franca and code switching.

Chapter three presents a detailed account of how I conducted this study. I describe the research paradigm selected for this study and explain how it is characterised, as well as giving the rationale for the adoption of this research paradigm for the study. I present the research design adopted for this study as well as explaining its nature and application, and the population, sample and sampling procedures adopted. The data collection process, specifically the schedule, sets of data selected, type of interviews conducted, reasons for selecting such an interview type and the setting for the interviews are all explained. Also described and explained are the profiles of the research participants, how I processed and analysed data by specifically stating the sources of data, the transcription process, the organisation of transcripts and the coding process. I give an account of

how I interpreted the data, then I report on the ethical considerations of this study, and finally, I report on some of the limitations that I faced while conducting this study.

Chapter four presents and discusses the findings of the research. It particularly focuses on three propositional discourse strategies that were analysed as well as structural discourse strategies represented by regularly used discourse markers and particular personal pronouns. It also presents the interview data information about lecturer's classroom experiences as far as English as LoI is concerned, additional discourse strategies that lecturers use to facilitate teaching, the reasons for their use of the strategies, and their view about the usefulness of the strategies they use. The analysis and discussion goes in line with the first three fundamental questions that guided this study.

Chapter five addresses the fourth question of the study by providing reflections on the potential effectiveness of the discourse strategies that lecturers use during classroom interaction with students at the University of Dar es Salaam. It particularly contextualises the strategies within issues of bilingualism and bilingual education in Tanzania, English as an academic lingua franca in Tanzania, and the language of classroom interaction at the University of Dar es Salaam in relation to the predominant lecture mode of classroom instruction. Mainly, the chapter reviews some advantages and disadvantages associated with the lecture mode of instruction in large classes, and then it relates the observed classroom practices of the participating lecturers with the practices that have been identified in literature as supportive to the lecture method.

Chapter six presents the summary of the dissertation, recommendations and a conclusion that reflects on the way forward.

Chapter Two

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapter one consisted of the introduction to and outline of this thesis. In this chapter, I present a literature review covering specifically those topics relevant to the research questions and analysis of the data of the study. The review will attend to published work on discourse strategies in classroom interaction elsewhere, for the value, it may have in identifying the discourse strategies that the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction. The aim is to categorise them in terms of their occurrence patterns in bilingual tertiary education. Specifically, attention goes to strategies used in lectures to facilitate the learning of multilingual students for whom the language of learning is not their first language. Thus, the review of literature draws on research into the kinds of discourse strategies typically used in classroom interaction in general (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Mehan, 1985; Tsui, 1995; Wells, 1996). It also considers various studies on classroom interaction in linguistically diversified communities. Special consideration goes to strategies speakers use for smooth communication where speakers from different first language communities and with limited shared communicative resources are in contact (cf. Long, 2003; Aito, 2005; Bührig & Thijsen, 2006; Brock-Utne, 2007).

In the overview of literature presented here, in section 2.1 I present CA by defining the terms 'conversation' and 'conversational features' of language use. I also present CA as a part of the theoretical framework for this study. In section 2.2, I define the terms "discourse" and 'discursive features' of language use as well as discourse types. I also present DA as a part of the theoretical framework for this study. In sections 2.1 to 2.3, I describe the combination of CA and DA frameworks in analysing the language of classroom interaction. In section 2.4, I describe classroom interaction as an instance of discourse types. In section 2.5, I review studies on bilingualism and bilingual education. In section 2.6, I review studies about English as an academic lingua franca. In sections 2.7 through 2.9, I review studies on classroom oral practices with special focus on repetition, use of questions and code switching to form a template that will direct data analysis in chapter four, and in section 2.10, I provide a summary of the chapter.

2.1 CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

Lectures as instances of spoken university registers comprise of properties of spoken language that facilitate smooth communication. These properties, though not purely conversational because a lecture is mainly in form of monologue, share much of underlying conversational features that require scrutiny in a study like this. In the following sections, I describe Conversation Analysis (CA) as part of the conceptual framework that I adopted for this study. The description commences with the characterization of the terms 'conversation'. Thereafter, I describe DA and CA as analytic frameworks, which make up the primary conceptual framework for this study. I conclude the section by explaining why I combined the two approaches.

2.1.1 Definitions of the term 'conversation'

As indicated earlier, different researchers have described the term “conversation” differently. They have associated it with vagueness and lack of planning (Cristal & Davy, 1975). Cook (1989:6) comments that it suspends power asymmetry among participants, possesses a small number of participants, is made up of short turns, and it is primarily intended for the participants and not for an outside audience. Moreover, Johnston (2002:73) views conversation as any kind of spoken interaction ranging from unstructured casual conversation to structured conversations such as debates. All these definitions refer to conversation as one of a number of discourse types (spoken discourse) although the researchers view distinguishing between the terms 'conversation' and 'discourse' as a complex endeavour.

2.1.2 Definitions of 'conversational features'

As alluded to in section 2.1.1 above, conversation is characterised by informality, lack of prior planning, few participants and spontaneity. It consists of features of spoken language such as hesitations, gap fillers, interjections, and interruptions (cf. Ameka, 1992), self and other repair (cf. Watterson, 2008). Other aspects of conversation that have been singled out for special attention are code switching and code mixing (cf. Gulzar, 2010), questioning (cf. Roostini, 2011), self, and other repetition (cf. Berry & Kim, 2008; Quick, 2007). Conversation is also characterised by the use of features of spoken language such as the use of discourse markers (cf. Zhang, 2012). Many studies in different parts of the globe have documented how discourse markers facilitate smooth face-to-face communication by helping in discourse organisation, content flow, and signalling of speech acts (Zhang, 2012:45). Further exposition of discourse markers will appear under section 2.4.6.

According to Sacks et al. (1974:700ff), conversation is characterised by speaker change, limitations to the number of speakers and speaker time, presence of interruptions, and a system of turn taking. Other features of conversation are the presence of a pre-specified topic, distribution of turns and length of conversation, varying number of participants, turn allocation techniques (such as self-selection or other-selection), and repair mechanisms for dealing with errors and violation of conventions. While a lecture does not necessarily exhibit all the identified properties of conversation, it has predictable patterns such as openings and closings; its participants, venue, time, topic and the length of the spoken interaction are specified in advance.

In the light of the aforementioned properties of conversation, by nature lectures are not pure instances of conversation; rather they assume some features of conversational behaviour. Like all kinds of classroom interaction, lectures take place face to face, they involve two kinds of participants (a speaker and hearers), they have an established turn-taking system, and they are accompanied by paralinguistic features such as body language and facial expressions of the participants. They also have regular features of spoken language such as hesitations, gap fillers, questioning, code switching and mixing, substitution, use of personal pronouns, ellipsis, as well as repetition and repair, (cf. Quick, 2007; Milne, 2006; Fortanet, 2004). Moreover, they involve conversational strategies such as ways of beginning and ending a lecture, clarifying a point, rephrasing, interrupting, eliciting information, making polite requests and excuses, soliciting attention and allocating turns.

2.1.3 Conversation Analysis as theoretical framework

Conversation Analysis plays a central role in the endeavour to analyse face-to-face interaction. Goodwin and Heritage (1990:284) regard face-to-face interaction, as it occurs in a lecture room, as a strategic site for the analysis of human action. In the following sections, I put across the history of Conversation Analysis and its theoretical contribution to the analysis of language in use.

2.1.3.1 History of Conversation Analysis

The history of CA as an academic discipline and its creation dates back to the mid 1960s. It is associated with Harvey Sacks, then a professor of social psychology at the University of California and later followed by colleagues such as Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson (Cadzen, 1988:39). CA adopts ethnomethodology, followers of which believe that the proper object of the study of language in use is the set of techniques or methods that actual participants use in constructing and interpreting actual talk. They emphasise the use of data-driven theories, and analytic methods

characterised by patience in waiting for the data to yield the real categories that the participants themselves orient to in talk. In order to attain such data, ethnomethodologists focus on aspects of talk such as turn-taking patterns, repair mechanisms, agreements, disagreements, openings, closings, and compliments (Cadzen, 1988:39). Although recognition of these features did not originate in research of classroom discourse, these aspects of conversation have become influential in classroom language studies (cf. Goffman, 1981; Sacks, 1992).

Although CA takes an interest in formal linguistic features of spoken discourse, ethnographers and ethnomethodologists who subscribe to this theory have criticised some kinds of linguistic research. They have essentially accused it for alienating the researcher from non-linguistic elements of classroom behaviour that they believe are central elements of the communicative events. Christie (2002:7) draws attention to the theoretical and practical importance of deciding what texts should be selected for analysis and how they should be selected. Classroom communication, identified as a highly conventionalised form of discourse, has often been selected and attended to from a conversation analytic perspective.

2.1.3.2 *Theoretical contribution of Conversation Analysis*

The central theoretical contribution of CA is the credence that talk is a highly organised and socially ordered phenomenon (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008:137). Thus in analysing oral communication as one finds in lectures, CA can reveal how the communicative events are organised, how lecturers conduct the lectures and what the roles of the events are in wider social processes.

Heritage (1997:162) categorizes two kinds of conversation analytic research, which overlap in various ways but are each unique in focus. The first examines interaction as a separate institution while the second examines the management of social institutions in interaction. Ten Have (2001) expands this categorisation and deduces two types of CA namely 'Pure Conversation Analysis' (PCA) and 'Applied Conversation Analysis' (ACA). The first type of CA studies structural aspects of spoken discourse such as turn taking patterns, interruptions, adjacency pairs and various kinds of repair (such as the study on the structure of classroom interaction by Mehan, 1985). The latter, ACA, studies the effect of those patterns on the organisation of institutions through stabilised forms of social practices such as classroom teaching, television news, medical consultation and so forth (Fairclough, 2001).³ In emphasising the usefulness of ACA, Psathas (1990:21) observes that the

³ Although Fairclough mainly works within the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) framework, in this context his ideas relate to ACA. However, I am not going to analyse the data for this study with reference to CDA because my aim is to

interactional phenomena discovered across and within various settings enable one to do three things. First, it allows analysts to state the interactional competencies required for participation in the chosen settings such as the multilingual higher education setting in Tanzania. Second, it allows analysts to articulate the prior interactional performative skills required before entering the systems such as the higher education academic system, and third, it allows analysts to develop training methods for those deficient in the requisite skills. In other words, ACA seeks to establish how various aspects of discourse facilitate the attainment of interactional goals such as the imparting of knowledge through teaching. Therefore, as Heap (1990:8) maintains, ACA allows for questions relating to what motivates participants in their practical contexts to do things their way, even when contrary to how the things are planned, evaluated and accounted for elsewhere in theory or at a higher hierarchical level in an organisation. As ten Have (2001:8) advises, ACA requires some distance from practical interests because an important part of its discoveries may reveal that things are different from what established ideas suggest. This is a very significant methodological idea as far as this study is concerned because some practices in classroom interaction at the University of Dar es Salaam that seem to be run according to the standard policy, might, from an analytic distance, turn out to be contrary to what is stipulated in policy.

For the purpose of certainty of argumentation, ten Have (2001:8) proposes the use of audio or video recordings in research on institutional discourse, as this gives a special kind of insight into actual instances of interaction. The data, he adds, can provide both desirable and undesirable results as far as practical interests are concerned. Nevertheless, such results can help better understand and inform a particular institution on actual practices, and then give directives for possible change or resistance (Fairclough, 2001:30). This study is a special case in the larger area of the study of language as a tool for conveying socio-cultural knowledge and a medium for socialization. It is aligned to the perspective of O'Connor and Michaels (1993:319) in that it intends to give insight into ways of thinking and acting, with the aim to further an understanding of the complicated processes of language use in teaching and learning in HE institutions, such as the University of Dar es Salaam.

2.2 DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

As Johnstone (2008:1) observes, different academic sections and disciplines use the term discourse analysis for what people do, how they do it or both, and analysts are commended for approaching the analysis of language by posing many questions and proposing many different sorts of answers.

explore the language of classroom interaction at the University of Dar es Salaam with the primary aim of documenting (and not engaging in aspects of language and power).

Johnstone (2008:2) further clarifies that discourse analysis focuses on actual instances of communicative action in the medium of language use and language allows people to perform three important communications namely saying, doing and being (Gee, 2011: 2). Thus, in actual situations and with specific purposes, people use different styles or varieties of language and in so doing they build identities and activities not just through language but also by using language with other non linguistic elements (Ibid. 28).

Analysing the language of classroom interaction such as the one under study requires additional tools to those provided by CA, thus DA tools are equally necessary. Wetherell et al. (2001:i) generally regard Discourse Analysis as a set of methods and theories for analysing language in use in social contexts. Potter and Wetherell (1987:21) explain that DA uses ethno-methodological skills to examine actions, events, situations, of which a particular discourse forms part. Johnstone (2008:3) distinguishes discourse analysis from language analysis because it is not about language as an abstract system but rather about what happens when people draw on their knowledge about language and their memories of things they have said, written, heard or seen before to do things in the world such as exchanging of information and expressing of feelings. The following sections define discourse, discursive features, discourse types, and then present DA as part of the theoretical framework for this study.

2.2.1 Definitions of Discourse

The language of classroom interaction, such as the kind of interaction under study here, forms one type of discourse. According to Dooley and Levinsohn (2001:3-15), discourses differ according to the means of production (the number of speakers), the type of content (the text genre), the manner of production (style and register) and the medium of production (oral versus written). Keller (2005:228) regards 'discourse' as a theoretical device for ordering and analysing data, a fundamentally necessary hypothetical assumption for starting research of this kind. It is about disparate elements or utterances, occurring at different instances in time and in social as well as geographical space (Keller, 2005:228).

The concept 'discourse' is a catchphrase that has been defined differently in different contexts. For example, Blommaert (2005:2) refers to the concept in semiotic terms as any form of action with a meaningful symbolic behaviour such is found in literature and arts. Other scholars refer to 'discourse' as language in sequence beyond a sentence (Cameron, 2001; Tannen, 1984), or as language in use for communication (Brown & Yule, 1983; Cook, 1989). In other cases, they refer to

'discourse' as a language about language used as social practice (Foucault, 1971; Gee, 1996), such as discourses on poverty, war, human rights, education in Africa or Languages of Instruction. Others refer to it as an extended and organised body of communicative units among members of a particular discourse community with similar ideas (Young, 2008; Hyland, 2006; Borg, 2003). In an explicit manner, Cook (1989:6) defines the concept with reference to the binary nature of language. In this regard, Cook (1989:50) distinguishes two kinds of language as potential objects for study, namely, spoken and written forms of language. Cook (1989:6) further defines discourse in terms of language units larger than sentences that are coherent, thus unified and meaningful. In this study, the first type of language as distinguished by Cook (1989), namely spoken discourse, is the target of investigation. It has to be noted, however, that the distinction between spoken and written language can at times be blurred (as when a lecturer reads to his or her class from a published text or from written notes).

Abercrombie (1965) considers spoken discourse as less planned. He distinguishes between ordinary and specialised discourse types. Warren (2006:3) follows this, identifying a list of specialised discourse types that includes bureaucratic encounters (cf. Collins, 1987), interviews (cf. Cheepen & Monaghan, 1990), business transactions (cf. Lampi, 1986), telephone conversation (cf. Psathas, 1986; Schegloff, 1986) courtroom discourse (cf. Atkinson & Drew, 1979; Drew, 1985), and classroom talk (cf. Mehan, 1985; Coulthard, 1975; Tsui 1995).

However, as explained in sections 1.5.3 and 1.5.4, it is complicated to distinguish between 'discourse' and 'conversation' because, as the literature shows, the two terms are dependent on each other. For example, Abercrombie (1965) views conversation as synonymous to spoken language while Svartvik and Quirk (1980) estimate that about 99% of all speech is conversation. Cook (1989:50) remarks that there are various modes of discourse, among which conversation is specifically classified as spoken discourse. On this consideration, this study attended to conversation and discourse analytic approaches for the investigation of classroom interaction such as the kind that occurs in large lectures at the University of Dar es Salaam.

2.2.2 Definitions of discursive features

According to Brown and Yule (1983:1), analysing discourse is analysing language in use, describing both the linguistic forms and the functions they serve. Two major functions of language have been identified. The first is the expression of content and the second is the expression of social

relations and personal attitudes. Brown and Yule (1983:1) and Halliday (1978:36-58) refer to the former function as transactional and the latter as interactional.

Halliday (1985) further characterises language use at four levels. The first is that language functions by drawing on semantics, grammar and vocabulary and using the resources in different ways to make different meanings. The second is that language is context bound, therefore he understands it to be dependent on the context. The third is that language is used as a social semiotic process thereby making meanings through choice. The fourth is that language is textually bound, thereby working at the level beyond the sentence and thus providing a holistic understanding of structure, organisation and development of connected oral discourse and written texts. Terminologically, Halliday has identified the latter three functions as ideational, interpersonal and textual.

Halliday (1978:36-58) refers to these three major functions of language as the meta-functions of language (See also Bloor 2004:10-11). The first function, the ideational, articulates how language helps speakers in organising, understanding and expressing their external world, their own internal world and consciousness. The ideational function is subdivided into an experiential and a logical function whereby the former expresses content or ideas while the latter expresses the relationship between the ideas (Halliday, 1978:45). The corresponding meta-function is that language is about the natural world and it treats clauses as just representations. The second function is the interpersonal function by which speakers become able to participate in communication, take up roles, express and understand feelings, attitudes and judgements. Its corresponding meta-function is that language is about the social world, especially the relationships between speakers and hearers and it treats clauses as exchanges (Halliday, 1978:46). The last function is the textual function by which language functions to relate what is said to the real world and using language to organise the text itself. The corresponding meta-function is that language is about the verbal world; especially the flow of information in a text and it treats clauses as messages (Halliday, 1978:46).

2.2.3 Discourse Types

Discourses possess features with two main characteristics, stability and instability. Stable features resist change over a long period across long discourse stretches, while unstable ones do not (Leech, 1983:12). As for the case of text, Dooley and Levinsohn (2001:7) contend that each text type has a social or cultural purpose of which achievement depends on a number of linguistic or textual properties. These properties combine to form genres, referred to as the recognisable combinations of textual properties working together to achieve a particular cultural goal.

Cook (1989) and Sherzer (1987) define discourse in terms of discourse types or genres, and accordingly divide it into two major categories: spoken and written discourse. Cook (1989:50) further subdivides it into the four language skills of speaking and listening, writing and reading. Even so, defining the concept 'discourse' is difficult because it has been identified in different ways depending on such factors as academic discipline and theoretical preferences of the person defining it. Moreover, it is said to have no self-contained meaning as it takes on meaning in its own context, in relation to outside forces and factors such as context, previous texts and culture (Cameron, 2001; Allen, 2000; Sherzer, 1987).

Sherzer (1987:296), for example, defines discourse as a level or component of language use related to but distinct from grammar; it can be oral or written, and it can be approached in textual or socio-cultural and social-interactive terms. In addition, it can be brief like a greeting, smaller than a single sentence or lengthy like a novel or narration of personal experience. It can also be larger than a sentence and it can be constructed out of sentences or sentence-like utterances. Therefore, discourse includes and relates to both textual patterning (including such properties as coherence and disjunction) and a situating of language in natural contexts of use. Context here is understood in two senses: firstly, as the social and cultural backdrop and the ground rules and assumptions of language usage, and secondly, as the immediate, ongoing, and emerging actualities of speech events (Sherzer, 1987:296). As Sherzer further remarks, the textual structure of a brief greeting is slim and thus different from that of a three-hour myth narration – or in the case of this study, a one hour lecture). Like a three-hour myth narration, a lecture is quite intricate and complicated, and involves quite a number of socio-cultural and interactive features that must be attended to analytically (Sherzer, 1987:296).

In this study, discourse refers to the language used for communication in academic settings such as universities during classroom interaction. Discourse types involved are the lectures with their inherent requirement of speaking skills. The classroom-spoken discourse such as the one analysed in this study is highly structured and organised (cf. Smit, 2010; Cazden, 1988, 2001), thus providing an extensive fabric of data for linguistic analysis.

Atkinson and Drew (1979) are associated with the tradition of ascribing language to particular institutions within the CA research approach. As Cazden (1988:40) notes, CA originally was concerned solely with conversational interaction (such as talk between friends) but later it developed an interest in non-conversational styles of talk such as court room interaction, interviews, medical consultations, political speeches, radio phone-in shows, speech and language therapy sessions and

stand-up comedy (Cadzen, 1988:40). Consequently, this broadening of focus necessitates the use of the term 'talk-in-interaction' instead of the term 'conversation', which is more restrictive (Cadzen, 1988:40).

2.2.4 Discourse Analysis as theoretical framework

2.2.4.1 History

Keller (2004:2005) reports six notions of discourse analysis inherent in the humanities. The first is the traditional political science approach, which focuses on the relationship between arguments or ideas and interests. This approach gives credit if the better discourse wins. The second is Discourse Analysis, which provides the master frame and combines pragmatic and conversation analysis to analyse micro-elements of language in use. Similar to this is Corpus Linguistics, which works with exceptionally large corpora of text data around selected themes such as political issues, in order to look for statistical correlations. The fourth is Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), which although based in linguistics, has a slightly different discourse orientation, connecting discourse to ideological language in use. The fifth is the combination of discourse theories such as those of Michel Foucault designed to analyse the social-macro levels of power or knowledge relationship or the articulation of collective identities. The last is cultural discourse research, a research field focusing on 'symbolic interaction'. It subsumes three traditions namely the analysis of the construction of social problems in public discourse, the investigation of language use and symbolic power (such as Bourdieu) and the analysis of circuits of representation or culture in cultural studies (Keller, 2005:225). For Keller the second and third approaches are interested in micro and macro processes of language use. The fourth approach is interested in the interface between language and ideology while the fifth and sixth approaches are interested in questions of knowledge production, circulation and transformation with greater importance given to social actors.

Therefore, the interest of approaches two and three are relevant to the current study as they help combine pragmatic and conversation analysis to analyse text data from lectures and interviews so as to identify and analyse discourse strategies that lecturers at the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction with students.

2.2.4.2 Theoretical Contribution of Discourse Analysis in the study of language use

Wetherell et al. (2001) regard DA as a set of methods and theories for investigating language in use and language in social contexts. It focuses on features of text and talk (Antaki et al., 2003; Edwards,

1997). Its major foundation is in ethnomethodology (Garfinkel, 1967) which regards talk as not merely about actions, events and situations, but as also a potent and constitutive part of those actions, events and situations (Potter & Wetherell, 1987).

Predominant approaches to DA include first, Speech Act theory, with its fundamental interest in what force utterances have and how it affects addressees (Austin & Searle, 1960s). The second is ethnography of communication with its interest in the cultural values and social roles, that operate in particular communities (Hymes, 1960s, 1970s). The third is, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) with its focus on the relationship between power and discourse (van Dijk, 2001; Fairclough, 2001), and fourth, CA with its interest in the structure of discourse in social interaction (Grice, 1975).

Generally, the methods used in discourse analysis, as it is for this study, are those that produce discourse data (Cameron, 2001:8). They involve listening to talk, transcribing it and reflecting on its meaning and significance (Cameron, 2001:7).

2.2.4.3 *Purpose of Discourse Analysis*

Cameron (2001:7) clarifies that discourse analysts analyse spoken discourse with the aim of making explicit what people normally take for granted. They also intend to show what talking accomplishes in the life of people and in society at large (Cameron, 2001:7). Cameron (2001:7) describes two purposes of discourse analysis. The first is analysing discourse as an end in itself, and the second is analysing discourse as a means to some other end. As for the former purpose, Cameron (2001:7) comments that discourse analysts study talk because they want to know about talk. In this context, they are interested in questions concerning aspects such as how turn taking works in conversation and whether the form of a question affects the form of the answer (Cameron, 2001:7). For the second purpose, Cameron (2001:8) finds that discourse analysts are interested in the idea that “life is in many ways a series of conversations”, so people’s talk can provide evidence of other aspects of their lives (Cameron, 2001:8). The second purpose is the kind that motivated this study because I sought to discover the interactional practices of lecturers to establish how they utilise their linguistic repertoire to accomplish the academic activity of lecturing.

Researchers have noted that the concerns of DA in general and those of classroom discourse in particular, have changed over the years (Christie, 2002; Edwards & Westgate, 1987). This has been due to changed perceptions about what should be the purposes of such analyses and the invention of new methods of DA that have helped researchers to adequately elucidate language in the social construction of experience (Christie, 2002:2).

2.2.4.4 *Value of Discourse Analysis*

The importance of studying how discourse facilitates an understanding of social activities such as teaching cannot be underestimated. As Sherzer (1987:295) remarks, discourse creates, recreates, focuses, modifies and transmits both culture and language, and their intersection. Sherzer (1987) finds that some of the activities by which discourse does this include poetry magic, verbal duelling, and political rhetoric. Here the resources provided by grammar, as well as cultural meanings and symbols, are activated to their fullest potential and the essence of language-culture relationships becomes salient (Sherzer, 1987:295). Gee (1991:1) insists that the importance of DA resides in its two major functions. These are the scaffolding of the performance of social activities (such as teaching) and the scaffolding of human affiliations within cultures and social groups and institutions (such as universities). Gee (1991:1) further argues that the major concern of DA is to treat discourse as an instrument of social construction of experience. Such experience in lectures would be constructed by lecturers' choice and use of discourse strategies.

2.2.5 **Studying discourse strategies**

Literature on classroom interaction comprises a complex description of what can be identified as a discourse strategy due to the mix up of aspects to be included. There are many aspects of discourse that are interchangeably referred to as discourse strategies, communication strategies or teaching strategies. These are narrating, humour, scaffolding, explaining, paraphrasing, repetition, and questioning. Others are approximation, word coinage, circumlocution, borrowing, literal translation, language switch, appeal for assistance, mime, and topic avoidance (cf. Tarone 1978; Cegala, 1988; Van de Stuyf, 2002; Lawson, 2002; Butcher, 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2009). In the following sections, I define discourse strategies in accordance with the current study and I categorise two levels of analysis of discourse strategies adopted for this study.

2.2.5.1 *Defining discourse strategies*

A discourse strategy can generally be defined as a strategy for communication between or among people (Walker, 1994). As it is for many other concepts, in literature the concept discourse strategy has received various definitions. Some literatures define the concept as discourse strategies (O'Connor & Michaels, 1993), communicative strategies (Tarone, 1978; Cegalla & Villaume, 1988). Others have referred to it as teaching strategies (Van de Stuyf, 2002; Butcher 2006), conversational devices (Taylor, 2002), speaker strategies (House, 2009) and conversational strategies (Gumperz, 1982). In this study, the analysis follows the concept discourse strategy as it

encapsulates all the other concepts. Nevertheless, for this study the term 'discourse strategies' was meant to include propositional discourse strategies particularly 'questioning', repetition' and 'code switching' and structural discourse strategies namely discourse markers 'Now' and 'So', and pronouns 'we', 'you' and 'I'.

Generally, the study of discourse strategies has been at two levels, micro and macro levels. In the following sections, I describe studies on discourse strategies at the macro (propositional discourse strategies) and micro (structural discourse strategies) levels. In this study, the concept 'propositional discourse strategy' refers to any communicative strategy that relates to any discourse function such as explaining, directing, exemplifying and emphasising. A structural discourse strategy refers to any communicative strategy that functions, among others, to mark cohesion, topic connectivity and continuity (such as discourse markers) and stance (such as personal pronouns) in a text.

2.2.5.2 *Macro level*

At a macro level, researchers refer to propositional strategies such as re-voicing, which helps the teacher coordinate academic task structure and participation structure (O'Connor & Michaels, 1993). Others are teacher higher-level questioning, teacher elaboration of students' ideas, teacher probing questions, student participation, and student-to-student participation (Rossignol, 1997). Moreover, Wells (1996) presents other strategies such as pausing during a lecture, which allow students to consolidate their notes. Others are the inserting of brief demonstrations, inserting of short ungraded writing exercises followed by class discussions, and adopting alternative formats to lecture method (the feedback lecture and the guided lecture). Others are the use of the discussion method for promoting long-term retention of information, motivating students toward further learning and allowing students to use information in new settings. The last are the use of visual based instruction, which helps make focal point for other interactive techniques, in-class writing for involvement of students in doing things and thinking about them, problem solving strategies such as case study and guided study design, and lastly, cooperative learning such as debates, drama, role-playing, simulation and peer teaching.

Features of spoken discourse strategies as are characteristic of classroom interaction include repetition, the use of questions and code switching. Literature on these features indicates the pervasiveness of their use cross-culturally. There various types of repetition such self-repetition (cf. Allwood et al., 1990; Leftein & Snell, 2011), other repetition (cf. Knutson, 2010), and resumptive repetition (cf. Quick, 2007).

2.2.5.3 *Micro level*

At a micro level are the structural discourse strategies. These as well, have been referred to by a varying range of terms such as Discourse Markers, which have further been approached from different perspectives. For example, they have been referred to as Cohesive Markers (Halliday & Hassan, 1976), Discourse Markers (Fraser, 2004; Shiffrin, 1987; Traugott, 1995), Gambits (Keller, 1981; DuFon, 1995) or as Pragmatic Markers (Fraser, 1990, 1998; Andersen, 2000; Cuenca 2008). Fraser (1990) further categorises DMs at five levels to include coordinate conjunctions such as 'and', 'but', subordinate conjunctions such as 'after', 'although', adverbials such as 'anyway', 'furthermore', prepositional phrases such as 'above all', and prepositions such as 'despite', 'in spite of'.

Discourse markers help as discourse organizers or in bridging switches from one section to another. They include words such as 'well' (Cuenca, 2008) and 'like' (Andersen, 2000). Others include gambits such as openers, closers, particles, and pause fillers (Keller, 1981). Others are aspects of conversational organisation such as turn taking patterns, interruptions, adjacency pairs and repairs (Keller, 1981). As DuFon (1995:27) observes, sometimes DMs include words and phrases or even sentences that play a crucial role in the interpretation of discourse by signalling coherent relations between discourse units. For example, DuFon (1995:27) explains that they can be used to do a number of activities. They semantically guide the hearer through discourse by means of phrases like 'the main point is', facilitate turn taking by using expressions like 're interchangeably referred to as discourse strategies, communication strategies or teaching strategies?', or mark a discourse boundary by use of expressions like 'that is all I have to say' (DuFon, 1995:27). Moreover, they have core meaning that is procedural, not conceptual (Fraser, 1999; Blakemore, 2002; Anderson, 2003; Wang et al., 2010). Therefore, the prime function of DMs is to bracket discourse by marking relations between sequentially dependent units of discourse (Traugott, 1995:5).

2.2.5.4 *Specific studies on discourse strategies*

There are several studies on various discourse strategies at both macro and micro levels. At a micro level there are studies on issues such as the functions of 'you know' in women's and men's speech (Holmes, 1986), on the use of 'like' (Andersen, 2000), on the functions of 'Okay' in Classroom Discourse (Nowotny, 2004). Others are on the use of 'well' (Schiffrin, 2012; Cuenca, 2008; Jucker, 1993), on the use of 'face work' discourse strategies (Dippold, 2011), on the use of personal pronouns (Milne, 2006; Fortanet, 2004), on the use of 'So, ok, well, now' in university spoken, register (Biber, 2006) and the use of 'Now' in courtroom discourse (cf. Hale, 1999)

At a macro level there are studies such the one on 'explaining' (Dalton-Puffer, 2009), 'repetition' (Quick, 2007), 'complementing' (Golato, 2003), 'recasting' (Lyster, 2004, 1998), 'code switching' (Setati, 1998; Turner, 2009), 'questioning' (Athanasiadou, 1990); and the use of personal pronouns (Milne, 2006). As Cegala and Villaume (1988:2) note, the choice and use of particular discourse strategies signify communicative competence, which entails the ability of speakers to mesh their utterances to form coherent conversation (Cegala & Villaume, 1988:2). Generally, Milne (2006:4) observes that in a classroom interaction the pronoun "we" is considered to act as a solidarity strategy as well as a macro organisation principle guiding both lecturers and students through speech events. For the case of Tanzania, Mwinsheikhe (2009:227-8) identifies four coping strategies that teachers in Tanzanian secondary schools adopt to overcome language-related learning barriers. These are code switching, safe talk, negative reinforcement and teaching of English language skills. Cullen (2002) also finds that teachers in secondary school use repetition of students' utterances to support them.

2.3 CONVERSATION ANALYSIS AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN INVESTIGATING ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

Classroom discourse can be analysed using CA and DA research approaches (cf. Cadzen, 1988). While both approaches have discourse as their raw materials, they differ methodologically. On the one hand, DA adopts a deductive methodology. In this regard, it involves reasoning from the general to the specific by focusing on rules for producing well-formed units of language larger than the sentence. CA on the other hand, adopts the inductive methodology, which involves reasoning from the particular to the general by focusing on the sequential organisation of talk-in-interaction (Cadzen, 1988:39). However, the two methods are similar in that both apply to language although DA focuses on both spoken and written language while CA focuses only on the spoken language (Gadzen, 1988:39).

This study combined both CA and DA analytic approaches due to two major reasons. The first relates to the historical development of studies on conversation and spoken discourse worldwide. Firth (1935) found that the study of conversation is important as it provides the key to a better understanding of what language is and how it works. This is an important consideration when one remembers the linguistic diversity of the higher education context in Tanzania. The second reason for this study to combine both CA and DA approaches is the fact that discourse analysts and conversation analysts have similar and connected interests (Montgomery, 1986). DA focuses on how utterances fit together as how discourse unfolds while CA concentrates on the conversation

structure by focusing on features such as turn-taking systems and adjacency pairs (Warren, 2006). Cook (1989:6) concludes that DA is about what gives coherence to language in use. It particularly examines how stretches of language considered in their full textual, social and psychological context, become meaningful and unified for their users. CA on the other hand, studies the organisational structure of language. In this study, CA thus helped as a tool to map all organisational features of the recordings then DA helped to determine how the structures observed in the lectures assisted in highlighting the occurrence of discourse strategies in the lectures.

The two analytic approaches are relevant to the present study because they facilitated an understanding of how lecturers use different structural discourse patterns to facilitate communication in a multilingual academic setting. The materials used reflect the aim of the two approaches. For instance, ten Have (2001:5) suggests the use of audio or video recordings in research on institutional discourse. This is because this kind of materials gives a special kind of insight into actual instances of interaction. Consequently, the data can provide both desirable and undesirable results as far as practical interests are concerned. Practical interests in the context of this study are of two main types. The first is the policy statement of the university that prohibits lecturers from code switching and code mixing. The second is the pedagogical practice by which the lecture method of teaching is typically monologue.

Results of this study indicate that code switching and code mixing are characteristic of university lecturers' language use. The results also show that lecturers do not only flow monologically throughout the lectures rather they mix with dialogue through strategies such as questioning. They also significantly use teachings aids such as the white and or chalk board. Corroborated with the argument by Fairclough (2001:30), such results can help better understand and inform the university of Dar es Salaam for change or resistance. Therefore, this study shows how lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use whatever means available to ensure that lectures flow smoothly. As O'Connor and Michaels (1993:319) observe, a study like this functions as a special case in the larger study of language as a tool for conveying socio-cultural knowledge. It also functions as a medium for socialization into ways of thinking and acting; and its aim is to further an understanding of the complicated processes of language use in teaching and learning in higher education.

2.4 CLASSROOM INTERACTION AS DISCOURSE TYPE

2.4.1 The University lecture as discourse type

Lectures form one aspect of discourse genres (Leftein & Snell, 2011:41), which are relatively stable ways of using language resulting from recurring situations in different areas of social activity. Discourse genres serve both as resource for fashioning utterances and constraints upon the way those utterances are understood and judged by others (Leftein & Snell, 2011:41). They encompass, a range of social and semiotic dimensions, among others being thematic content, compositional structure, styles, lexical items, interactional roles and norms, interpersonal relations and evaluative frames (Leftein & Snell, 2011:41).

The analysis of multilingual institutional discourse such as in higher education institutions focuses on a variety of activities by different members of the community in different settings, ways and purposes. The roles of lecturers in completing their duties, as it is the case for any other teacher, are diverse. Wragg (1999:5) describes five roles that teachers play, which can be in one way or another, similar to the roles lecturers play. The first one is the traditional role as transmitters of knowledge. The second is the role of teachers as counsellors (advising learners about carriers, aspirations and problems). The third is the role of teachers as social workers (dealing with family issues). The fourth is the role of teachers as assessors (marking learners' work, giving tests, writing reports); and the last is the role of teachers as managers (looking after resources, organising groups, setting goals (Wragg, 1999:5). The first role is relevant to this study because it is the role that can easily be influenced by elements such as the shape and size of the class and building, and more specifically, the linguistic repertoire of participants. This influence can affect the style of teaching (lecture method as opposed to discussion method) in larger classes such as the targeted ones in this study. It can also influence materials used (lecture notes as opposed to handouts, white or chalk board as opposed to overhead projector or power point). Specifically, the role requires a careful selection and use of discourse strategies to facilitate teaching predominantly using the lecture method as it is at the University of Dar es Salaam.

2.4.2 The language of classroom interaction as an Academic Discourse

The language of classroom interaction forms one of the categories of academic discourse (cf.; Castello et al., 2008; Davies, 2008; Biber, 2006; Sinclair, 2004; Scollon, 2001; Elbow, 1991). Elbow (1991:135) defines academic discourse specifically as the discourse that academics use when they publish for other academics. Nevertheless, this limited definition does not consider the wider

range of academic genres that are used and investigated. Spack (1988:29) notes that researchers and teachers endeavour to define academic discourse skills in recognition of a specific genre that has become conventionalised, and having defined the set of associated skills these are used to facilitate successful teaching and learning in university studies. Schleppegrell (2009:1) defines academic discourse as a set of linguistic 'registers' that construe multiple and complex meanings at all levels and in all subjects of schooling. Duff (2007:1) refers to this process of becoming adept at using the genre as an academic discourse socialisation process. Duff comments that given the contemporary contexts of higher education, the process has become more dynamic, situated and cultural, as well as multimodal and multilingual (Duff, 2007:1).

2.4.3 Organisation of Discourse and of Academic Discourse

It is very difficult to find all the properties of conversation listed by Sacks et al. (1974:700-701) in a lecture but at least in a lecture, the topic and length of conversation are specified in advance. This implies that lectures are formal in both topic and setting and involve specific participants. Unlike ordinary conversations, lectures are planned, have beginning middle and end. Thus, a lecture as a genre defined by Hyland (2006:46) as a form for grouping texts together and as a tool for interpreting academic texts in their social contexts, has a significantly different turn-taking system from those in lower levels of education. One of the organisational properties of a lecture, as it is to other genres, is the turn-taking system. Sacks et al. (1974:696) suggest three aspects to focus on when analysing the turn taking system of any discourse. The first is the shape of the activity at hand (such as a lecture), and how it affects the distribution of turns. The second is the adaptability of the turn-taking system to the activity at hand, and the third is the adaptability of the activity at hand to the turn-taking system. Heritage and Drew (1992:25) remark that the turn taking system in an institutional interaction differs from that in ordinary conversation. It is formal and it happens within the constraints of a specialised turn-taking system. Moreover, in institutional interaction five elements play a large role. There is a lexical choice between lay and technical vocabulary through which speakers evoke and orient to institutional context of their talk. The turn design involves the selection of activity and verbal construction through which speakers accomplish the turn's activity. The organisation of sequences is either question-answer or monologue. The overall structure of organisation is standard shape or order of phases of implementation of activities through a task related standard shape, and lastly the social epistemology and relations involve the consideration of professional cautiousness in interaction such as indirectness and interactional asymmetries such as the lack of equal participation role (Heritage & Drew, 1992:29).

Furthermore, Heritage and Drew (1992:3) observe that institutional talk has some formal properties that distinguish it from other types of conversation. For instance, it can take place face to face or via a telephone and in physical settings such as a hospital, courtroom or, as it is for this study, in an educational establishment (classroom). Nevertheless, the institutionality of an interaction does not depend on the setting but on the relevance of the participants' institutional or professional identities to the activities they are performing (Heritage & Drew, 1992:3).

2.4.4 Coherence in Discourse and Academic Discourse

Academic discourse, like any other discourse, requires being coherent for easy interpretation. Transkanen (2006:7) distinguishes cohesion from coherence by arguing that cohesion is about the identifiable grammatical and lexical elements on the surface of a text forming connections between parts of it while coherence is outside the text and is a result of the interplay between the hearer or reader and the text. Concerning how speakers give cohesion to discourse, Gernsbacher and Jescheniak (1995:24) observe that speakers mark key concepts with certain discourse devices. According to the authors, concepts are the actions, events, ideas, people and topics about which speakers talk. They conclude that speakers do the marking of the concepts in order to achieve coherence. As per Schiffrin (1987:24), the construction of coherence is through relations between adjacent units in discourse. With regard to how speakers achieve coherence, Taboada (2006:367) remarks that speakers achieve coherence in discourse by means of different rhetorical relations that hold together different parts of discourse that are responsible for the coherence of a text. The recognition of these rhetorical relations by the hearer or reader enables them to assign coherence to a text. Halliday and Hassan (1976:4) identify three types of cohesion namely, grammatical, conjunctive and lexical cohesion. The grammatical cohesive devices in English that speakers use to give cohesion to discourse are use of reference terms, use of substitution, use of ellipsis and use of conjunctions. The conjunctive cohesive devices include conjunctions and disjuncts while lexical cohesive devices include repetition, synonyms and antonyms. Reference and repetition are relevant to this study and as explained in section 2.2.7 under contextual devices and section 4.2 under propositional discourse strategies respectively.

2.4.5 Cohesive devices in Discourse and Academic Discourse

Communication such as that in lectures hinges upon different devices that give it coherence. The study on coherence devices has involved different labels. The most used cover term for coherence devices is the term discourse connectors. Biber (2006:66) defines discourse connectors as devices

used to bridge between turns (in speech) and sentences, indicating the logical relations among the parts of a discourse, and providing an interpretative framework for the listener or reader. Accordingly, Biber (2006:66) distinguishes two types of discourse connectors, discourse markers and linking adverbials. Discourse markers (cf. Schiffrin 1987) have received different labelling such as discourse connectives, discourse operators, pragmatic connectives, sentence connectives, and cue phrases (Fraser, 1999:931). Others have referred to them as discourse particles (cf. Zeevat, 2000; Stede & Schimitz, 2000). They are lexical items that are syntactically independent, have no particular grammatical function, do not change the meaning of an utterance, and are somehow semantically bleached (cf. Biber, 2006; Lee, 2004). In the following section, I present some literature on discourse markers in relation to the aim of the current study.

2.4.6 Discourse Markers

This study specifically focuses on discourse markers that lecturers at the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction to achieve coherence and thus facilitate topic prominence and continuation. It is argued that discourse markers are restricted primarily to spoken registers and include words such as *ok*, *well*, *so*, and *now* (cf. Biber, 2006:66). In contrast, linking adverbials are found in both spoken and written registers and include words that function to express different relationships between ideas. The most common types of relationship between ideas are those showing addition such as *moreover*, *in addition*, *additionally*, *further*, *further to this*, *also*, *besides*, and *what is more*. Others are those that show contrast such as *however*, *on the other hand*, *in contrast*, and *yet*. Others show concession such as *although*, *even though*, *despite the fact that*, *in spite of the fact that*, and *regardless of the fact that*. Others show reason such as *because*, *since*, *as*, and *insofar as*. Others show results such as *therefore*, *consequently*, *in consequence*, *as a result*, *accordingly*, *hence*, *thus*, *for this reason*, and *because of this* (cf. Biber, 2006:66). Concerning discourse markers *so* and *now*, Biber observes that in spoken university registers *so* is very common and it functions to emphasize a point. (Biber, 2006:66), while *now* is used to initiate a new topic to facilitate topic progression (Biber, 2006:69). With that background, because this study analysed spoken language, it focused on discourse markers in the sense of Schiffrin's description. It specifically analysed two prominent discourse markers namely *so* and *now*. Schiffrin (1987:49) argues that analysing discourse markers is part of the more general analysis of discourse coherence that is to ascertain how speakers and hearers jointly integrate to form meanings and actions to make overall sense out of what is said. Studies on the functions of *so*

and *now* indicate that the two discourse markers play a very important role in facilitating discourse cohesion and topic continuation (cf. Cuenca, 2008; Andersen, 2000; Fraser 1999).

2.4.7 Contextual cohesive devices in Discourse and Academic Discourse

As noted above, communication such as that in lectures flows by use of different cohesive devices. This section presents contextual cohesive devices that speakers use to create context for their utterances to facilitate their interpretation. Contextual coherence devices mainly function to index the relationship between a speaker and hearer in a specific context. Grundy (2000:18) refers to this property of a small set of words such as personal pronouns, place and time adverbials that assist in the interpretation of an utterance with reference to the context in which they are uttered, as deixis. Accordingly, Grundy (2000:26-31) presents three major types of deictic markers namely, person markers, which are marked by personal pronouns such as (I, you, we), place markers, which are marked by place adverbials such as (here, there), and time markers, which are marked through adverbials of time such as (now, then). Although in lectures one can find many instances of all the three types of deictic markers, this study focused on those that index personal relationship between the lecturer, students and subject matter. More discussion of these elements will be provided in chapter four under structural discourse strategies. In section 3.4.8, I provide an overview on the analysis of classroom discourse.

2.4.8 Analysing classroom discourse

The analysis of classroom discourse has become a prominent topic of academic interest to researchers in many parts of the world (cf. Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Christie, 2002; Gumperz, 1982, 2001; Edwards & Westgate, 1994; Goodwin & Heritage, 1990; Cazden, 1988; Lemke, 1990). Edwards and Westgate (1994:3) observe that this growing body of researchers on the language of classroom interaction has been not only in terms of their academic or professional orientation but also in terms of the models they have proposed to use in approaching its investigation, as well as the goals they have sought to achieve. Christie (2002) clarifies that the endeavour has involved researchers from fields such as ethnography, linguistics (pure, applied and educational) and psychology, with different resultant models.

2.4.8.1 *Historical account*

Historically, classroom discourse analysis as an academic endeavour has been a major theme in many fields of linguistic research, applied linguistics and educational linguistics (Christie, 2002).

According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), the history of the academic interest in the language of classroom interaction dates back to the 1940s. They specifically remark that in the English-speaking world for instance, the interest may have begun in the early 1960s and 1970s. Later the technological invention of the tape recorder and the emergence of video recording facilities propelled further the interest by facilitating easy access to and analysis of talk (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975:5).

Wragg (1999:8) clarifies that although it seems that the origin of many classroom observation approaches are in the early 20th century, there are examples of systematic approaches even before this time. For example, Wragg (1999:8) notes that in Greece in the 2nd century Dionysius of Thrace laid down the steps to follow when teaching a literary work. In Rome Cicero and Quintilian analysed teaching in detail, giving influential prescriptions on delivering a lecture or asking learners to write sentences in the style of the writer under study. In China in the 5th century one of the best-known teachers, Confucius, observed his own teaching practices and accentuated the difference between his duty as a teacher and the duty of learners (Wragg, 1999:8).

2.4.8.2 *Research on classroom discourse*

The interest in research on classroom discourse began in the 1980s (Duff, 2007; Schleppegrell, 2009). Duff (2007:1) discerns three approaches that have been involved in the endeavour. The first one is the survey approach, which sought to establish lecturers' expectations in their courses. It worked through interviews, questionnaires and review of syllabi. The second one is discourse analysis by which scrutiny was on text and move structure in journal articles in order to compare the way abstracts, introductions, discussion sections and conclusions were written. The third approach is functional linguistics (systemic functional linguistics) by which analysis was on textbooks and classroom discourse with focus on the language of cause-effect and nominalisation. However, all the three types of approaches predispose themselves towards the written discourse (Duff, 2007:1). Schleppegrell (2009:4) maintains that "while academic language is sometimes contrasted with spoken language, it is more appropriate to contrast academic language with 'everyday' language, as academic language is both spoken and written" In this regard, this study focused on the spoken academic discourse inherent in classroom discourse evolving from lectures.

2.4.8.3 *The structure of classroom discourse*

The general structure of classroom discourse has three phases namely opening, body and closing (Meierkord, 1998). Christie (2002:4) reports that studies on the structure of classroom discourse

have involved both linguists and non-linguists. Non-linguist pioneers include Flanders (1970) who sought to establish how teacher talk in the classroom influences learner's achievement. He focused on discourse strategies such as 'questioning', 'directing' and 'accepting of feelings'. Equally, Bellack et al. (1966) sought to establish how one could map hierarchically the structure of classroom discourse. The result was a structure consisting of four units of analysis namely (i) game (ii) sub-game (iii) cycle and (iv) Move.

Linguists on the other hand, include Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), who borrowed from Halliday's theory of scale and category grammar (cf. Halliday, 1961) and developed a model of classroom discourse that involved a hierarchical series of ranks and levels namely Lesson, Transaction, Exchange Move and Act. After adopting features of 'Move' from Bellack et al. (1966), they further sub divided it into four types of 'Move'. These are (i) soliciting, which is seeking verbal or nonverbal response (ii) response, which is a reciprocal relation to the soliciting move (iii) structuring, which is the setting of a pedagogic activity, and (iv) reacting, which is a move undertaken in reaction to any of the other three moves. The expansion on 'Move' led into the formulation of what is known as Initiation Response Feedback (IRF) pattern which Later, Mehan (1979) described as Initiation Response Evaluation (IRE) pattern. This pattern, though not so anticipated in a lecture method typical of the target population, it provides a valuable framework for analysing classroom discourse as unfolds during the interaction between lecturers and students at the University of Dare s salaam.

Specifically, classroom talk as a structured experience has mostly involved ethnographers (cf. Mehan, 1979; Heath, 1983; Cazden, 1988, 2001). Others are linguists (cf. Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Christie, 2002:5) notes that although these two schools of thought work in a similar situation, they differ in terms of goals. For example, while both ethnographers and linguists are interested in the language used in the classroom, ethnographers go beyond language by also observing other aspects of behaviour into which students and teachers engage (Christie, 2002:5). According to Mehan (1979:126), they venture into aspects such as routines and rules, physical dispositions of participants in the classroom interaction and movement during the day. In summary Widdowson (1990:180-190) describes the structure of classroom talk as follows: it lacks balance between teachers and students because teachers dominate in organising the talk, allocating turns, managing the topic and provision of content. Resultantly, it becomes characterised by unequal distribution of power (cf. Cazden, 2001; McHoul, 1990, 1978; Goffman, 1981). This characterisation of is inherent in the observed lectures as I will explain further in chapter four and five.

2.4.8.4 *Functions of classroom discourse*

Many scholars have emphasized the importance of communication in a classroom because it is relevant to the learning process, be it in a monolingual or multilingual context. This is because both the classroom discourse and the language in which it is undertaken equally matter (cf. Smit, 2010:33). Since the basic purpose of schooling is achieved through communication (cf. Cazden, 2001:2), classroom discourse can be described as a prototypical form of institutional talk embedded in and shaping the pedagogical goals of formal education (Smit, 2010:31). A classroom session such as a lecture is thus characterised by interactional social activities practiced orally to co-construct continuously evolving and co-existing discursive structures (Heras, 1994:295). Therefore, classrooms are central cells of schooling, an important process in a nation's macro developments and national budgets (Smit, 2010:20; Christie, 2002:2). Thus classroom discourse forms one specific kind of language social activity, which is in turn, is affected by the language involved, which comprises three sub-languages namely the language used in the teaching and learning process, the language being taught as subject and the languages of daily communication (Dalton-Puffer, 2007).

Gumperz (1982:1) views communication as a purposeful action rather than a mere production of well-formed sentences. The insights gained from previous studies on academic discourse were vital in investigating how lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam make use of discourse resources available to them to achieve the activity goals of teaching. Wells (1996:74) observes that although classroom interaction mainly occurs through spoken discourse, the relationship between the discourse and the activity goals it is intended to achieve is rarely scrutinised or treated as a matter of conscious choice. For example, it is generally noted that teachers dominate talk in a typical classroom interaction (Cazden, 2001; McHoul, 1978; Goffman, 1981). However, teacher dominance in talk during classroom interaction could be regarded as a means and not an end in itself. This is because verbal communication in such a setting is not primarily a means of domination, but is ideally taken as a means towards the achievement of knowledge transfer and skills development (Wells, 1996:75). This idea is supported by Fairclough (2001:27-28) who regards institutional interactions such as classroom interaction as social practices which include four dialectically related elements namely the productive activity, the means of production, the social relations, and social identities.

Wells (1996:75) regards classroom interaction as a joint activity, which involves three things. These are the activity itself, which is identified by the motive or objective that provides its driving force

such as the goal of educating. Another is the action, which entails the means by which the activity is translated into reality, such as the delivery of a lesson. The last is operation, which involves the particular means that participants use to achieve the goal of action, such as the different strategies that participants employ when they realise that the goal is not appropriately attained (Wells, 1996:76). These characteristics of classroom interaction compose the context that determines academic achievement of students (cf. Leibowitz, 2005:661ff).

Since learning is a socialisation process that is mediated by language (Ochs, 1986:3), teachers are charged with creating the conditions for successful socialization of learners. In that endeavour, teachers need strategies that help them coordinate academic task structure and social participation structure (Erickson, 1982; Michaels & O'Connor, 1993). However, this coordination is undertaken with a view toward a larger goal: the creation of a shared classroom culture that facilitates students' engagement with the relevant academic content (O'Connor & Michaels, 1993:318).

2.5 BILINGUALISM AND BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Corson (1990:159) notes that bilingualism is a common phenomenon in many countries. He reports situations such as East Africa, India and China where many people learn more than one language from their earliest days of their life. He further comments that not only is bilingualism common, but also multilingualism is the norm in many bilingual societies. In this respect, Corson (1990:159) notes the presence of more than 130 languages on the Congo River in West Africa, which overlap with one another in different contexts. Moreover, he reports that in Papua New Guinea, people with advanced higher education might have learnt up to five or six languages, with English, the medium of instruction, coming last in the list. However, Corson (1993:72, 1990:160ff) acknowledges the impossibility of having a balanced bilingualism situation by arguing that most bilingual speakers use the weaker languages for limited purposes in specialised activities such as commerce, education or work, meaning that they cannot operate in both languages with equal proficiency in daily settings.

The following sections provide an overview of bilingualism and bilingual education in relation to how the concepts contribute to the understanding of classroom practices by bilingual teachers.

2.5.1 Bilingualism

Definitions of the concept 'bilingualism' have varied among researchers and theoreticians (cf. Hamers & Blanc, 2000; Cummins & Swain, 1986). They range from a native-like competence in two languages to a minimal proficiency in the second language; thus lacking precision and

operationalism. Most of these definitions ignore non-linguistic dimensions of language use (Hamers & Blanc, 2000:7).

Moreover, Cummins and Swain (1986:7) categorise the definitions of the concept 'bilingualism' into three major features. These are features such as language users, language acquisition and domain of language use. Scholars under the first category include for example, Macnamara (1967) who defines a bilingual as a person who possesses at least one of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) even at a minimal level in their second language. Another scholar is Ostreicher (1974) who defines a bilingual as a person who possesses a complete mastery of two different languages without interference between the two. The last is Bloomfield (1933) who defines a bilingual as a person with a native-like control of two or more languages.

Scholars in the second category include Osgood and Sebeok (1965) who define a bilingual with regard to the age of second language acquisition (simultaneous versus sequential, early versus late) and Stern (1973) who defines a bilingual in terms of the context of acquisition of the two languages (compound versus coordinate, artificial versus natural). The last category in the list include scholars such as Fishman (1968) and Oksaar (1983) who define a bilingual in terms of the domains in which he or she uses language. The last category bears relevance with this study as is elaborated in the following section.

2.5.2 Bilingual Education

As it is the case for bilingualism, defining bilingual education is equally a complex endeavour. Some people regard it as education offered to students who are already speakers of two languages or education of those who are studying additional languages (García, 2009:5). However, scholars view that there should be a distinction between bilingual education and foreign language teaching. For example, Nemetz Robinson (1978) states that:

Bilingual education is distinguished from foreign or second language education, including the study of community languages, in that bilingual education is the use of a non-dominant language as the medium of instruction during some part of the schooling day (Nemetz Robinson, 1978:8).

With regard to the role of language in bilingual education, García (2009:22) argues that central to bilingual education is the concept 'language' itself because language is both the medium through which school subjects are taught and is also an important subject studied in schools. Building on Nemetz Robinson's (1978) idea, García (2009:126) clearly distinguishes between bilingual

education and language programmes by stating "... bilingual education uses the target language as the medium of instruction whereas language programmes simply teach the language as a subject".

The above distinction implies a lot about bilingual education programmes in situations where the language that many students are fluent in does not acquire the status of LoI. It better suits societies with immigrant communities who form minority language speakers groups. These minority language minorities fall under three categories. According to Corson (1993:73), the first category is the 'ancestral' language minorities such as the Maori, and American Indians. The second category is the 'established' minority languages such as the Catalans in Spain, the Canadian Francophone communities in Ontario. The third category is the 'new' minority languages such as those of legal immigrants, refugees, foreign workers and expatriates.

Regarding the social attributes associated with bilingual education, García (2009:22) observes that it regularly takes place in languages with disparate power and positions. The situation is true in the higher education system in Tanzania that does not allow Kiswahili, the dominant language; to play the role of LoI instead allows English, the non-dominant language, to do so. The major discrepancy is that in Tanzania English does not only function as LoI, it is also a curriculum subject. Corson (1993:71) argues in favour of a minority language that, "... when a language spoken by a minority is not used in schooling either as a means of instruction or as a curriculum subject, then it means that the language is not valued". This implies that in Tanzania English is valued for its use as LoI in post-primary education. Corson (1993:72) further comments "... an education system serving a multicultural society but providing only monolingual schooling exercises power unjustly, or is being used to exercise power unjustly". This assertion rightly reflects the situation in Tanzania although this study does not seek to investigate the interplay between language and power in Tanzania.

Any educational policy needs to specify its goals, approaches and target level of schooling. In relation to that requirement, Genesee (2004:2) defines bilingual education at three levels, linguistic goals, pedagogical approaches and levels of schooling. Essentially bilingual education refers to the programmes prepared for majority and minority language students (Genesee, 2004; Blanc & Hamers, 2000; Cummins & Swain, 1986). The majority language students who enrol in the programmes are members of the dominant socio-cultural groups such as the case of English in Canada and North America (Cummins & Swain, 1986:33) and Japanese in Japan (Hamers & Blank, 2000:7). The minority language students who enrol in schools are members of minority language groups such as the case of Spanish in the United States of America (Genesee, 2004:2). Generally Bilingual education aims to promote bilingual or multilingual competence by using both or all

languages as media of instruction for significant proportions (50%) of the academic curriculum (Genesee, 2004:2). The following section comprises a description of different models of bilingual education.

2.5.3 Models of bilingual education

Scholars in different places of the world have proposed different bilingual education models for different populations with varying needs and motives. With regard to goals and outcomes of bilingual education, Roberts (1995:371) specifies that bilingual education operates within specified goals and expected outcomes, and he identifies three types of such goals namely, national or societal, linguistic or educational. The national or societal goals can be either assimilationist or pluralistic. Linguistic goals include such constructs as language acquisition and language learning while educational goals include practices such as immersion and submersion schooling. Equally, the outcomes can be either additive bilingualism by which a second language is added to the first and both languages are maintained or subtractive bilingualism by which the addition of the second language results into loss of the features of the first language (García, 2009:52). This situation prevails in Tanzania where most children lose some of their mother tongue skills as they enrol into primary school where they acquire Kiswahili during primary school education because the policy favours it as LoI. Thereafter, after completing primary school education they lose Kiswahili skills as the policy favours English as LoI throughout secondary school up to university level. The literature on bilingual education presents various terminologies for the different bilingual education models in operation. The following sections describe six models namely immersion bilingual education model, submersion bilingual education model, transitional bilingual education model, maintenance bilingual education model, pullout and sheltered bilingual education model, and enrichment bilingual education model. Thereafter, the models are collapsed into two models in the manner of Garcia (2009) before they are discussed in relation to higher education.

2.5.3.1 *Immersion Bilingual Education*

Edwards (2004:138) observes that historically this model resulted from a small group of parents in St. Lambert suburb of Montreal in the 1960s. The parents, after realising that the proficiency in English would soon be essential for future economic survival, they decided to consult with scholars of bilingualism from McGill University who then proposed a model for immersion of English-speaking children in French for the first years of schooling. Edwards (2004:138) further reports that the model operated by a gradual introduction of the majority language (English) until half of the

curriculum became English and half became French. It was speculated that the model would cater for both ancestral and established languages for the benefit of English speakers.

Regarding the goals and outcomes of the model, Roberts (1995:377) observes that they depend on how the immersion takes place. If it happens with the majority English speakers learning a minority language, the goal of immersion bilingual education becomes pluralistic and the outcome becomes additive bilingualism. In contrast, if it happens with the minority English speakers learning the majority language, the goal of immersion bilingual education becomes assimilationist and the outcome becomes subtractive bilingualism.

Because this model does not practise grammar translation, repetition and drills, it helps strengthen the concepts taught in one language across the two languages in order to provide cognitive challenge (cf. Thomas & Collier, 1997). Other values are that the model provides development of dual language skills that cater for the need for higher level of competence to read social studies texts or solve mathematics problems in about 5-7 years (cf. Johnson & Swain, 1997). The model also encourages the development of students' native language thus contributing to language heritage and maintenance (cf. Garcia, 2009; Corson, 1993). Lastly, the model allows language minority students to remain in the classroom with their native English-speaking peers, thus availing linguistic and social cultural advantages (Christian, 1996).

2.5.3.2 *Submersion Bilingual Education*

Roberts (1995:372) associates the model with the educational approach of mainstreaming non-native English speaking students into regular English speaking classrooms, particularly in the United States of America. The goal of the model is assimilative since it intends to have the non-native speaker learn English and assimilate to North American society. The model's outcome is subtractive bilingualism because it does not support the first language thus resulting into its loss. This model has a number of psychological disadvantages including students feeling marginalised and consequently dropping out (Roberts, 1995:372).

2.5.3.3 *Transitional Bilingual Education*

Roberts (1995:374) observes that this model provides content area in the student's native language while teaching him or her English. The goal of the model is assimilationist while the outcome is subtractive bilingualism. The advantage of this model is that it facilitates a quick transition to the mainstream English only classroom and it allows students to use their primary language as a vehicle

to develop literacy skills and acquisition of academic skills in the primary language (Roberts, 1995:374).

2.5.3.4 *Maintenance Bilingual Education*

Roberts (1995:374) notes that this model differs from the previous models in both goals and outcomes. As in transitional programmes, this model transits learners into English content classes while giving support to them in their first language. The difference from the other models is that maintenance bilingual education model offers language arts to learners in their first language thus enabling them to become literate in that language while continuing to receive content area classes in their first language so that they become literate in both languages. The goal of the model is to promote bilingualism and bi-literacy and because it promotes development of both languages, its outcome is additive bilingualism (Roberts, 1995:374).

2.5.3.5 *Enrichment Bilingual Education*

Roberts (1995:375) refers to this model as a two-way, or developmental bilingual education model. This model, particularly in the United States, involves both native and non-native speakers of English in the same classes in the early stages contrary to the case for immersion programmes in Canada. Therefore, in this model, there is a balance between minority language and majority language students and instruction is in both languages with the non-English language, taking half of the time (Edwards, 2004:139). Like maintenance bilingual education, enrichment bilingual education has a pluralistic goal, the development of bilingual and bi-literate individuals while retaining the value of both languages. The outcome is additive bilingualism for both minority and majority language speakers (Roberts, 1995:375). The advantage of the model is the promotion of high academic achievement, second language development and cross-cultural understanding (Edwards, 2004:139).

2.5.3.6 *English as Second Language (ESL) Pullout and the ESL Sheltered Model*

Last in the list of Roberts (1995) models of bilingual education is the combination of two models. The first one pulls out students of other classes in order to offer them English as a second language class. The other model is the one that combines ESL and content area classes. Time duration in the former model may range from twenty minutes to several hours of contact (Roberts, 1995:373). Like submersion and transitional models, ESL Pullout model has assimilationist goal with additive bilingualism outcome (Roberts, 1995:373). As for the case of the latter model, ESL and teaching of

the combined areas is by trained ESL subject area teachers or a team thus the model provides more accessibility to the classes than in the mainstream (Roberts, 1995:373). Additionally, there is the use of additional materials, bilingual aides, and adapted texts and so on in order to facilitate acquisition of both content and language by students of diverse language backgrounds (Roberts, 1995:373). As is the case for submersion, transitional and ESL Pullout models, ESL sheltered model is also assimilationist with a resultant subtractive bilingualism outcome (Roberts, 1995:373).

In summary, all the models fall under two distinctive categories as either pluralistic or assimilationist with their respective outcomes as additive bilingualism or subtractive bilingualism. Except for the immersion model, which can be either pluralistic or assimilationist depending on the mode of immersion (majority language speakers into minority language speakers and vice versa), others, that is submersion, transitional, and the ESL Pullout and ESL Sheltered models are purely assimilationist while maintenance and enrichment models are purely pluralistic.

According to García (2009), all the models described above can fall into two major groups, traditional and modern. Traditional models are additive and subtractive while modern ones are recursive and dynamic. As mentioned above (cf. 2.5.3), additive bilingual models result into additional language while subtractive models result into loss of former language skills or features. Recursive bilingualism occurs through a revitalisation of once suppressed practices, such as for example, the case at the University of Dar es Salaam whereby Kiswahili is gaining more public spaces even in academic affairs such as workshops and writing of dissertations. Lastly, dynamic bilingualism occurs when different form of language shift and bounce back depending on the context in which language use develops and functions.

Although the models of bilingualism and bilingual education described above pedagogically relate mostly to language teaching and at mostly lower levels of education particularly in the early years of life, they practically embody a lot of preparatory value that later in life of an individual can help him or her find way in and play a role in higher education. Views on higher education, as it is the case for other constructs such as bilingualism, bilingual education and so on, are prolific. For example, Marginson (2006:1) views higher education as a complex combination of different types of networks and educational systems in different historical, legal, cognitive, financial, spatial and temporal contexts shared within and cross borders and shaped by competition.

Moreover, bilingualism and bilingual education relate to higher education in that they provide a foundation to an individual for an envisaged challenge that lies ahead of him or her in terms of the influence of the world's affairs such as economics, politics and education itself. Illustrating the situation in which higher education is today, Marginson and Rhoads (2002:282) contend:

In our view, the world in which we now live takes us beyond the conceptual confines of current comparative higher education scholarship. Today, higher education in every corner of the globe is being influenced by global economic, cultural, and educational forces, and higher education institutions themselves (as well as units and constituencies within them), are increasingly global actors, extending their influence across the world. Moreover, the political, economic, and educational contours of countries (and of regions and continents), are being reshaped by regional trading blocs that lead higher education to become more similar across national boundaries and more active in regional markets. Finally, at the same time, these global forces press upon higher education, the legitimacy of nation states and of national higher education systems that express national cultures are being challenged by movements to preserve and promote local cultural identity and independence. The prevailing model and concepts neither capture nor explain these dimensions of higher education.

Bilingual education programmes in higher education are being implemented in different parts of the world. For example, since the year 2003 in South Africa there has been an additive bilingualism programme at the University of Limpopo. The programme provides a BA degree in Contemporary English Language and Multilingual Studies. The Contemporary English Language Studies component is taught and assessed in Sesothosa Leboa while the Multilingual Studies component is taught and assessed in English (Joseph & Raman, 2006:4). As Genesee (2004:1) remarks, worldwide, competence in more than one language is an issue of personal, socio-cultural, economic or political significance. Thus, this reality attracts different views about bilingualism. Some people view it as a problem to be overcome while others view it as a challenge that should be managed to benefit individuals, communities or even nations. Since in the modern world bilingual and multilingual skills are becoming more necessary than ever before, schools have an important role to play in providing such skills Genesee (2004:1).

The definition of a bilingual according to the domain of language use (Fishman, 1968) is relevant to the goal of this study. The goal is to investigate how bilingual speakers such as university lecturers use language in the academic domain to attain the academic goal of teaching mostly majority language (Kiswahili) speaker students who are learning in a minority language (English). Specifically, the study focuses on how the lecturers utilise their bilingual competence in the endeavour of teaching. Genesee (2004:2) uses the term bilingual competence to refer to the ability

to use the target language effectively and appropriately for authentic personal, educational, social and work related purposes.

2.6 ENGLISH AS LINGUA FRANCA (ELF)

The English language is increasingly holding a global position in almost all aspects of human life because of economic, academic and social benefits associated with it. This influence of the English language manifests itself not only in former British colonial societies but also in once culturally closed societies such as Asian countries. The following sections describe the history, influence and interest in the phenomenon of English as lingua franca in many parts of the world where intercultural communication is required.

2.6.1 History and definition

House (2003:557) traces the origin of the term lingua franca to the Arabic term 'lisan-al-farang', a term that originally Arabs and Western European traders used to communicate. Later its meaning broadened to describe the language of commerce, which is a rather stable variety with little room for individual variation. However House (2003:557) Notes that the meaning is not applicable to the global English of today acclaimed for its functional flexibility and spread across many different domains.

As regards the definition, Mauranen (2003:513) defines a lingua franca as "a vehicular language spoken by people who do not share a native language" while Jenkins (2008:4) simply defines it as a way of communicating in English between speakers who have different languages. Jenkins (2008) finds that ELF differs with English as Foreign Language (EFL) in four major ways. Firstly, while EFL belongs to the group of foreign languages, ELF belongs to a group called world Englishes. Secondly, while EFL regards the English of non-native speakers of English as defective, ELF regards the same as a difference. Thirdly, while EFL uses the metaphors of 'transfer', 'interference' and 'fossilisation', ELF uses the metaphors of 'contact' and 'evolution', and lastly, while EFL regards code-switching and code mixing as interference errors, ELF regards them as bilingual resources.

2.6.2 Influence of English as lingua franca

There is a notably rapid growth in international contacts and communication in recent years in almost all domains ranging from politics, trade and technology to tourism, education, entertainment and the internet (Kaur, 2010:111). According to Kaur (2010:111), this situation has necessitated a

need for a common language for successful communicative outcomes with English as the language preferred by a great majority of the people involved in international interactions. Crystal (2003) and Jenkins (2003) observe that this choice is not only understandable but also expected. This is in view of its position as a "global language" (Crystal, 2003) and an "international language" (Jenkins, 2003). Björkman (2008:103) further comments that English today is frequently used as an international means of communication among its non-native speakers from different first language backgrounds and research on ELF has already revealed commonalities and common processes from a variety of settings. Björkman (2008) thus recommends for a continued research and description of lingua franca usage in different environments.

Nonetheless, Kaur (2010:192) reveals a pending question despite the rapid growth in international contacts worldwide, with English increasingly becoming the chosen medium to facilitate communication among people of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The question regards how non-native speakers of English of varying levels of proficiency and who use different varieties of English, are able to arrive at mutual understanding in this medium. This question also bears the interest of the current study.

2.6.3 Interest in English as Lingua Franca

Mauranen (2003) summarised the interest in ELF research that has developed recently due to global use of English in virtually all public domains, under three major categories. These are (i) a theoretical interest in the structure and use of ELF in different domains, (ii) a descriptive approach which pays attention to distinguishing features of the form and functions of ELF, and (iii) applications of new insight regarding ELF to specific domains, such as the domain of higher education. Theoretical ELF studies take an interest in the nature of English as contact or vehicular language that generally emerges where interlocutors do not share a first language. When English is an L2 to one or more of the interlocutors, it would at some point have been formally taught to the interlocutors. When it is used as a lingua franca, English is characterised by simplification and negotiation features, which interlocutors apply to approximate what they believe to be acceptable patterns of the language (Mauranen, 2003:515). The descriptive studies take an interest in the core elements of English in ELF such as the standard syntactic, phonological and semantic elements that interlocutors assume to be inherent in British and American varieties of English (Mauranen, 2003:516). Lastly, applications of insights in ELF entail the integration of theoretical and descriptive work on ELF. In this endeavour, it deems necessary to set achievable learning goals through educational goals themselves and people's language rights as well as efficiency. That is, firstly,

educational practices should allow speakers of a foreign language to comfortably speak it and secondly, there should be no attempts to set a Native Speaker model for international users as this sounds both counterproductive and unachievable (Mauranen, 2003:517). In applied fields such as the present study, McCarthy (2001) suggests that it would be important to identify other standards than Native Speakers standards and work to identify the criteria for English use in different cultural contexts. The assumption guiding this study was that lecturers' language competence differed significantly with that of students, hence the possibility of lecturers attempting to modify it to suit the level of their students.

2.6.4 Studies on English as Lingua Franca

The number of studies on the use of English as lingua franca in different situations is large enough to allow one to describe the attention scholars are directing towards the analysis of the influence of English in the world. For example, Firth (1996) conducted a study on turn taking, sequential relations and topic management in telephone conversations among employees of companies in Denmark. Meierkord (2000) conducted a study on the structure of discourse, particularly the use of turn taking and non-verbal cues in university student dinner small talk conversation while Lesznyák (2002) analysed the development of topic management skills in interactions in meetings among international students. Others have studied the use of pronouns and modal verbs as solidarity strategies among university lecturers (Milne, 2006), a study on how repetition and questioning help in the signalling and prevention of misunderstanding (Maurannen, 2006). There is also a study on repetition, paraphrase and various confirmation and clarification procedures as communication strategies for achieving mutual understanding among students pursuing an international Master's degree at a university level (Kaur, 2010). Further studies include the study on discourse pragmatic patterns in discourse among international students of Hotel Management (Smit, 2010) and the study on code switching in academic discussions during a conference (Klimfingler, 2007). The last set is of the study on phonological features which cause intelligibility problems and those which do not (Jenkins, 2000); and the study on morpho-syntactic non-native usage features from university students' work group sessions and lectures at university level (Björkman, 2008).

The studies described above bear both difference and similarity with the present study in many ways. For example, while all analyse spoken discourse as this study does, some are in academic settings (Meierkord, 2000; Lesznyák, 2002; Milne, 2006; Maurannen, 2006; Klimfingler, 2007; Kaur, 2010; Smit, 2010) while others are in non-academic settings (Firth, 1996; Jenkins, 2000). Among those investigating ELF in academic settings, some involved the uses of English by non-

native foreign students alone (Kaur, 2010; Meierkord, 2000) while others involved such language use by students and lecturers (Björkman, 2008; Smit, 2008, 2010; Klimfingher, 2007; Milne, 2006).

The studies that relate to the present one are specific in terms of the nature of data they used as well as the discourse elements they analysed. For example, Smit (2010) focused on discourse pragmatic patterns in a live classroom interaction among international students registered for a Hotel Management course. The aspect of discourse on which Smit's study focussed, was the use of repair in ELF. Second, Kaur (2010) established how repetition and paraphrase function as discourse strategies to facilitate understanding among users of ELF. Third, Maurannen (2006) study established how the use of repetition and questioning could signal and subsequently assist in preventing misunderstanding. Fourth, Klimfingher (2007) investigated how speakers in academic settings code-switch to facilitate communication, and lastly Milne (2006) established how university lecturers use modal verbs, adverbs, qualifiers, hedges and pronouns as solidarity strategies.

2.6.5 English as a lingua franca in academic discourse

Björkman (2011:950) remarks that English has become the overwhelmingly dominant language in a large number of domains today, among them being academia. A similar idea is put forward by Haberlandt (2011:937) who observes that English is a very special language in that it has many more non-native speakers than native speakers, and that it is used in far more settings where there are no native speakers present than settings occupied largely by native speakers. Haberlandt (2011:937) points out that many of these settings are within contexts of higher education, due to increased transnational student mobility, university teacher mobility and offshore delivery of university education.

Björkman (2011) conducted a study on spoken English as a lingua franca (ELF) usage in Swedish higher education that involved lectures and student group-work to investigate the role pragmatic strategies play in the communicative effectiveness of English as a lingua franca. Findings showed that lecturers in ELF settings make less frequent use of pragmatic strategies than students who deploy these strategies frequently in group-work sessions. Previous studies (Björkman, 2010, 2008a, 2008b,) showed that students experienced problems in the use of standard forms of English at morphosyntactic level although the problems did not have a negative effect on the students' group work.

From the above exposition, it is obvious that in academic settings the role of English has become deeply entrenched. It is not only a language used in accommodating foreign nationals at

international universities; it is also used in academic writing to the extent that most scholarly journals worldwide publish research outcomes in English only. The execution of academic affairs in countries with people who are not native speakers of the language has become so well-established that instead of attempting to replace EFL, it would be better to foster it, also considering how it can be integrated in a bilingual educational system where local languages have at least a facilitating function.

2.7 REPETITION AS PRACTICE IN CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

Literature on classroom discourse analysis indicates that there are various types of repetition. Three major such types are 'self repetition', by which the speaker repeats whole or part of his or her own previous discourse (cf. Allwood et al., 1990; Leftein & Snell, 2011), 'other repetition', by which the speaker repeats whole or part of the respondent's discourse (cf. Knutson, 2010). The third is 'resumptive repetition', by which the speaker resumes to a previous discourse after some sort of discourse digression (cf. Quick, 2007). With regard to function, Tannen (1989:47ff) regards repetition as an unmarked communicative behaviour that enables speakers to communicate smoothly and at the same time reduces the load of information listeners have to process. Concerning teacher self-repetition, Viaño and Conejos, (1996:129) emphasise that repetition in classroom interaction is just as functional and communicative as it is in other less structured kinds of discourse. They further note that teachers repeat themselves in order to increase the amount of input especially when giving information and correcting (Viaño & Conejos, 1996:133). Knutson (2010:15) finds that repetition has a massive contribution to a successful interaction. Viaño and Conejos, (1996:134) present a list of the functions of teacher self-repetition. According to them, teacher self-repetition functions to achieve cohesion, to perform self-repair, to fill gaps, to emphasise a point to provide and ask for information, and to facilitate turn taking. Quick (2007:1), similarly considering the functions of repetition, just collapses all the separately identified functions of repetition into two main actions, namely as ones serving to give prominence and achieve cohesion.

2.8 QUESTIONING AS A PRACTICE IN CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

Literature on classroom interaction indicates that there are various types of questions based on purpose, form and function. There are two types of questions according to purpose namely display questions, asked when the teacher knows the answer but wants to challenge students' memory and referential questions, asked when the teacher does not know the answer (cf. Long & Sato, 1983; Mehan, 1979). Another popular binary division of questions is based on form and relates to the open

versus closed question types (Barnes, 1969) or, more elaborately, the *yes* versus *no* questions, *wh*-questions, *tag* questions and *alternative* questions (cf. Biber et al., 1999). Lastly, Long and Sato (1983) provide three types of questions in relation to function namely, comprehension check questions, confirmation check questions and clarification check questions. Athanasiadou (1990) expands this division into four types of questions namely information questions, rhetorical questions, examination questions and indirect requests questions.

Regarding levels of questioning, Dalton-Puffer (2007:93) conceptualises questioning at individual and educational levels. At individual level, questioning satisfies an individual's passion to know something while at an educational level it helps synchronise the knowledge needs of large groups of people thus making students aware of previous challenges in the society and how previous generations have solved them. Concerning the function of questioning, it is observed that teachers' use of questions facilitates engagement of learners in the instructional interaction and helps check comprehension of complex concepts by students (cf. McCormick & Donato, 2000:183). Essentially, questioning is taken to form the master key to understanding (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000:81).

Dalton-Puffer (2007:96-97) clarifies that whereas the possible answers for closed ended questions are limited to a simple one word answer thus making them quick and easy to answer, open ended questions allow a more extensive and demanding on the part of the respondent. Dalton-Puffer (2007:97) further observes that closed ended questions relate more with yes/no-, true/false-questions such as in multiple-choice answer. Open-ended questions on the other hand typically begin with *wh*-words. However, she notes the difficulty in attempting to establish a clear-cut demarcation between closed and open-ended questions.

Nevertheless, since most literature on questioning as a discourse strategy is not about classroom interaction in tertiary education (cf. Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya, 2008; Dalton-Puffer, 2007), the data in such studies cannot comparably reflect the occurrence patterns of questioning at a university level. This is because the kind of teaching in lectures does not follow the dialogic teaching style, as is the case for lower levels of education.

According to Tsui (1995:25), teacher questioning plays a special role by boosting classroom interaction through the stimulation of students toward the content elements. In large group lectures, however, listener participation is not easy as there are too many hearers to allow meaningful reciprocal conversational interaction. Then the uninvited participation of a hearer is often taken to be more disruptive than constructive.

2.9 CODE SWITCHING AS PRACTICE IN BILINGUAL COMMUNICATION

Remarkable work on the use of more than one language in teaching and learning, particularly at tertiary level, has recently been added to the literature on teaching and learning in multilingual settings (cf. Banda, 2003; García, 2009). Additionally, linguistic studies on language choice and use that report the regularity of code switching among bilingual teachers have been conducted at both lower level of education (Shin, 2010; Uys, 2010; Rose, 2006; Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya, 2008) and higher levels of education (cf. Taha, 2009; Li, 2008; Zabrodskaia, 2009, 2008, 2007), with comparatively similar results.

Poplack (2001:262) refers to code switching as the act of bilinguals or multilingual speakers of mixing two or more languages in discourse, often with no change in interlocutor or topic. Moreover, (Gumperz, 1982) recognizes code switching as a discourse strategy for bilinguals. Among its functions are to make quotations, to facilitate address specification, to introduce interjections, to assist in making reiterations, to effect message qualification, and to express involvement in the message or social and cultural group in context. Specific to classroom interaction Zabrodskaia (2007:124) observes that bilingual teachers use two languages to teach the academic content. They switch between the languages spontaneously or intentionally. They further may decide when to code switch in order to facilitate comprehension and meaningful involvement (Zabrodskaia, 2007:124).

The studies at tertiary level include the one on code switching between Arabic and English at the University of Khartoum (cf. Taha, 2009), the study on code switching between Cantonese and English at the Hong Kong Institute of Education (Li, 2008), and the study on code switching between Estonian and Russian at Tallinn University (Zabrodskaia, 2009, 2008, 2007). All these studies show that bilingual lecturers use two languages to teach the academic content by switching between the languages spontaneously or intentionally. Specifically the studies show that lecturers use code switching to facilitate comprehension and meaningful involvement of students (Zabrodskaia, 2007:127) and to achieve communicative goals such as effective classroom interaction, topic change and solidarity with students (Taha, 2009:336). The other purpose is to achieve communicative goals, such clarification of difficult concepts, introduction and or consolidation of students' bilingual lexicon, and reduction of social distance with students' in order to assist them psychologically (Li, 2008:84).

2.9.1 Types of Code switching

Gumperz (1982:60) distinguishes two major types of code switching namely situational and conversational code switching as elaborated in the following sections.

2.9.1.1 *Situational code switching*

The situational code switching, sometimes equated with 'diglossia' (Ferguson, 1959) involves alternation between two languages in different situations. These situations differ in terms of three elements. The first is according to the setting of the speech event such as home, school, or work place. The second is according to the activities at hand such as a public speaking or special ceremonials. The third is according to speakers involved in the speech event such as friends, family members or strangers. Notable is the fact that speakers must know more than one language but they employ only one language at a time (Gumperz, 1982:60). Furthermore, the norms for the selection of in situational code switching are stable with taught rules that govern their use (Gumperz, 1982:61).

2.9.1.2 *Conversational code switching*

Gumperz (1982:59) refers to conversational code switching as the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems. It is different from situational code switching because it occurs within a single sentence with the aim to reiterate a message or to reply to someone's comment. Accordingly, Poplack (2001:262) refers to this kind of code switching as intra sentential code switching. Unlike situational code switching, conversational code switching is guided by norms of code selection, rules governing their use and the means of checking for conformity to the norms that form part of the same minimal speech act (Gumperz, 1982:61).

Studies have shown that although code switching and code mixing is actively discouraged in academic settings, teachers in Tanzania have been using it (cf. Mwinyinshehe, 2009). Therefore, it is unlikely that in a context as multilingual as the one at the University of Dar es Salaam, there would be no use of or reference to community languages other than English. Therefore, this study also attended to the possibility of lecturers drawing on or allowing the use (even if just informally) of indigenous languages such as Kiswahili in the course of lectures.

Blommert and Gysels (1987:14-15) reported that in Tanzania Kiswahili-English code switching was a common in-group tendency among the faculty at the University of Dar es Salaam. However, today

the phenomenon is no longer clandestine because, as hinted upon in chapter one, the faculty switch between the two languages even at conferences and seminars.

2.9.2 Code switching in academic discourse

Code switching in academic discourse is a phenomenon that many scholars have studied and documented. The following observation by Lehtonen et al. (1999) clarifies the situation:

Embedded in the idea of teaching through English is that all course-related activities not only reading requirements take place in English: lectures are delivered in English, essays are written in English, required reading is in English and exams are set and taken in English. However, it is likely that the reality does not necessarily correspond with the idea. Many learning-related activities are likely to take place in the native language(s) of the students and teachers. Therefore, teaching through English does not necessarily equal learning solely through English (Lehtonen et al., 1999:2).

From the above definition, one can infer that as Zabrodskaia (2007:127) observes, bilingual teachers use two languages to teach the academic content. They switch between the languages spontaneously or intentionally. They further may decide when to code switch in order to facilitate comprehension and meaningful involvement.

With regard to how code switching occurs in academic discourse, Ljosland (2010) conducted a study about everyday language use at a Norwegian university. The study covered six language use situations namely lectures, lab work, examinations and dissertations, E-learning activities, social interaction, and situations relating to the student democracy such as elections of their representatives. Explaining about the results, Ljosland (2010) argues as follows:

The resulting picture of everyday language use within these situations was that none of the listed activities could be described as being monolingually in English. Lectures were held in English, but surrounding activities such as student discussions and problem solving, student questions and conversations immediately before and after lectures were observed to take place both in Norwegian and in English. Overhead foils and PowerPoint presentations used in lectures were mostly in English, but were observed to contain Norwegian texts now and then (Ljosland, 2010:104).

Furthermore, a study on Cantonese-English mixed code analysing the major reasons why mixed code is so difficult to avoid, both inside and outside the classroom, Li (2008) established that educated Chinese Hongkongers find it difficult to resist using some English in their informal interactions with others in Cantonese, resulting in mixed code Li (2008:1).

Accordingly, Li (2008:1) advises that instead of banning mixed code indiscriminately, a more proactive and productive approach would be to conduct empirical research with a view to (a) better understanding the circumstances under which classroom code-switching is necessary, (b) identifying pedagogically sound and productive code-switching practices, and (c) disseminating good code-switching practices through demonstrations, workshops, and teacher-training Li (2008:1).

2.9.3 Types of code switching

Although not limited to academic discourse, literature documents various types of code switching. For example, Hughes et al. (2006:8) present four types of code switching. The first is borrowing, which is the using of a single word from the embedded language similar grammatically but lacking in the matrix language to explain the meaning that the matrix language does not have. The second type is Calque, which involves a literarily translation of an expression from another language without using a proper syntax. The third type is inter-sentential code switching, which involves alternating languages between sentences, and the fourth is intra-sentential, which involves alternating languages within sentences. In this study, the last two types of code switching were analysed.

2.9.4 Reasons for code switching

Like it is the case for any other speech genre, there are several reasons for code switching (cf. Crystal, 1987; Cook, 2003). These include compensatory code switching, which occurs when a speaker lacks the appropriate term in the matrix language due to psychological factors such as anger, tiredness or distraction. The second is solidarity and or exclusion code switching which occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular group. Another reason for the switching is attitudinal code switching which occurs when an individual wants to express his/her attitude to the listener. Skiba (1997) observes that code switching is not language interference on the basis that it supplements speech. Where it is used due to an inability of expression, code switching provides continuity in speech rather than presenting interference in language.

2.10 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented an overview of the literature pertaining to research relevant to discourse strategies found in classroom discourse. It has presented the conceptual framework by defining the term 'conversation' and then described the conversational features of language use. It provided a

definition for the term 'discourse' followed by a description of the discursive features of language use and discourse types. It also touched on the properties of spoken discourse. It conceptualised the concepts CA and DA as a theoretical framework for this study. The reasons for combined use of CA and DA devices were given. Conversational features and discourse strategies were described, specifically giving a review of work on conversational features of lectures, organisation of lectures, and formal coherence features in discourse. Definitions were given of discourse strategies and their analysis, and specific studies of discourse strategies in the language of classroom interaction, with attention to multilingual contexts, were reviewed. Further relevant literature on the function of English as an academic lingua franca, bilingualism and bilingual education and code switching was introduced. The chapter also described models of bilingual education and elucidated their relevance to higher education. The next chapter describes the research methodology that this study adopted to collect and analyse the data.

Chapter Three

RESEARCH PARADIGM, DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I present a detailed account of how I conducted this study. In section 3.2, I describe the research paradigm adopted. I also explain its meaning, functions, types, distinction and the rationale for the adoption of the research paradigm. In section 3.3, I introduce the research paradigm adopted for this study and I explain its nature and application. In section 3.4, I describe the research design and in section 3.5, I describe the population, sample and sampling procedures adopted in the collection of data. I explicate the data collection process by specifically explaining the interview schedule, sets of data, type of interview conducted, reasons for selecting such a type of interview and the setting for the interviews. I also present the profile of the research participants as well as clarify how I processed and analysed data. I specifically state the sources of data, the transcription process, the organisation of transcripts and the coding process. I close the section by explaining how I interpreted the data. In section 3.6, I report on the ethical considerations that were required for this study and how these were met, and in section 3.7, I present some of the limitations that I encountered while conducting this study. In section 3.8, I provide summary of the chapter.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

3.2.1 Meaning of the term research paradigm

There have been different definitions of the term paradigm in literature on research methodologies (cf. Guba, 1990; Patton, 1990; Kuhn, 1970). The Webster Dictionary has defined it as "an example or pattern; small, self-contained, simplified examples that we use to illustrate procedures, processes and theoretical points" (www.merriam-webster.com). Kuhn (1970:43ff) defines it in terms of the underlying intellectual assumptions and structures that intellectual communities share and upon which they base research and development in a field of inquiry. It has also been defined as a worldview, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world and as an interpretative framework, which is guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied (Guba, 1990:17). These beliefs and feelings are basic in the

sense that they are mere human constructions not open to any conventional proof to establish their truthfulness (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:107-108). The kinds of belief that define a paradigm have been categorised into three types. The first type is identified as ontological beliefs, which are concerned with the question of what is real. The second type is identified as epistemological beliefs, which focus on knowledge and the process of acquiring and validating it. The last type is identified as methodological beliefs, which are concerned with how we come to know about the world or gain knowledge of it (cf. Krauss, 2005; Trochim, 2000).

Moreover, Baptiste (2001:7ff) identifies two more categories of beliefs that distinguish different kinds of paradigms namely beliefs in causality and in axiology. Beliefs regarding causality are ones that refer to the nature and possibility of causal relationships between entities, while beliefs regarding axiology are about issues of value. Value is a crucial aspect of research that has a role that a researcher should scrutinise since values play a role in deciding how to best use research outcomes and products (Baptiste, 2001:8).

3.2.2 Functions of research paradigms

Literature on research methods has documented different functions of research paradigms. For example, Dills and Romiszowski (1997:105ff) present five functions of paradigms. Firstly, paradigms define how the world works, how knowledge can be extracted from this world, and how one is to think, write and talk about this world. Secondly, paradigms define the types of questions to ask and the methodologies to use in answering them. Thirdly, paradigms decide what to publish and what not to publish. Fourthly, paradigms structure the world of academics; and fifthly, paradigms provide insight into the meaning and significance of the world. In summary, Husen (1999:31) remarks that paradigms determine the criteria according to which one selects and defines problems for inquiry and how one approaches them theoretically and methodologically.

3.2.3 Types of research paradigms

As it is the case for the definition of the term paradigm itself, there are various descriptions of research paradigms. Largely, literature refers to two fundamental research paradigms. These are the quantitative and the qualitative research paradigms. The former is referred to as scientific and the latter as interpretative or humanistic (Walker & Evers, 1999:41). On the one hand, the quantitative research paradigm is modelled on the natural sciences with an emphasis on empirical, quantifiable observations, which lend themselves to analyses by means of mathematical tools. Outcomes of quantitative methods leave the researcher with the task of establishing causal relationships to

explain what is statistically represented (Husen, 1999:32). The qualitative research paradigm, on the other hand, derives from the humanities with an emphasis on holistic and qualitative information and interpretive approaches (Husen, 1999:32).

3.2.4 Distinction of research paradigms

Three distinctions of research paradigms are interesting in deciding on a suitable approach for investigating a given question. Firstly, Husen (1999:36) distinguishes between quantitative and qualitative research paradigms by arguing that the quantitative research paradigm is linear, consisting of straightforward rational action toward preconceived problems. Conversely, the qualitative research paradigm leaves room for interpretation and reshaping of the problem during the process of dialogue prior to action and even during action (Husen, 1999:32).

Secondly, Popkewitz (1984:35) presents a three-way distinction of research paradigms. The first is 'Empirical-analytic', which corresponds to the quantitative research paradigm. The second is the 'Symbolic', which corresponds to the qualitative research paradigm, and the third is the 'Critical' paradigm, which the author does not discuss in depth. Generally, a critical approach is one that considers specifically how social power relations are embodied in any context, and it aims to disclose how values are articulated in various systems. It is reflective in that it provides a knowledge that is both enlightening and emancipatory (cf. Geuss, 1981:12).

Thirdly, Lincoln and Guba (1985:105) present the 'Paradigm Eras' distinction. This three-way distinction is based on the periods in which certain sets of basic beliefs have guided inquiry. The eras are the Pre-positivist, Positivist and Post-positivist paradigm eras. According to the Positivist paradigm, science is a value free entity that operates through simple and secure observations while viewing knowledge with exclusion of moral, political and value judgements (Walker & Evers, 1999:42).

From the above exposition there seems to be an obvious link between the positivist view and the quantitative research paradigm. There has been heated debate as to whether quantitative or qualitative research is the more appropriate paradigm for social research. Kerlinger (1973:401) describes qualitative research as deficient because it does not have objectivity, rigor and scientific controls, which can produce the requisite generalisations to build a set of laws of human behaviour. He further finds that it cannot apply adequate tests of validity and reliability. For such a perspective, knowledge has to be value free, while qualitative research (as also critical theoretical research) is value laden. In answer to the criticisms of researchers such as Kerlinger, a qualitative research

approach agrees with the contention of quantitative researchers that it is difficult to capture the knowledge of human affairs by statistical generalisations and causal laws, because such knowledge always has a subjective element. Therefore, it has a different aim, namely to grasp the meanings of actions, the uniqueness of events and the individuality of persons (Walker & Evers, 1999:44).

3.3 THE PRESENT STUDY

This study is a qualitative research project, which corresponds to the definition of (Berg, 2009:317) who defines qualitative research as attending to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols and descriptions of things. It answers questions by examining various social settings and individuals who inhabit these settings. Cassell and Symon (1994:7) present six defining characteristics of any qualitative research. Such research focuses on interpretation rather than quantification. It emphasises subjectivity rather than objectivity. It is flexible in the process of conducting research. It is oriented towards the process rather than the outcome. It is concerned with context, thus it regards behaviour and situation as inextricably linked in forming experience; and finally, it explicitly recognises the impact of the research process on the research situation. For example, this paradigm allows for in-depth research into how people make sense of the way they conduct themselves through symbols, rituals, social structures and social roles. Moreover, it has interpretivist research characteristics (cf. Creswell, 2009; Babbie & Rubin, 2007). Generally, it has a concern for the individual and it seeks to understand the subjective world of an individual's experience (Babbie & Rubin, 2007; Cohen et al., 2001).

As for the relationship between qualitative research and social sciences, interpretivism works with social sciences by dealing with people and their institutions (Bryman, 2001:13). Unlike positivism, which uses quantitative methods to formulate objective procedures for data collection (Babbie & Rubin, 2007:25), interpretivism endeavours to deeply understand people's lives by focusing on their inner feelings while trying to interpret individuals' daily experiences and the idiosyncratic reasons for their behaviours (Babbie & Rubin, 2007:25). It particularly seeks to reflect the distinctiveness of human action rather than emphatically understand the forces that act on the environment (Babbie & Rubin, 2007:25; Bryman, 2001:13). It is therefore suitable for this study due to the nature of data sought and analysed, my main interest being in how lecturers make use of the variety of linguistic resources available to them in the teaching and learning process at a tertiary education level. This study is interested in how, in a very specific multilingual context, certain choices are made and certain strategies are followed, decidedly or intuitively, to manage a remarkable set of communicative challenges. In order to gain an understanding not merely of a list of possible

strategies that can superficially be encountered, but also of how individual responses are articulated and justified, a limited non-representative data sample had to be used. This marks the study as qualitative rather than quantitative.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.4.1 Definition

Different scholars give different definitions of concepts such as paradigm, design, method, and so on, sometimes using these terms interchangeably. For example, what some have referred to as research paradigm, others have referred to it as research design. For instance, Creswell (2009:3) (in considering distinctions similar to those discussed above in section 3.2.3) describes three types of research design namely qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods, yet somewhere else scholars refer to qualitative and quantitative as concepts to be treated as paradigms (cf. Walker & Evers, 1999; Husen, 1999). In this study, I refer to the qualitative versus quantitative approaches as different research designs since my intention is not to participate in what some researchers have referred to as "paradigm wars" (cf. Kohlbacher, 2005:1)

The primary question that I had to answer was whether the particular questions for investigation justify qualitative or quantitative research or both. Neuman (2006:160) observes that qualitative or quantitative research designs are different in many ways but that they complement each other as well. They are not polar opposites or dichotomies; rather they represent different ends in a continuum (Neuman & Benz, 1998:8ff; Creswell, 2009:3).

However, as Creswell (2009:3) recommends, a researcher has to make decision on which research design suits his or her study well. Creswell (2009:3) lists some of the basics that underlie the choice of a particular research design. These are the worldview of the researcher, procedures or strategies of inquiry, specific methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation. Others are the nature of the research problem, the researcher's personal experience and the audience for the study (Creswell, 2009:3).

The research problem about how lecturers draw on their language skills in delivering the content of the subjects they are teaching focused my study. I sought to establish the variety of discourse strategies that the lecturers actually use in classroom communication and thereafter to ascertain what kinds of discourse patterns best characterise the current teaching process. In the process I also

wanted to establish how lecturers reflect on the multilingualism of students and on the ways in which linguistic resources are invoked (or not) in the tertiary learning process.

Thus, I sought also to explain how lecturers exploit multilingualism even when English is the only official LoI. In order to achieve such objectives, I required qualitative methods of sampling, data collection, analysis and interpretation. These methods included purposive sampling, observation, interviewing and use of qualitative data analysis tools such as Discourse Analysis, Applied Conversation Analysis and Qualitative Content Analysis. Consequently, with the needs described above for this study, I decided to select a method that I considered would be able to address the specific needs. In deciding on how to go about answering the research questions, I chose case study research design, which I describe further in the following section.

3.4.2 Case study research design

3.4.2.1 *The nature of case study research design*

According to Umit (2005:2), a case study refers to the collection and presentation of detailed information about a particular participant or small group, frequently including the accounts of subjects themselves. As it is the case for many concepts used in research, different scholars have referred to the concept case study differently. Some authors have referred to it as case study research (Tellis, 1997), others have referred to it as case study strategy (Eisenhardt, 1989), case study method or case study methodology (Umit, 2005), and case study approach (Creswell, 2009), just to mention a few examples. For the sake of this study, without engaging in terminological conflicts, I adopt the term case study research design as a research technique provided within the qualitative research paradigm to study the way lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam utilise linguistic resources at hand to conduct the educational activity of teaching in a multilingual setting.

Scholars describe a case study research design as one of the qualitative research methods together with ethnography and participant observation (cf. Welman et al., 2005:193; Mouton, 2001:60; Bell, 1999:10). It is regarded as a method of empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context (cf. Mouton, 2001; Bell, 1999; Yin, 1994). It allows for examining of relatively complex phenomena, with units of analysis varying from individuals to class groups. It also permits an examination of simple or complex phenomena, with units of analysis varying from single individuals to corporations and businesses (Berg, 2009; Creswell, 2009; Welman et al., 2005; Yin, 2003). Bell (1999) recommends this method for individual researchers like me because it gives an opportunity for investigating one aspect of a

possibly multifaceted problem, such as the language of classroom interaction (alongside a range of other variables that affect students' participation and progress) at the University of Dar es Salaam, for study within a limited time scale.

3.4.2.2 *Application of case study research design*

Welman et al. (2005:193) note that a case study research is much more than a mere description of observed phenomena. It seeks an understanding of the uniqueness and idiosyncrasies of a particular case in all its complexity. It aims to investigate the dynamics of bounded single-bounded system (such as the University of Dar es Salaam), which is typically of social nature involving different types of participants such as those in the project of teaching. Therefore, a case study research can function at many stages with different purposes. For instance, it can serve as a follow up endeavour to and put flesh on the bones of a survey. It can also precede a survey and function as a means of identifying key issues that merit further investigation (Bell, 1999:11). Moreover, it can occur as a freestanding exercise, like the present study, in which the researcher identifies an instance, which in itself justifies dedicated attention and systematic analysis. Such an instance could be the introduction of a new syllabus, the way a school adopts a new role, or any innovative stage of development in an institution (Bell, 1999:11). Since each organisation, such as an educational institution like the University of Dar es Salaam, has its own common and unique features, the case study aims, as Bell (1999:11) notes, to identify such features, show how they affect the implementation of systems and how they influence the organisation's functions. Furthermore, as Welman et al. (2005:194) suggest, this investigation has to take place through an on the spot fieldwork under the natural circumstances of the specific case.

Welman et al. (2005:194) further recommend that research should appropriately define or demarcate the cases in focus, not merely describe them, but rather inductively search for recurring patterns and consistent regularities. Finally, the research should triangulate methods of observation to discern these patterns. This is because the number of cases under study is limited, while the purpose of case study is to examine these available cases intensively (Welman et al., 2005:194).

The term triangulation as a research strategy was coined by Webb et al. (1966) to refer to the use of multiple methods of data collection or differing methods of data analysis in a manner that allows the researcher to relate findings acquired by different means (cf. Henning et al., 2004). Later, Denzin (1978:294-307) discussed the concept in detail in relation to how to triangulate. He came up with four types of triangulation namely data triangulation (including time, space and person), investigator

triangulation, theory triangulation and methodology triangulation. Campbell and Fiske (1959:101) suggested a similar method called "multiple operationism". Their argument is that the inclusion of multiple sources of data collection in a research project is likely to increase the reliability or accuracy of the observation (Mouton, 1996:156; Neuman, 2006:150). According to (Neuman, 2006:150), triangulation means "observing from different viewpoints". It can be done at several levels such as the triangulation of measures whereby researchers take multiple measures of the same phenomena, which can be illustrated, for example, when a teacher asks students to answer essay questions, complete multiple-choice items, and make oral presentations on a single topic. Then the teacher has three different sources, which, ideally, should give results that support and confirm findings obtained from different perspectives. Another example is found in the triangulation of theory, whereby a researcher uses multiple theoretical perspectives in planning the stages of the research or in interpreting the data. Lastly, there is the triangulation of method whereby a researcher mixes qualitative and quantitative styles of research and data (Neuman, 2006:149-50).

For this particular case study triangulation was done at two levels, namely at the levels of data collection and of data analysis. In data collection, three methods were used, namely (i) video and audio recording, (ii) observation, and (iii) semi structured interviews. However, it should be noted that the observation data was not analysed because there was no significant difference between the data and the information drawn from the video recording. At the level of data analysis the data were analysed and interpreted using selected techniques and analytic devices presented by Applied Conversation Analysis (ten Have, 2001), Discourse Analysis (Cook, 1989; Stubbs, 1983; Brown & Yule, 1983) and Content Analysis (Busch et al., 2005). Therefore, to explore intensively the language of classroom interaction as one aspect of the tools of teaching and learning at the University of Dar es Salaam, I found a case study research design to be appropriate. My purpose was to understand how lecturers draw on diverse linguistic resources in teaching and assuring students' access to new learning material at the University. I particularly sought answers to questions on not only what the discourse strategies are that the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction, but also on how and why they use them. Although a case study only very limitedly allows for the generalisation of findings, such a single case may provide pointers as to processes that customarily are treated as common-sense ones, that perhaps are less so; or to approaches that are overtly denied, but in practice turn out to be common and productive. Thus, even a case study can give new insights that justify our doubting received wisdom and that will prompt further investigation in a productive direction.

3.5 POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

3.5.1 Population

I conducted my research at the University of Dar es Salaam. As noted earlier under section 1.6.3, Tanzania has eighteen accredited universities (TCU, 2012). The University of Dar es Salaam is the oldest and largest, with four colleges, two institutes and six schools, spread across the five campuses of the University. The population for this study comprised selected groups of students and academic staff members of the University of Dar es Salaam. Berg (2009:317) recommends a population like this for a study like the present one because it is easily accessible to the researcher, the target population is one of specific interest, and the site contains all the necessary sources of information to answer the research questions.

Notably, the University of Dar es Salaam, like all other higher learning institutions in the country, follows the English only mode of classroom interaction policy. Thus, all lecturers and students are required to use English in all academic interactions, both written and oral. Hence, regardless of the actual findings, all the research participants were required, as a policy regulation, to use English throughout all the lecture sessions.

3.5.2 Sample and sampling procedure

I adopted the purposive sampling procedure for this study. Berg (2009:317) recommends this sampling procedure for an exploratory study like this because it allows a researcher to use his or her knowledge or expertise about a given group to select subjects who represent the population. For that reason, as a lecturer in the College of Arts and Social Sciences (formally the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences), this sampling procedure suited my study.

The college was the focus of the study because it was appropriate in both setting and population. It is the second oldest academic unity at the University, after the School of Law (formally Faculty of Law), but it is the largest both in terms of teaching staff and number of students. It hosts eight departments of which two formed a sample for this study.

Thus, by purposive sampling, the departments of Political Science and Public Administration (PSPA) and the department of Sociology and Social Anthropology (SSA) provided participants for this study. This selection was made because at the time of the conception of this study they were among the largest in the college in terms of the number of registered students. The teaching of their courses is mostly through the lecture method. This method was appropriate for the cases I chose,

which are lectures and lecturers (not students and seminars). I was confident that they would most likely provide as wide a spectrum as possible of the specific communicative and discourse strategies likely to occur in the large classrooms of the university. The selection involved four lecturers from each department, who taught first year classes. This also applied for the courses in which recordings were done, namely, first year course lectures thus assuring that all courses were taught at university entrance level (although in one case the lecturer was teaching a third year course to first year students). After I had done preliminary observations, I realised that there were cases where two lecturers were co-running one course. Co-incidentally, the lecturers paired on senior and junior level of appointment. In such cases, I decided to observe and interview both lecturers in order to attain as wide a range as possible of the discourse strategies under observation. Cases like this were evident in both target departments. For the Department of PSPA, there was one case where the senior lecturer was a male, while the junior one was a female assistant lecturer. In the other case, there was a senior female lecturer and a male assistant lecturer. For the Department of SSA there was one such case, where one assistant lecturer who was about to submit his Doctoral dissertation was co-running a course with a colleague who had just completed his Master's degree. As I did for the Department of PSPA, I decided to observe and interview both lecturers as well. Therefore, the data-sample consisted of eight lecturers and their lectures in six courses. Overall, the whole sample consisted of three male Senior Lecturers, one female Senior Lecturer, three male Assistant Lecturers and one female Assistant Lecturer. Both female lecturers were from the Department of PSPA. I could not find a female participant from the Department of SSA who was teaching first year courses by the time of the research, thus regarding gender I did not have equal numbers. Nevertheless, the sample is representative of the general distribution of males and females in these two departments.

3.5.3 Data collection

3.5.3.1 Schedule

The data collection process began in November 2010. During November to December, 2010 I sought research clearance from the authorities of the University of Dar es Salaam. I identified potential participants, met them, clarified the purpose of the research project and received signed informed consent from some of them. Then I made appointments with them concerning actual data collection dates. During January to March 2011, I collected audio-visual data by audio-visually recording selected lectures as well as by observing classroom activities. During March to April 2011, I previewed the collected data and identified points for discussion. Then I set interview

appointments with the respective participants. During March to May 2011, I crosschecked the data to ascertain if it suitably met the purpose of my research.

3.5.3.2 Sets of data for the study

As stated earlier under section 1.6.3, I needed three sets of data to answer the questions for this study. These were (i) data on discourse strategies that are used by lecturers during classroom interaction with students (ii) data on how and how regularly the lecturers use such discourse strategies and (iii) data on the lecturers own reflection on the use of such discourse strategies considering the variety of linguistic resources of themselves and their students.

For the first and second sets of data, I attended selected lectures as had been decided, and made field notes on my observations. I also recorded these lectures for later transcription and analysis with a view to identifying and assessing various observed discourse strategies. I used two instruments to record the lectures, a voice recorder and a video recorder. My purpose in using two recorders for each session was to assure security of data in case any problem occurred with one of the devices. This triangulation of tools of data collection proved very useful in safeguarding the data. It would have been wasteful, or even impossible to request another recording from the participants had anything gone wrong with the recording process, as a lecture cannot be repeated simply for the sake of a research project such as this one, and (according to the prior agreement) there were limited opportunities to actually record live, authentic lectures.

For the third set of data, following my attendance and recording of the lectures, I interviewed the respective lecturers in order to gain introspective information from them on their use of the observed discourse strategies during lectures. Before the interview began, I explained to each interviewee what the purpose of my study was, the procedures of the interview, the intended use of the data and time length for the interview. The interview schedule consisted of five sections namely a section on information about general career and education background and a section on information about discourse strategies observed in the lectures. Others were section on the opinion that participants had regarding the Language of Instruction at University level in Tanzania, and lastly a closing and summary of the interview. The interviews were semi-structured in that they focused on the interests of the project as set out in an interview schedule, but would also allow open discussion where a lecturer chose to highlight what they found to be of primary importance.

3.5.3.3 *Type of interview*

Mason (2002:62) notes that the interview is probably the most commonly used method in qualitative research. In this study, I adopted a qualitative interview technique. Conducting a qualitative interview is a process that requires detailed planning, including having a predesigned set and sequence of questions (Mason, 2002:67). This technique allows for in-depth attention to selected topics, by means of loosely structured forms of interview (Mason, 2002:62). It is also characterised by interactional exchange of dialogue, relatively informal style, a thematic, topic centred, biographical or narrative approach with fluidity and flexibility of structure, which allows the interviewer and interviewee to develop unexpected themes during the interviewing process (Mason, 2002:63). This responds to a set perspective of qualitative research that knowledge is situated and contextual. For that reason, the function of the interview is to ensure that it brings into focus all relevant contexts to produce the situated knowledge (Mason, 2002:64). Thus, such a qualitative interview involves the construction and reconstruction of knowledge, rather than the excavation of knowledge (Kvale, 1996:3).

3.5.3.4 *The reason for using a qualitative interview technique*

I decided to use the qualitative interview technique because I wanted to have a full picture of the situation that I was exploring. I found that observation and text analysis of the lectures only would not suffice to provide me with a rounded picture of the situation. Principally, I sought answers to questions pertaining to the background of the research participants, their use of other discourse strategies apart from the ones I observed in the lectures, and their opinion regarding the LOI issues at the University of Dar es Salaam and in Tanzania as a whole. Besides, I sought to explore the lecturers' perceptions concerning the discourse strategies that they used during classroom interaction, the reasons for using them, and how they believed the strategies were helpful in transferring knowledge to and developing insight among students. I also wanted to establish what their preferences and explanations were regarding LOI at university level. To do all this, I took the ontological position that lecturers' perceptions form social realities (Mason, 2002:63), which I sought to explore. Mason (2002:63) further postulates that the legitimate way of generating data on such ontological perspectives, is to talk with participants interactively, to ask them questions, to listen to them, to gain access to their accounts and articulations or to analyse their use of language and their construction of discourse.

Furthermore, my decision to use qualitative interviewing was based on my aim to collect data that would generate meaningful knowledge. According to Mason (2002:68), to achieve this aim, a researcher does not collect data (excavation) but generates it (construction). Therefore, qualitative interviewing operates with the model of knowledge construction rather than one of straightforwardly excavating already deposited reserves of knowledge (Mason, 2002:68). It involves asking questions that focus more on lived experiences than hypothetical scenarios or abstract concepts (Mason, 2002:64-68).

3.5.3.5 Setting for the interviews

I conducted the interviews in two different venues, in my office and in the participants' offices. Interviews with LPsc.2, LSoc.3 and LPsc.3 took place in my office. This is because most offices of lecturers are shared spaces that would affect privacy during an interview session. The office I was occupying at the time of the research was located in a very tranquil place and I was sharing it with a newly recruited Tutorial Assistant who was willing to allow me time to conduct interviews in privacy. Therefore, I invited the lecturers to my office rather than conduct the interview in their working space, and they agreed to it readily.

Regarding the language of the interviews, the language policy for tertiary education and the general practice in academic discourse on campus was followed thus most of the interviews were conducted in English. However, three participants opted to use Kiswahili during the interview sessions. Two interviews in Kiswahili involved one male Senior Lecturer, one male Assistant Lecturer while the third involved a female Assistant Lecturer. Since all the three interviewees preferred responding in Kiswahili, I did not object to their choice. Section 3.5.4 presents the profile of each lecturer-participant in my research.

3.5.4 The profile of each of the research participants who took part in this study

3.5.4.1 LPsc.1

This was a female Senior Lecturer in the Department of Political Science and Public Administration. She did her BA and MA at Villanova University and PhD at the University of Duquesne. She had been teaching at the University since 1993. Additionally she had a certificate and diploma in education but she had not attended any on job teaching methodology programme. She also taught courses to second and third year students at the University of Dar es Salaam.

3.5.4.2 *LSoc.1*

This was a male assistant lecturer in the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology. He had worked at the University of Dar es Salaam since 2000 as a Tutorial Assistant assisting by going to classes with lecturers, supervising seminars and teaching when asked to do so by his seniors. He did undergraduate studies at the University of Dar es salaam specialising in BA sociology from 1997-2000. After finishing undergraduate studies in 2000, he was engaged as a teaching assistant in the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology. This teaching Assistantship was coupled with Masters' degree Scholarship in the same year and he completed studies in 2002. Thereafter he was confirmed to work as an Assistant Lecturer in 2003. In 2004, he was awarded another scholarship to the University of Umea in Sweden where he went for another masters' degree in public health. He completed the programme in 2005. By the time of this study, he was in the last stages of his PhD at the University of Radbound in Netherlands. The participant had never trained as teacher at any stage nor had he attended any teaching methods course. He also taught courses to second and third year students at the University of Dar es Salaam. He preferred to have the interview in Kiswahili.

3.5.4.3 *LSoc.2*

This was a male senior lecturer in the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology. He had been teaching at the University of Dar es salaam since October 1992 when he was appointed as an Assistant Lecturer. Before that, he had taught at the Institute of Social Work in Dar es Salaam teaching *Industrial Relations, Sociology and Research Methods* courses. This was between 1978 and 1980. He did his BA at the University of Dar es Salaam between 1975 and 1978 and MA at the same university of between 1988 and 1991. In 1994, he went for Doctoral studies in Austria at the University of Hgabs Jeokerm, Linz; and finished in 1997. After returning from studies, he continued with teaching in the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology of the University of Dar es Salaam until the time I was collecting data for this study. The courses he had been teaching include *Gender and Gender Relations, Sociological Theories, Industrial Relations* and other courses as the need arose. The lecturer as well had never trained as teacher at any stage nor had he attended any teaching methods course. He also was also teaching other courses to second and third year students at the same university. He also preferred to have the interview in Kiswahili.

3.5.4.4 *LPsc.2*

This was a female assistant lecturer in the Department of Political Science and Public Administration. She studied BA and MA at the University of Dar es Salaam. She trained as teacher

at undergraduate level and had had some teaching experience from Teaching Practice programme, which is compulsory for all students doing Education courses at the University of Dar es Salaam. She had also volunteered to teach after she had finished Form Six and she had taught for three months in a public school where she had been appointed after completing undergraduate studies. She later was appointed as Tutorial Assistant in the Department of Political Science and Public Administration a post that was accompanied with MA scholarship. During the time she was doing MA, she also supervised undergraduate seminars, an occasion that she feels added to her teaching experience. Likewise, she had never attended any teaching methods course organised by the University of Dar es Salaam. By the time of the research, she was also teaching courses to third year students. She also preferred to have the interview in Kiswahili.

3.5.4.5 LSoc.3

This was a male assistant lecturer who had, at the time of the interview (April 2011), been teaching in the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology for about five years since January 2007 when he was appointed as Tutorial Assistant. He pursued both BA and MA at the University of Dar es Salaam. He had never trained as teacher but he had attended teaching methods course organised by the University of Dar es Salaam to lecturers who had never trained as teachers to equip them with some methodological skills. He also taught courses to second and third year students at the University of Dar es Salaam.

3.5.4.6 LSoc.4

This male Senior Lecturer had been teaching at the University of Dar es Salaam since 1971. At undergraduate level, he studied at the University of Dar es Salaam training as a teacher (BA with education) and he specialised in Linguistics and Sociology. He went on and pursued an MA (Sociology) at the University of Paris and a PhD (Sociology) at the University of Hull. He had had teaching experience outside Tanzania when he went to teach at the University of Hull on exchange programme. He had also taught in Secondary Schools in Tanzania. Nevertheless, he had never attended any teaching methods course at the University of Dar es Salaam. He also taught courses to second and third year students at the University of Dar es Salaam.

3.5.4.7 LPsc.3

This was a male Assistant Lecturer in the Department of Political Science and Public Administration. He had been at the Department since 2008 working as Tutorial Assistant mainly

supervising seminars to undergraduate students until 2010. In 2011, he was assigned classes to teach on his own. He taught courses to second and third year students. By the time of data collection, he was co-running a course with LPsc.1. He had attended a teaching methods course co-organised by the University of Dar es Salaam and the University of Sussex, UK.

3.5.4.8 LPsc.4

This was a male Senior Lecturer in the Department of Political Science and Public Administration. He had served in the education system of Tanzania for 32 years holding different positions such as Ward Education Coordinator, District Education Officer and had taught in colleges of education, in Focal development Colleges and in Community Development Colleges. He joined the university as a mature student. He did MA programme at the University of Dar es Salaam in Political Science and Public Administration. After that, the University of Dar es Salaam appointed him as a Teaching Assistant in 1993 and he did his PhD in Manchester.

3.5.5 Data processing and analysis

In this section, I discuss briefly how, methodologically, I went about the whole process of data analysis that I undertook during the execution of this study. I mainly talk about the sources and forms of data for this study. I further elucidate the theoretical expositions that guided the data analysis as well as demonstrate the steps I followed to analyse the data.

The data were analysed and interpreted using techniques and analytic devices presented by Conversation Analysis (Psathas, 1995; ten Have, 2001) and Discourse Analysis (cf. Cook, 1989; Brown & Yule, 1983; Stubbs, 1983). These two approaches allowed for Content Analysis (Busch et al., 2005) that gave insight into the coherence of the particular subject material and topic of the lectures. A detailed discussion of these theoretical frameworks for analysis of various forms and aspects of linguistic communication is given in Chapter two. The use of these research tools for analysing the meanings and relationships articulated in classroom discourses and in interviews that topicalized such discourses, allowed reliable reconstruction of the events under investigation in terms of content and structure. I transcribed the various recordings, coded them according to specific recurring discourse strategies and so identified manageable categories on a variety of levels. Finally, I triangulated the coded information on discourse strategies and their uses in lectures, with interview and observation data to gain as complete an impression as possible on the discourse strategies used in classroom interaction in this multilingual educational setting. Lastly, I uploaded the data to Qualitative Data Analysis software (NviVo) for content analysis.

3.5.5.1 Sources of data

The sources for the qualitative data for this study were lectures and interviews.

3.5.5.2 Transcription

Interviews that were conducted in English could be directly transcribed. However, for the three that were done in Kiswahili, the transcriptions had to be done in two stages, namely first a transcription of the Kiswahili version, and then a translation (with gloss where necessary) of the transcriptions from Kiswahili into English. Four assistants all selected on voluntary basis from the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics of the UDSM assisted in transcribing all the eight lectures and interviews. There were two female assistants and two male assistants in the process. Two of them were Assistant Lecturers and two were Tutorial Assistants in the final stages of their MA degrees. One female Assistant Lecturer had already enrolled in a PhD Programme. Hence, volunteers who were studying and working in the same field as the researcher did the transcription. This assured accuracy of the transcripts. Nevertheless, I had to go through the transcripts while listening to the recordings or watching the videos to mitigate human error. Finally, I produced the final drafts for analysis.

3.5.5.3 Organisation of the transcripts

Before I began coding the transcribed data, I systematically organised the information about participants to order the sets of data. First, I opened a casebook in which I placed the cases, thus creating a unit for each of the selected Lecturers, coded as LPsc.1, LPsc.2, LPsc.3, LPsc.4, LSoc.1, LSoc.2, LSoc.4 and LSoc.4. Second, I classified the cases according to distinctive attributes such as gender. Third, I assigned attribute values to the cases, referring to each participant's designation, academic rank, and years of teaching experience, professional training, other qualifications and other university classes that each one taught. These attributes are often referred to as the "meta-data", the information that assists in recognising features that may be important as variables that co-determine communicative patterns. "Designation" referred to professional level of a participant at the time of the recording, namely their appointment as a Tutorial Assistant, Assistant Lecturer, Lecturer, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor, and Professor. "Academic rank" referred to academic credentials of a participant such as holding a Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree, or Doctoral Degree. The "experience" attribute value ranged from 0-05 years, 05-10 years, 10-20 years, 20-30 years, and more than 30 years. Under the "professional training" attribute, I sought information regarding the participants' specialisation at undergraduate level and under the "other

qualifications" attribute I sought information about whether the participant had attended any teaching methodology course, or had any other qualification apart from the university degree. Finally, under the "other classes taught" attribute I sought information regarding other classes a participant taught apart from the first year group. This category provided essential information when comparing how the use of strategies varied according to the level of learners.

Moreover, I organised the transcripts into files and labelled them according to the respective cases. I labelled each lecture according to the sequence in which I had recorded it. Therefore, the first lecturer from the Department of PSPA had the label "LPsc.1" and so on while the first lecturer from the Department of SSA had the label "LSoc.1" and so on. For the interviews, I gave similar labels with a slight change, thus I labelled the interview with the first lecturer from Department of PSPA as "Int. Psc.1" and so on.

3.5.6 Coding of data

The next step in the analysis was to familiarise myself with the data. I did this by carefully reading the eight transcripts of the lectures and interviews. Here I made some notes and did minor editing. The aim was to thoroughly understand the content of the data and develop a sense of the participants' characteristic use of language.

After I had become familiar with the data, I started coding it by labelling units of meanings within the text and making judgements about how to block the text into manageable parts. The coding system on which I decided was based on the overarching research question which asks "What discourse strategies do lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use; how and how widely are the various strategies used?" I coded the data on discourse strategies at two major levels, namely structural discourse strategies and propositional discourse strategies. In the following section, I further clarify these kinds of strategies.

3.5.6.1 Propositional discourse strategies

Propositional discourse strategies for analysis refer to instances of questioning, repetition and code switching. These three categories provided discrete information for a straightforward analysis. In short, the three selected themes are ones that occurred frequently and could relatively be easily identified through the coding of transcriptions. Thus, at this stage, I only identified those elements within the transcripts that were relevant to my research questions. Furthermore, I revised the themes and recoded several times to capture things I might not have noticed in the first coding.

3.5.6.2 *Structural discourse strategies*

The structural discourse strategies that seemed to be most evident in transfer of information and development of knowledge, and which are given special attention in the analysis, are discourse markers (DMs) and pronouns. Researchers have approached the study of DMs from different perspectives. They have referred to them as Cohesive Markers (Halliday & Hassan, 1976), Discourse Markers (Shiffrin, 1987; Traugott, 1995), Gambits (DuFon, 1995) or Pragmatic Markers (Frazer, 1990; Andersen, 2000; Cuenca, 2008). DMs include words such as *well* (Cuenca, 2008) and *like* (Andersen, 2000). Sometimes they are words and phrases or even sentences that play a crucial role in the interpretation of discourse by signalling coherent relations between discourse units. For example, DuFon (1995:27) observes that they can be used to semantically guide the hearer through discourse by means of phrases like *the main point is ...* or to facilitate turn taking by using expressions like *May I interrupt for a moment?* In addition, they can be used to mark a discourse boundary by use of expressions like *that is all I have to say* (DuFon, 1995:27).

3.5.7 **Data interpretation**

According to Henning et al. (2004:107), data interpretation involves identifying ways in which emerging themes and sub themes, connections and contradictions fit together. As for the interpretation of the data, I identified the different ways in which the emerging themes and sub themes related to one another across the three sets of data (lectures, interviews and field notes). Then I compared, contrasted and discussed the themes in accordance with the research question. I adopted skills offered by Content Analysis also termed conceptual or thematic analysis (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). It functions to examine words or phrases in various texts such as essays, interviews, speeches, and conversations. The examination of the presence or repetition of certain words and phrases can help make inferences about the speaker or writer (Palmquist, 1993).

Neuman (1997:272) distinguishes between content and text by arguing that content refers to words, meanings, pictures, symbols, ideas, themes or any message that can be communicated. A text on the other hand, is anything visual, written or spoken that serves as a medium of communication (Neuman, 1997:272). A specific term for content analysis in qualitative research is qualitative content analysis (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004:106). Generally, the basic issue when performing (qualitative) content analysis is to decide whether the analysis should focus on manifest or latent content (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Babbie & Mouton, 2001). According to Graneheim and Lundman (2004:106), two types of analysis are undertaken. The first one focuses on what the text

says thus analysing the content aspect. In so doing, the analysis describes the visible and obvious components of text. The second one focuses on what the text talks about, dealing with the relationship aspect and involving an interpretation of the underlying meaning of the text. Graneheim and Lundman (2004:106) further note that both manifest and latent content deal with interpretation but the interpretations vary in depth and level of abstraction. Therefore, I decided to interpret both manifest and latent content of my data because I wanted to go beyond merely describing the presence and frequency of discourse strategies used by the lecturers. I sought to gain some understanding of how the language of classroom interaction at the University of Dar es Salaam conveys socio-cultural knowledge into ways of thinking and acting, with an aim to further an understanding of the complicated processes of language use in teaching and learning.

3.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Mason (2002:79) observes that the use of qualitative interviews in generating qualitative data raises a number of ethical issues that require researchers' awareness and prior planning. Researchers need to observe aspects such as what they ask questions about, how they ask the questions, the level of freedom of the interviewees, whether and how they can guarantee confidentiality, and how they can balance power relations between them and their interviewees (Mason, 2002:80). Therefore, I planned my interview questions in such a way that they would not directly touch on private or personal matters of the participants. Moreover, before starting to collect data, I sought research clearance from the Stellenbosch University ethics committee and from the authorities of the University of Dar es Salaam. I asked the participants to sign informed consent, assuring that they were voluntarily participating in my research. I also clarified to the participants on how I would maintain anonymity and confidentiality. Documents supporting the application and granting of ethical clearance are attached in appendix A.

3.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

During this study, two types of limitations arose. These were environmental and methodological limitations, as I shall explain in the following sections.

3.7.1 Environmental limitations

The first environmental limitation emanated from the general physical setting of the University of Dar es Salaam. As explained under section earlier, there are three colleges, three schools and three institutes all spread across the main campus. There was a sharing of classrooms across all courses

regardless of college, school or institute. For example, a Sociology lecture could take place in a lecture room in the College of Engineering or the School of Law. Apart from that, some lecture rooms are so close to each other that there was sound interference from the next lecture room during the time of the recording of the audio-visual data. In the College of Engineering, the lecture room was close to a workshop so that the noise from the drilling machines caused discomfort to both the lecturer and students as well as to us who were recording the data. Another challenge due to physical proximity of lecture rooms was the noise made by students gathering around the rooms waiting for the current lecture to end so that they could enter and occupy front seats during the following lecture. All this was because the lecture rooms are not sound proof. In some cases, due to the long walking distance between lecture rooms, students came in late and thus disrupted the video recording as they ran across the room searching for seats. This situation therefore, inadvertently affected the quality of the audio-visual data, as some words were not clearly audible during data transcription.

The second physical limitation originated from the arrangement for office allocation to members of teaching staff of the University of Dar es Salaam. For instance, because most lecturers share offices, it was difficult to assure privacy during the interviews. Therefore, as stated earlier, I had to invite some of the participants to my office, which was quiet and more secluded, for conducting the interviews.

3.7.2 Methodological limitations

The first methodological limitation to this study relates to its population and sample. The selection of only one college to which I belong as teaching staff member may reflect some bias. The second methodological limitation to this study relates to the sample size. Two departments and only eight lecturers may not have been representative enough of the whole college. Thirdly, the combination of three theoretical approaches (Conversation Analysis, Discourse Analysis and Content Analysis) may not have been sufficiently exhaustive. For example, Conversation Analysis requires transcription standards, which did not fully suit the nature of data at hand. Moreover, Discourse Analysis that aims at addressing how institutional power relations are both reproduced and contested (Terre-blanc & Durrheim, 1999:159) was not used in that sense in this study. Fourthly, although during observation of the lectures, many non-linguistic features of the lecturers, such as facial expressions, hand and body movement were noticed, many of them did not tally well as discourse strategies. In that case, in the analysis I eventually attended to only one (use of the black or white board). This decision may have caused the missing of some essential aspects of the data.

Nonetheless, in the scope of this project it was not possible to attend to all noted features of the discourses. As will be indicated in the analysis, the selected features were considered and chosen for their frequency and distribution across all the observed lectures.

Lastly, although there was a prior meeting with the lecturers and students were briefed in advance on my presence in the lecture rooms during the lectures, the effect of the use of the video and the presence of the research assistant who was recording the lectures can by no means be ignored. This might have made the lecturers behave cautiously and thus not freely engage with students, as they would have without our presence.

3.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter, I have introduced the concepts, research paradigm and research design used in this study. I particularly explicated their meaning, types and functions as well as their relevance to the present study. I also dwelt on the selection of population, sampling and sampling procedures as well as on the issues of data collection, processing, coding, analysis and interpretation. I provided the profile of each participant and reported about the ethical considerations I also observed the kinds of limitations that I encountered during the execution of the study. In chapter four, I will present a full and detailed analysis of the data.

Chapter Four

ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE STRATEGIES IN LECTURES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I present an analysis of the data collected in this research project in accordance with the study's aim that was presented in chapter one (cf. 1.3.1) of this dissertation. That aim, specifically, was to identify the discourse strategies that lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction, with a view to disclosing possible generic patterns as they occur in lectures delivered by bilingual lecturers⁴ to multilingual students in tertiary education. Accordingly, four fundamental objectives guided the study (cf. 1.3.2). The first one was to identify and describe discourse strategies used by lecturers at the University of Dar es Salaam during classroom interaction. The second one was to describe how and how widely the lecturers use the various strategies during classroom interaction to map them into an occurrence pattern that can function as reference, indicating which strategies occur systematically in classroom interaction in a multilingual educational setting. The third one was to establish why the lecturers use the observed as well as other discourse strategies during classroom interaction with students. The fourth one was to evaluate the use of the most prominent strategies used in lectures in terms of their likely functionality in facilitating learning among multilingual students studying through an L2 (or L3). These objectives were rephrased into a set of research questions that guided the data collection and have been used in directing the analysis, which is to be presented in sections 4.2 and 4.3

The findings presented and analysed in this section refer to what have been identified in chapter two as propositional discourse strategies (cf. 2.2.5). They will demonstrate and explain how lecturers in a multilingual educational setting such as at the University of Dar es Salaam, utilise linguistic resources such as repetition, questioning and code switching available to them to facilitate classroom interaction. Therefore, the analysis given in this section will attend to generic features of the lectures, and specifically to the discursive contributions of the lecturers.

⁴ Most lecturers know more than two languages (i.e. at least their mother tongue, Kiswahili and English); thus, the term bilingual is used here as equivalent to multilingual, and it indicates specifically a form of multilingualism that is not merely the combination of two or three monolingual structures. See discussion elsewhere in section 2.5.

As noted earlier, there were two sources of data, eight lectures and eight interviews with the lecturers. Both sets of data were recorded and transcribed. The transcripts of the lecture data were carefully scrutinised in order to recognise regularly recurring propositional discourse strategies. Using Nvivo, the transcripts were coded to recognise all instances of the marked propositional discourse strategies. The outcomes of this process justified a classification of the propositional discourse strategies that occur regularly as marked forms in the discourse and that function not only as cohesive devices, but also as pedagogical instruments. Structural discourse strategies identified in the same way in chapter two (cf. 2.2.5) will be analysed in section 4.3. The data is analysed in relation to question one, that is, to identify and describe the discourse strategies that lecturers use during classroom interaction. In section 4.1.4 the data is analysed in relation to question two, that is, to describe how widely the various strategies are used. Moreover, in section 4.1.5 the data is analysed in relation to question three, that is, to analyse the reports of the lecturers on their use of those strategies. Section 4.4 contains the summary of the chapter.

The interview data helped to supplement and check the empirical data obtained in the lectures. They particularly provided information about lecturer's classroom experience as far as English as LoI is concerned, about discourse strategies that lecturers consciously use to facilitate the learning experience of students in lectures, about the reasons for their use of some generic strategies, and about their view on the usefulness of the strategies they use. Only interview data on why the lecturers use the observed strategies is analysed because the interview followed the lectures and focused on specific strategies that appeared most notable in the lecture transcripts.

As mentioned above, both the lecture and interview data were uploaded into qualitative data analysis software (Nvivo) and were coded in accordance with the categories recognised as relevant. Propositional discourse strategies, which are analysed in this chapter, were queried according to how they occurred as sentences, paragraphs or ideas. The results for sets of data in this relatively small closed corpus are presented in Table 4.1.

As stated in chapter one most studies conducted on the language of classroom interaction in Tanzania (cf. Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya 2008; Qorro, 2006) focus on the linguistic competence of teachers and students in primary and secondary schools. They then attempt to associate any linguistic problems facing teachers and students with language policy and language planning practices in the country. In contrast, this study considers the communicative and discursive organisation of lectures from a different angle by studying the language of classroom interaction at tertiary level, particularly at a university where the LoI is an L2 to most speakers.

Although this study discusses classroom practices such as repetition, questioning and code switching, similar to the other studies mentioned (cf. Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya, 2008), it does not attempt to make any evaluation in terms of competence and language policy. It also does not aim to assess the linguistic competence of either lecturers or students. Moreover, the results discussed do not involve language usage by students. The conversation analysis approach that is adopted as a point of departure avoids imposing the analyst's intuitions on the data and thus does not start out with comment on what makes an interaction good or bad. It allows the use of CA instruments to focus on the character of classroom talk as talk in general and not a priori as pedagogical discourse (Dalton-Puffer, 2007:37). Nevertheless, in chapter 6, when a summary of the findings are given, pertinent aspects of the discursive structure will be related to the generic functions of academic discourses as these were introduced in chapter 2, and some evaluative remarks will be given.

Lectures make out one type of discourse genres. Such genres, according to Leftein and Snell (2011:41), are relatively stable ways of using language resulting from recurring situations in different areas of social activity. Discourse genres serve both as resource for fashioning utterances and laying constraints upon the way those utterances are to be understood and judged by others. They encompass a range of social and semiotic dimensions, among others those of thematic content, compositional structure, styles, lexical items, interactional roles and norms, interpersonal relations and evaluative frames (Leftein & Snell, 2011:41).

Moreover, due to the nature of the participants (university lecturers) and the style of teaching large groups in timetabled formal lectures (monologue), the data significantly differs from that of many studies on the language of classroom interaction. For instance, the inherently long stretches of monologue data do not readily allow for sequences such as what Mehan (1979) describes as Initiation Response Evaluation (IRE) pattern. When the lecturer seems to initiate such a sequence, it is mainly done to fulfil a social function and not to form an active part in communicative knowledge construction, as it would be in lower levels of education. Table 4.1 summarises the propositional discourse strategies that occurred most significantly in the eight lectures.

Table 4.1: Results on the use of Propositional Discourse Strategies by lecturers

Strategy		LPSc.				LSoc.				T
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	
Rptn.	Cl.	39	4	21	14	14	11	44	13	160
	Phr.	29	8	15	30	12	14	17	10	135
	G/total									295
Qn.	Tag	4	3	10	15	15	4	10	3	64
	Rhet.	12	10	1	4	5	5	-	-	37
	Clos.	2	4	4	5	4	5	6	3	33
	Open	2	4	1	6	8	7	1	1	30
	G/total									164
C/S	Int/sent.	8	1	1	-	-	15	4	1	30
	Intr/sent.	17	4	4	1	20	21	2	1	70
	G/total									100

Table 4.1 indicates that in all the eight lecture hours with an average duration of fifty minutes each, added up to four hundred minutes, repetition was the most frequent propositional discourse strategy used by the lecturers, with 295 instances. Statistically this means that in every 1.36 minutes there was one instance of repetition. The data further shows that questioning was the second most used propositional discourse strategy among lecturers, with 164 instances. Statistically this means that there was one instance of teacher questioning every 2.44 minutes. The third propositional discourse strategy in the list was teacher code switching, with 100 instances meaning that there was one instance of lecturer code switching every 4 minutes. Thus, lecturers appear generically to use repetition more than any other strategy. Further discussion of the frequently used strategies and the implications of such usage, will be provided in sections 4.2.1 - 4.2.6.

4.2 PROPOSITIONAL DISCOURSE STRATEGIES

As explained in chapter two (cf. 2.2.5) there are a variety of aspects of conversation and discourse that have been investigated within the fields of Conversation Analysis, Discourse Analysis and Genre Studies. The data of this study indicated that not all of the general units of conversation or of discourse would be pertinent to or theoretically interesting to this analysis. Therefore, the division here has been selected in a considered way: first, the three most widely occurring propositional discourse strategies will be analysed as they were used in the lectures; second, the insight gained

from interviews with the lecturers will be presented. Attention will go to their comment on, and in some cases justification of, the various discourse strategies they used.

4.2.1 Exemplifying repetition in lectures

As has been indicated above, of the three highly marked propositional discourse strategies, repetition was the most frequently used. Out of those occurrences, 160 (54%) instances were clausal repetitions, while 135 (45%) instances were phrasal repetitions. In this section, discussion focuses on repetition generally, with an exposition also of the two separate types of repetition, distinguished in terms of their syntactic form. I provide a brief theoretical overview of the functions of repetition as well. The occurrence patterns of the particular discourse strategy will be related to lecturers' interview comment on such generic uses.

As noted earlier in chapter two, literature on discourse analysis gives a number of different ways of distinguishing between various types of repetition. Three major such types are 'self repetition', by which the speaker repeats whole or part of his or her own previous discourse (cf. Allwood et al., 1990; Leftin & Snell, 2011), 'other repetition', by which the speaker repeats whole or part of the respondent's discourse (cf. Knutson, 2010). The third is 'resumptive repetition', by which the speaker resumes to a previous discourse after some sort of discourse digression (cf. Quick, 2007). In this study, the lecturers were found to use all three of these types. Although 'self-repetition' is the most frequently occurring type of repetition, there are also a significant number of uses of 'other repetition' and of 'resumptive repetition'. The analysis here does not focus on these three types specifically. It considers repetition at two formal levels distinguished, namely phrasal and clausal repetition (cf. Table 4.1).

With regard to function, Tannen (1989:47ff) regards repetition as an unmarked communicative behaviour, thus as a naturally occurring linguistic strategy that is used generically. Such a strategy enables speakers to communicate smoothly and at the same time reduces the load of information listeners have to process. Concerning teacher repetition, Viaño and Conejos, (1996:129) emphasise that repetition in classroom interaction is just as functional and communicative as it is in other less structured kinds of discourse. They further note that teachers repeat themselves in order to increase the amount of input especially when giving information and correcting (Viaño & Conejos, 1996:133). Moreover, Knutson (2010:15) finds that repetition has a massive contribution to a successful interaction. Viaño and Conejos, (1996:134) present a list of the functions of teacher repetition. According to them, teacher repetition functions to achieve cohesion, to perform self-

repair, to fill gaps, to emphasise a point, to provide and ask for information, and to facilitate turn taking. Quick (2007:1) similarly considering the functions of repetition, just collapses all the separately identified functions of repetition into two main actions, namely as ones serving to give prominence and achieve

The following excerpts give examples of various kinds of repetition that were evident in the data. As indicated in table 4.1, the lecturers used repetition often and generically. Three examples that illustrate how repetition⁵ is used in typical functions, that are to mark emphasis (excerpt 1), topic focusing (excerpt 2) and clarification of ideas and creating cohesion across a longer stretch of one turn (excerpt 3) are provided here. Further examples for other functions of repetition will be provided in more detailed discussion in section 4.2.2. In section 2.4.6.2 the occurrence patterns of the particular discourse strategy will be related to lecturers' interview comment on such generic uses.

(1)

<p>1 He dared to declare to the council that ... these are the words which <u>he said</u>; <u>he</u> 2 <u>said</u>: We white people have not come to this country ... <u>we have not come to</u> 3 <u>this country</u> to raise the native ... <u>to raise the native</u> to the scale of 4 civilisation ... <u>this man declared</u> himself ... <u>the white man declared</u> himself ... <u>the white</u> <u>man declared</u> himself that his aim was not to civilise ...</p> <p style="text-align: right;">LPsc.1</p>
--

In excerpt (1), the lecturer seems mechanically to repeat the underlined expressions. Nevertheless, essentially the repetition has a goal to emphasise certain content, namely, what the white man said (at the meeting of the Legislative Council). The lecturer gives the background to the topic and throughout the rest of the utterance; the emphasis is on what the white man said at the meeting with regard to his relationship with the natives. Moreover, the lecturer introduces the emotive verb 'declare' in (line 1) then changes to a neutral one 'said' in (line 1-2). Thereafter she starts quoting what the white man said in (line 3) before going back to the emotive verb 'declare' (line 4-5) and makes clear the point of emphasis that the white people's intention was 'not to civilise'. Through such kind of repetition, the lecturer puts prominence to the topic thus performing the discourse function of emphasising. Additionally, the lecturer accomplishes cohesion and thus topic continuity through the repetition of the expression 'he said' (line 1-2) and the expression 'the white man

⁵ In the excerpts, due to the need to select and illustrate clearly, only pertinent parts of a longer unit have been given. The convention [xxx ... xxx] will be used to indicate the omission of some text. The full text is available in the recordings and in the transcripts, which are given as an addendum in CD-format.

Regarding excerpt conventions, in this section on repetition the phrases that are repeated, either word-for-word, or in a rephrasing of the same concept, will be underlined.

declared himself' (line 4-5). Excerpt (2) shows how lecturers use repetition to focus students to a topic.

(2)

1	... we will look at <u>Max Weber on Religion</u> ... and today we want to <u>broaden</u>
2	that spectrum ... to understand ... the role of <u>religion in the development</u>
3	<u>of Western capitalism. So, that is our topic today.</u> We are <u>broadening</u> from
4	last lectures ... <u>Weber</u> was able to explain that <u>religion</u> was one of the factors
5	that led to <u>development ... of Western capitalism So, that is our topic today.</u>
	LSoc.3

In excerpt (2), the lecturer uses repetition to establish connection to the work of the previous lectures. He introduces the topic and then draws attention of the students toward the topic of the day by referring to something that was discussed in the previous meetings and shows that they are going to broaden on it (line 1). That way the lecturer gives information about how the topic is going to be handled in relation to the topics introduced in the previous lectures. This functions as an important focusing device as makes students aware in advance of what to expect in the current lecture. Thus, through repetition the lecturer does not only attain cohesion by the use of the anaphoric reference marker 'that' in (line 3 and 5) but also uses the strategy to focus the students by clarifying how the current topic relates to the previous. Excerpt (3) shows how lecturers use repetition to clarify a point or process.

(3)

1	We are dealing with <u>the concept of social identity</u> ... <u>the concept of social</u>
2	<u>identity in the process for growing up</u> ... <u>the process of growing up</u> is
3	considered ... it is considered as <u>a process of enculturation</u> ... some view
4	this <u>process of enculturation</u> as more passive ...
	LSoc.4

Excerpt (3) also illustrates how the lecturer uses repetition to clarify a point and create cohesion and topic continuity across a long stretch of speech. He introduces the phrase 'the concept of social identity' (line 1). Then he situates it in the context of 'the process of growing up' (line 3). He further defines it in the context of the process of growing up 'it is considered as a process of enculturation' (line 3). Finally he concludes how some people view the process of enculturation '... a passive process' (line 4). By means of repetition, the lecturer provides a smooth link between different ideas and concludes a topic logically instead of just mentioning isolated points. With this background about the lecturers' use of repetition, section 4.2.2 presents a clarification of the types and further functions of repetition that transpired in the data.

4.2.2 Categorising repetition in lectures

As noted in table 4.1, there were two major prominent types of repetition in the data namely clausal and phrasal. A scrutiny shows that for both types the repetition served three major functions. These were to reiterate the speakers own discourse 'self-repetition' (cf. Allwood et al., 1990), to resume a previous topic after a digression, interruption or some other interlude that is 'resumptive repetition' (cf. Quick, 2007) or to revoice respondent's discourse so as to expand a dialogue that is 'other repetition' (cf. Knutson, 2012). Nevertheless, the analysis provided here works with the established order of classification namely clausal versus phrasal repetition.

4.2.2.1 Clausal Repetition

As the term itself suggests, a clausal repetition involves the repetition of a whole clause. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005) technically defines a clause as a group of words that contains a subject and a verb, but which is usually only part of a sentence. There is a distinction between independent clauses such as '*she went home*' and dependent clauses such as '*because she was tired*' in the sentence '*She went home because she was tired*'. They differ because an independent clause can be a sentence by itself thus can convey a complete idea, while an independent clause cannot. Considering the major function identified for repetition as a rhetorical device, namely to emphasize a point and continue a topic, thus to achieve prominence and cohesion (Quick, 2007:1), in clausal repetition the emphasis is on the whole clause not on isolated words. Biber (2006:4) finds that typically class lectures are oral texts made up of a series of relatively short independent and dependent clauses. Excerpt (4) demonstrates the repetition of independent clauses. Table 4.1 indicates that there were 160 instances of clausal repetition in the eight lectures. Statistically this means that in the 400 minutes of lecture time there was one instance of clausal repetition every 2.5 minutes.

(4)

1	<u>Thomas Hofs is praised</u> ... <u>his political thinking is praised for logical clarity of</u>
2	<u>arguments</u> ... he is praised for producing logical clarity of arguments ... when he was
3	talking about his concept on <u>the law, natural law</u> ... <u>he is credited for understanding</u>
4	<u>that no justice without law</u> ...
	PSc.3

Excerpt (4) shows how a lecturer repeats independent clauses for cohesive and prominence purposes. The strategy also gives the lecturer a variety of means to expand the topic as such by means of repair 'Thomas Hofs is praised' ... 'His political thinking is praised' (line 1) and 'he is

praised for logical clarity ... he is praised for producing logical clarity of arguments' (line 2) and the expression 'he is credited for understanding that no justice without law' (line 4-5). Allwood et al. (1990:1) observe that classroom practices such as the repetition and change of already formulated content or expressions functionally assists an individual in managing his or her memory as well as articulating a point. Specifically the repetition of the clauses by the lecturer here enables him in the task of what Biber (2006:72) calls 'elaborating information'. Excerpt (5) illustrates how lecturers use repetition of dependent clauses.

(5)

1	<u>Whereas power, whereas power is the ability to influence the behaviour,</u>	
2	<u>whereas power is the ability to influence the behaviour of others, whereas</u>	
3	<u>power is the ability to influence the behaviour of others, authority is the right</u>	
4	<u>to do so, authority is the right to do so.</u>	LPsc.4

Excerpt (5) illustrates how the lecturer uses repetition of dependent clauses strategically. First, he draws students' attention creating suspense through repetition of the dependent clause 'whereas power' and then removes the suspense by introducing the independent clause (line 1). In line 2 the lecturer elaborates the point of the meaning of power by extending the clause (line 2) by addition of the words '... of others'. He repeats the modified clause (line 2-3) before he introduces the contrast between the concepts 'power' and 'authority' (line 3), which he repeats with emphasis (line 4). When examining the language of university registers, Biber (2006:72) finds that although dependent clauses are linguistically complex thus associated more with written than with spoken English, in university registers they are more common in spoken than in written registers. This repetition pattern as Viaño and Conejos (1996:133) argue increases the amount of input while mitigating for comprehension problems. In line (1-3) the lecturer makes an important distinction between the two concepts: he selects the parts to introduce first in order to capture students' attention, then he repeats the parts still with some suspense, until he concludes by introducing the distinction in the second part (line 3) and repeats it plainly (line 4). This helps the lecturer, as Johnstone (1994:7) suggests, using repetition to emphasise the distinction between 'power' and 'authority', thereby emphasising the need for students to grasp this distinction.

4.2.2.2 Phrasal Repetition

The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005) technically defines a phrase as a group of words, especially when they are used to form part of a sentence, such as '*walking along the road*' and '*a bar of soap*'. As opposed to clausal repetition, in phrasal repetition the emphasis is on the

phrase. The most frequently used phrases in this study were noun and verb phrases. Biber (2006:47) reports that in spoken university registers noun and verb phrases are used with equal regularity. Excerpt (6) illustrates the lecturers' use of noun phrases.

(6)

1	We are dealing with <u>the concept of social identity</u> ... <u>the concept of social</u>
2	<u>identity in the process of growing up</u> ... <u>the process of growing up</u> is
3	considered ... it is considered as <u>a process of enculturation</u> ...
4	some view this <u>process of enculturation</u> as more passive ...
	LSoc.4

Excerpt (6) illustrates how a lecturer uses repetition of noun phrases to clarify and expand a point. The lecturer introduces the phrase 'the concept of social identity' (line 1). Then he situates it in the context 'in the process of growing up' (line 2). He further defines it in the context of the process of growing up 'it is considered as a process of enculturation' (line 3). Finally, he concludes how some people view the process of enculturation 'as a passive process' (line 4). This excerpt demonstrates how the lecturer makes use of nouns to provide a smooth link between different ideas and conclude a topic instead of just mentioning isolated words. Biber (2006:55) finds that in academic discourse much of the referential academic information is packaged in noun phrases. Excerpt (7) illustrates how lecturers repeat verb phrases to emphasise activity.

(7)

1	We will look at Max Weber on Religion ... and today we want <u>to broaden</u>
2	that spectrum ... to understand ... the role of religion in the development of
3	Western capitalism. So, that is our topic today. We <u>are broadening</u> from
4	Last lectures Weber was able to explain that religion was one of the factors
5	that led to development ... of Western capitalism. So, that is our topic today.
	LSoc.3

In excerpt (7) the lecturer introduces the topic and then draws attention of the students toward the topic of the day by referring to something that was discussed in the previous meetings and shows that they are going to expand on it (line 1). Then, by means of repetition of the verb 'broaden', the lecturer gives information about how the topic is going to be handled in relation to the previous lectures. As noted earlier, this functions as an important focusing device. It makes students aware of what to expect in the current lecture in advance. Thus, through repetition of the verb phrase the lecturer does not only attain cohesion by the use of the anaphoric reference marker 'that' in (line 3 and 5) but also uses the strategy to focus the students by clarifying how the current topic relates to the previous.

4.2.3 Exemplifying use of questions in lectures

Table 4.1 indicates that the second most frequent propositional discourse strategy was the use of questions. In this section, discussion focuses on questioning generally, with an elucidation also of three separate types of questioning. I provide a brief theoretical overview on the functions of questioning as well. In section 2.4.6.3, the occurrence patterns of the particular discourse strategy will be related to lecturers' interview comment on such generic uses.

As noted earlier in chapter two (cf. 2.2.5), literature on classroom interaction indicates that there are two major types of questions, namely display and referential questions (Mehan, 1979). Another popular binary division of questions is the open versus closed question types (Barnes, 1967). Dalton-Puffer (2007:96-97) clarifies that whereas the possible answers for closed ended questions are limited to a simple one word answer thus making them quick and easy to answer, open ended questions allow a more extensive answer and are more demanding on the part of the respondent. Dalton-Puffer (2007:97) further observes that closed ended questions relate more with yes/ no, true/false distinctions as is required in multiple choice answer. Open-ended questions on the other hand typically begin with *wh*-words. However, she notes the difficulty in attempting to establish a clear-cut formal demarcation between closed and open-ended questions (Dalton-Puffer, 2007:97).

Athanasidou (1990) expands this division of classroom question types into four namely information questions, rhetorical questions, examination questions and indirect request questions. As noted earlier, most literature on questioning as a discourse strategy is not about classroom interaction in tertiary education (cf. Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya, 2008; Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Considering the difference between large university lectures and interactive primary or secondary level classrooms, the data in such studies cannot be compared to the occurrence patterns of questioning at a university level. Teaching in large lectures does not follow the dialogic teaching, style the frequent occurrence patterns observed from the actual uses of questions functionally analysed for primary and secondary school classrooms, may not fit in the various questioning models that have been developed in educational discourse analysis. Therefore, this analysis follows the traditional typology of questions namely open versus closed ended questions, rhetorical and tag questions, although practically the sequencing in the presentation begins with the most frequent, and ends with the least frequent type of questions as occurred in the data.

The data shows that lecturers ask fewer questions than they repeat the content (cf. statistics for repetition in section 4.2.1). These results indicate the peculiarity of a lecture as a monologue, which

inhibits active communicative interaction between speakers and hearers. According to Tsui (1995:25), teacher questioning plays a special role by boosting classroom interaction by stimulating students to engage with the content elements. In large group lectures, however, active listener participation is not easy as there are too many hearers to allow meaningful reciprocal conversational interaction. Then the uninvited participation of a hearer is often taken to be more disruptive than constructive. Thus, some lecturers admit to the aim of delivering a lecture without or with minimal interruption (cf. 4.2.6 below). This may explain the slightly more limited use of questions by the lecturers in this study. To be specific, the classes were very large, with more than 200 students in each. In addition, the lecture halls were so large that it would be impossible to involve any significant numbers of students through questions. Without the aid of desk microphones participants would barely be able to hear one another, let alone being able to interact.

Literature on language use during classroom interaction indicates that teachers' use of questions generally facilitates engagement of learners in the instructional interaction and helps check comprehension of complex concepts by students (cf. McCormick & Donato, 2000:183). Essentially, questioning is taken to form a key element to the development of understanding (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000:81). Dalton-Puffer (2007:93) conceptualises questioning at individual and educational levels. At individual level, questioning satisfies an individual's passion to know something while at an educational level it helps synchronise the knowledge needs of large groups of people, thus making students aware of previous challenges in the community of practice and of answers that previous generations arrived at.

For Athanasiadou (1990:108) the motivation to ask an information question stems from the speaker's desire for knowledge of something with which he or she is unfamiliar. The assumption is that the response provided contains such new information. As for the purpose of teacher questioning, the British Council (2006) summarises them into three kinds. Those are asking students to remember something they already know and to give a correct answer, asking them to consider a problem or analyse something to demonstrate their skill in knowledge application, and asking students about their behaviour and managing the classroom such as in 'What are you doing?' 'Why are you late?'

The following examples illustrate how lectures used questioning strategy to check students' memory (excerpt 8), to challenge students to ponder on a certain issue (excerpt 9) and to manage students' behaviour (excerpt 10).

(8)

1	I know that most of you went through classes of History so you know some of the factors
2	that Marx says had been important in the development of capitalism. <u>Who can mention to</u>
3	<u>me some of the factors that Marx and other neo-Marxists said they were leading into</u>
4	<u>development of capitalism? What are some of those factors? Who can tell us some of</u>
5	<u>those factors? What are some of those factors that led to development of capitalism</u>
6	<u>according to Marx? Who went-went through History classes? ... Some of the factors? ...</u>
	LSoc.3

In excerpt (8), the lecturer uses this kind of questioning strategy to solicit information from students that can lead to the development of the content. The questioning sequence begins by posing a frame from which students have to draw information in order to answer the subsequent questions (lines 1-2) '... most of you went through History classes'. Then from part of line 2 through line 6, the lecturer stimulates the students' engagement in the discussion by consistently framing the context in which they should draw from. This practice allows the lecturer to, as Athanasiadou (1990:110) argues; pin down the students thus obliging them to provide the answer. Excerpt (9) illustrates how lecturers use questioning for arousing interest and curiosity.

(9)

1	what it means you replace one species which is European or white with another species
2	which is African or by that time called black. <u>Who is going to do that? Should we say God</u>
3	<u>is going to come from heaven and replace? Is that going to be done in a single day? or you</u>
4	<u>come to the people and say you have to go away? ... it was not possible ...</u>
	LPsc.1

Excerpt (9) illustrates how a lecturer uses questions to stimulate students' critical thinking. The lecturer begins by clarifying the meaning of decolonisation process (lines 1 and 2). Then the lecturer challenges the students by asking them a string of questions in relation to how complex the decolonisation process was (line 2-4). This kind of usage of questioning strategy by the lecturer functions, as Athanasiadou (1990:109) suggests, emphasising the point about the complication associated with the attempt to replace one regime with another. Contrary to the canonically assigned function of questioning of indicating that the speaker lacks or is uncertain of some information (cf. Heritage, 2007:2), in the excerpt the lecturer does not seem to expect any specific response from the students rather uses questioning strategy to indicate what Bolden and Robinson (2011:94) refer to as a challenging stance. This is demonstrated by the lecturer's concluding remark, '... it was not possible ...' (line 4). Considering the fact that this was a Political Science lecture on the issue of decolonisation, this usage aimed at challenging and promoting students' higher-level thinking. Brown and Wragg (1993:4) regard such usage of question very useful in arousing interest and

curiosity in the topic while emphasising it. Excerpt (10) illustrates how lecturers use questioning for class management and engagement with students.

(10)

1	<u>Are we proceeding accordingly?</u> Through this particular phenomena of what we
2	Call law ... tuendelee waheshimiwa? [Should we continue?] <u>Any query ... any</u>
3	<u>question?</u> So I cannot understand what exactly ... <u>should I repeat the subject matter?</u>
4	<u>Should I clarify?</u> The purpose of reselling is "ni kupata [is to get] more
5	than five shillings, <u>si ndiyo?</u> [Isn't it?]. I am not dealing with that particular
6	type of conceptualization ... <u>Sawa?</u> [Ok?]
	LSoc. 2

Excerpt (10) indicates how a lecturer uses questioning for class management and engagement with students. The lecturer discovers that students are not grasping the topic (through their gaze) and wants to know what is going wrong in (line 1). He introduces an idea but still students seem not to follow. Then he asks in Kiswahili if they can continue in (line 2). In line (3-6), the lecturer tries to gain control of the class and asks if he should clarify. All along, the lecturer asks solidarity check questions such as 'Isn't it?' and Ok?, so as to check and manage students behaviours thus gain control of the class (cf. British Council, 2006).

4.2.4 Categorising use of questions in lectures

As has been mentioned earlier the analysis of lecturers' use of questions that follows here is in accordance with the order in which they occurred in the eight lectures. The order begins with tag questions followed by rhetorical questions, closed ended questions and lastly open ended questions.

Table 4.1 shows that out of the 164 instances of questioning, 64 (39%) were of tag questions followed by rhetorical questions 37 (22%), closed ended questions 33 (20%) and lastly open ended questions 30 (18%) instances. In addition, the statistics show that for the entire 400 minutes of lecture time, questions occurred in the following sequence: tag question (after every 6.25 minutes), rhetorical question (after every 1.810 minutes), closed question (after every 1.121 minutes) and open question (after every 1.133 minutes). In the literature on teacher classroom discourse, it is argued that teacher questioning dominates (cf. Wood, 1998:175) thereby forming one of the most central elements of that discourse type (cf. Tsui, 1995:23). The following sections discuss the question types that were used in the lectures in the order presented above.

4.2.4.1 Tag questions

Literature on discourse functions of questions indicates that tag questions facilitate involvement in a talk by asserting a point and inviting a hearer to contribute to it (Quirk et al., 1985:811) thereby talking and then inviting participation in the form of agreement or disagreement (Holmes, 1995:86). More comprehensively, Tottie and Hoffman (2006) describe the functions of tag questions to include asking for information, asking for confirmation from the hearer, emphasizing a speaker's point and challenging a statement. Linguistic investigation of this form of questioning has indicated different types of tag questions. For example, Tottie and Hoffman (2009:31) distinguish between canonical tag questions and invariant tag questions. A canonical tag question takes the following form '*Makes you really think, doesn't it?*' While an invariant tag question has a form like: '*And you suffer from mild asthma, is that right?*' (Kim & Ann, 2008:3). These two examples differ in that in the former the expected 'yes/no' answer is triggered by the use of an auxiliary verb, while in the latter the trigger is an interrogative sentence. Additionally, the canonical tag question mostly invites agreement from the hearer, while the invariant tag question indicates uncertainty and invites confirmation from the hearer. The analysis in this section does not focus on types of tag questions rather it confines itself to the potential functions of tag questions in the data. As noted above, there was one instance of the use of tag question after every 6.25 minutes. Apart from memory check, stimulation and class management functions of the tag questions used by lecturers (cf. 4.2.2), the lecturers also used tag questions to promote interaction (excerpt 11), to encourage students to communicate (excerpt 12) and to build closer connection with students (excerpt 13)

(11)

1	we've been talking about Karl Marx, isn't it? ... we come from, most of
2	you from ... from ... rural areas, isn't it? ... spears ... for hunting ... Isn't it?
3	Thanks to "Pinda mtoto wa mkulima" [Pinda a kid of a farmer] isn't
4	it? ... You remember when we were talking about alienation, isn't it?

LSoc.1

Excerpt (11) indicates how the lecturer uses tag questions to involve students in a conversation about a previous topic in (line 1) then asks them to mention some of the tools of labour that they know from their experience in the rural areas. He revoices the students answer 'spears' (line 2). Then he mentions one of the uses of spears namely 'hunting' (line 2). He further mentions the name of the Prime Minister of Tanzania referring to his humbleness a son of a peasant (line 3). This relating new content to the context that students know by use of tag questions brings the students into the new topic. Finally, the lecturer reminds students of a different related topic "You remember when we

were talking about ... Isn't it?' thereby directing students to relate what they had discussed in previous lectures to the current topic. This usage of tag questions facilitates what Kim and Ann (2008:2) refer to as stimulation of engagement in the discussion as well as challenging hearer's memory. In this case, the lecturer does three things identified by Athanasiadou (1990:110), namely pinning down responsibility, testing and controlling. Excerpt (12) illustrates how a lecturer uses tag questions to build closer connection with students.

(12)

<p>1 If ... ask how many people in this class are selfish, no one is going to raise their hands, 2 <u>uwongo?</u> [Is it a lie?] Who is selfish? Who is nasty? Who is egoistic? but we know deep 3 inside that it's how we are. <u>Eeh?</u> [Isn't it?] <u>Elections are over?</u> Bado? [Not yet?]. 4 And what is the fate of our friend? He won? Or you are still in the ... <u>bado mnachakachua?</u> 5 [or you are still adulterating the results?]. <u>Ameshinda?</u> [Has he won?] ... <u>bado?</u> [Not 6 yet?] ... <u>he is about to win?</u> Eeh? [Isn't it?]</p>	LPSc. 3
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Excerpt (12) is another instance where a lecturer uses real a context familiar to the students to develop or illustrate the relevance of a lesser-known topic. This lecture was delivered during the time students were holding elections of their leaders. The candidate for the presidency of the Dar es Salaam University Students Organisation (DARUSO) was from the same class. The lecturer was talking about human beings being naturally egoistic. Therefore, he decided to concretise the meaning of the concepts by inquiring about the fate of the student who was contesting for the presidency in (lines 4 and 5). Remarkably, the question that illustrated his point most was the closed ended one he asked in Kiswahili using the underlined word (line 4). 'Or you are still in the ... 'bado mnachakachua?' followed by an invariant tag question that required students to confirm if the candidate was about to win the election given that they had tampered with the results (line 6). This term 'chakachua' [adulterate] made newspaper headlines after the 2010 multiparty elections in Tanzania, when most people thought their results had been tampered with, or in technical terms, 'adulterated'.

4.2.4.2 *Rhetorical questions*

Unlike tag questions that stimulate engagement of the listener in a talk, the major characteristic of rhetorical questions is that the speaker does not require the hearer to provide a response. The speaker has the answer already and may provide it (Athanasiadou, 1990:109). In excerpt (13), the lecturer uses this questioning strategy to engage students into thinking seriously about the concept 'globalisation'.

(13)

1	Because if you conceptualise the global village by taking example of your village, you
2	will find that almost all people who live in a certain village they are almost equal in
3	economic, social, and other issues. ... Countries such as Japan and India, they are
4	benefiting from globalisation, <u>but what about Tanzania? Are we benefiting as USA?</u>
5	The question of the global village, <u>who are the members of the global village? Do they</u>
6	<u>access resources equally as in your home?</u> Because you can have just one river ... Now,
7	<u>in the global village, can you do the same? Can you get the same amount of water?</u>
	LPsc.2

The lecturer sets a frame by advising students to conceptualise the concept 'global village' from their local knowledge of a village (line 1 and 2). She explains the real situation as is happening in the global village by mentioning some of the countries that benefit from the global village (line 3 and 4). Then she introduces the contrastive question '... but what about Tanzania?' (line 4) and follows with a series of questions challenging students to critically think about the membership of the village, the equity in accessing the resources in the village. She concludes by asking the students to compare the way they access water in the village river and the way they can access resources in the global village. According to Athanasiadou (1990:109), this questioning strategy helps the speaker express emotions. In excerpt (13), the Political Science lecturer expresses her attitude regarding globalisation by means of enquiring from her students about the position of Tanzania in the global village. By using the analogy of common-river in a village, the lecturer manages to engage students in a higher level of thinking. Excerpt (14) illustrates the use of rhetorical question for a similar function.

(14)

1	What it means you replace one species which is European or white with
2	another species, which is African or by that time called black. <u>Who is going to</u>
3	<u>do that? Should we say God is going to come from heaven and replace? Is that</u>
4	<u>going to be done in a single day? Or you come to the people and say 'you have</u>
5	<u>to go away?'</u> ... it was not possible ...
	LPsc.1

Excerpt (14), which has been generally introduced as excerpt (9) under section 4.2.3, illustrates how a lecturer uses rhetorical questions to explain a situation and challenge students' to think critically. The topic underway is on the concept 'decolonisation' the lecturer starts by clarifying what the concept 'decolonisation' means, that is 'to replace one species with another' (line 1 and 2). Thereafter, she uses rhetorical questions to emphasise how difficult the process was (lines 2-5). As Gabrielatos (1997:7) comments, the pedagogical usefulness of this kind of questioning is not only to challenge students but also to provide them with divergent thinking.

4.2.4.3 Closed ended questions

Table 4.1 indicates that lecturers used more closed ended questions than open ended questions. It has been observed that closed ended questions are convergent questions because they limit the respondent to one correct answer (cf. Gabrielatos, 1997:3), thus denying a listener an opportunity to produce more than a minimal answer, often just to give what the first speaker wants to hear (cf. Dalton-Puffer, 2007:97). It is likely that the nature of interaction in big lectures where lecturers control 99% of all the talk is responsible for such a form of questioning. Excerpts (15) (16) and (17) illustrate the occurrence of closed ended questions in the data. It seems that closed ended questions are part of what is generic to university lectures due to limited interactivity.

(15)

1	<u>who can mention to me some of the factors that Marx and other neo-</u>
2	<u>Marxists said they were leading into development of capitalism? What</u>
3	<u>are some of those factors? Who can tell us some of those factors?</u>

LSoc.3

Excerpt (15) illustrates how a lecturer uses closed ended questions to elicit students' answers based on the previous lectures (line 1). Although the answers sought by the questions are short, only referring to specific content that students know, such questioning strategy is likely to stimulate students' attention during the delivery of a lecture on the factors that led to the development of capitalism, which is a continuation of excerpt (2).

(16)

1	and now what is coming out and what I would like you grasp at the end of
2	this lecture is that the sovereign states ... are now being eroded and are
3	Now being interfered in decision making. I think you know what
4	sovereignty of the state is. <u>Do you still remember?</u>

LPsc.2

Excerpt (16) illustrates how a lecturer uses a closed question to trigger a 'yes/no' answer. Dalton-Puffer (2007) relates closed ended questions to such kind of answers while Gabrielatos (1997) argues that such kinds of questions can easily, but not always, be answered by 'yes/no' forms. Nevertheless, the lecturer's use of the question '*Do you still remember?*' (line 4) seems to require more than just a 'yes/no' answer from the students. In the context of the lecture, the lecturer uses the question to challenge students' memory and relate the current topic to previous one.

(17)

1	...that is actually a major contribution in sociological thinking. We ask <u>what</u>	
2	<u>is it?</u> ... what is it primary? <u>Is it the idea or material condition?</u> What ... <u>what</u>	
3	<u>was there first?</u> Is like thinking of a chicken and hen and an egg. <u>What was it</u>	
4	<u>primary?</u> <u>Is it chicken or egg?</u>	
		LSoc.1

Excerpt (17) indicates how a lecturer uses closed ended questioning to engage students in critical thinking while at the same time controlling the floor. He uses a questioning strategy to lead students into his discussion of complex concepts about idealism, using the old philosophically illustrative question of the egg and chicken, as to what was first. This does not only stimulate students thinking but it also brings a sense of humour thus preserving students' attention. Use of humour is listed among the good classroom practices in lectures in that it provides interest and emotional release to students (cf. Soliman, 1999:7).

4.2.4.4 *Open ended questions*

Table 4.1 indicates that across the eight lectures there were 30 instances of open ended questions although the difference between these and closed ended questions is insignificant (only 3 instances). Open ended questions have the potential of allowing the listener an opportunity to say more than just producing one expected or preferred answer (Dalton-Puffer, 2007:97; Gabrielatos 1997:3)). Excerpt (18) illustrates some of the instances of the use of open ended questions in the data.

(18)

1	Authority is power that is cloaked or nested ... They are, they seem to be magical	
2	words but they are not. Authority is power cloaked or nested in legitimacy. I want to	
3	introduce the concept legitimacy. Authority is power confound in legitimacy or	
4	rightfulness. It is power that is embodied in legitimacy and rightfulness. <u>What is</u>	
5	<u>right?</u> Authority is the right. You have the right. <u>Where do you get that right?</u> We	
6	shall see where you will get that right from shortly.	
		LPSc.4

Excerpt (18) illustrates how a lecturer uses open ended question not only to allow students freedom to provide more information on the topic but also to challenge and engage them into critical thinking. The lecturer is explaining the concept 'authority' (line 1) but also shows how the concept relates with the concept 'legitimacy' (line 2). The lecturer elaborates the relationship between the two concepts (line 2-4) and introduces a stimulating question 'what is right?' (line 4-5), followed by an emphatic question 'where do you get the right?' (line 5). Finally, he assures students that he is going to relieve them of the burden of providing the answer to question 'we shall see where you will

get that right from shortly (line 6). This provocative use of questions is likely to hold students attention and interest in the topic (cf. Soliman, 1999:7).

(19)

1	<u>So, you say the idea, why? Can you explain? Why do you think the idea of having a</u>
2	<u>shirt was primary than ... than ... than the material shirt? Can you speak up ... so that</u>
3	<u>people can hear you at the back? So, you are ... you are confusing me! He is saying</u>
4	<u>you can't have a shirt without having the material condition of making a shirt. Enhe?</u>
5	Yes! What's what's yours?
	LSoc.1

Excerpt (19) illustrates the only instance where the lecturer actively engages students in the interaction through questioning. He was moving around asking specific students questions (line 1 and 2) and revoicing their answers to elicit more answers from others (line 4). Thus on this very rare occasion the lecturer became truly interactive, through his asking of an open ended question and selecting the person who should answer. A question and answer activity has been documented as one of the most effective ways by which speakers achieve and negotiate their communicative goals (cf. Bolden & Robinson, 2009:122). The lecturer sets the topic about 'what comes first between an idea and material thing'. Students provide different answers and the lecturer continues to probe through more questions while focusing them to the topic through revoicing (line 4). O'Connor and Michaels (1993:318) observe that teacher re-voicing creates a shared classroom culture that facilitates students' engagement with the relevant academic content.

4.2.5 Exemplifying code switching in lectures

Literature on language selection and use acknowledges that code switching is a common practice used to indicate social, cultural and ethnic identities among bilinguals in bilingual communities (cf. Shin, 2010; Foley, 1997; Myers-Scotton, 1993). Its major function is to facilitate the achievement of interactional goals of interlocutors (cf. Shin & Milroy, 2000; Shin, 2010). Moreover, studies on this phenomenon have been from a wide range of perspectives: formal or structural linguistic (cf. Berk-Seligson, 1986; Poplack, 2001), psycholinguistic (cf. Taha 2009), sociolinguistic (Myers-Scotton, 1993), and from a purist perspective (cf. Grosjan, 1982) where it is seen as "contaminating" and therefore dismissed purely as bad practice. For example, Grosjan (1982:157) regards it as an ungrammatical language use characteristic to semi lingual speakers. Notwithstanding the stigma, practically code switching in bilingual societies is increasingly becoming a useful communicative strategy in expressing different functions such as those described above.

The diversity in the studies on the phenomenon has resulted in a multiplicity of definitions of the concept. For example, Swann and Sinka (2007:242) observe that the definitions of the concept vary so much that it can also encompass switching between dialects (cf. Gumperz's, 1992 concept of 'situational code switching'). For the case of this study, code switching refers to language alternation between English and Kiswahili by native Kiswahili speaking lecturers at the University of Dar es Salaam. This study focuses primarily on the various functions of code switching in bilingual or multilingual classrooms, but necessarily also attends to psycholinguistic aspects of knowing and using two or more languages.

Literature on code switching shows a number of comparatively similar functions in different bilingual or multilingual situations. Gumperz (1982:59) recognizes code-switching as a discourse strategy for bilinguals. Its functions are to make quotations, to facilitate address specification, to introduce interjections, to assist in making reiterations, to effect message qualification, and to express involvement in the message or social and cultural group in context. Myers-Scotton (1993:476) argues that code switching occurs at any linguistic level in the advent of negotiating interpersonal relationships and signalling social group memberships. She further presents two major reasons that prompt speakers' use of code switching namely to cover up a gap for a missing item in the expected language. The second reason is the speakers' creativity in the process of negotiating a public face. Linguistic studies on language choice and use that report the regularity of code switching among bilingual teachers have been conducted at both lower level of education (Shin, 2010; Uys, 2010; Rose, 2006; Mwinsheikhe, 2009; Rubagumya, 2008) and higher levels of education (cf. Taha, 2009; Li, 2008; Zabrodskaja, 2009, 2008, 2007), with comparatively similar results.

The number of studies regarding code switching in multilingual classrooms at tertiary level in different parts of the world is increasingly becoming large. Some of them are the study on code switching between Arabic and English at the University of Khartoum (cf. Taha, 2009), the study on code switching between Cantonese and English at the Hong Kong Institute of Education (Li, 2008), and the study on code switching between Estonian and Russian at Tallinn University (Zabrodskaja, 2009, 2008, 2007). These studies show that bilingual lecturers use two languages to teach the academic content by switching between the languages spontaneously or intentionally. Zabrodskaja (2007:127) finds that lecturers decide when to code switch between Estonian and Russian in order to facilitate comprehension and meaningful involvement. Taha (2009:336) reports that lecturers use code switching between English and Arabic as both a pedagogical resource and a strategy to

achieve communicative goals such as effective classroom interaction, topic change and solidarity with students. Li (2008:84) finds that lecturers code switch between Cantonese and English to achieve, among other communicative goals, clarification of difficult concepts, introduction and or consolidation of students' bilingual lexicon, and reduction of social distance with students' in order to assist them psychologically. Although the language policy at the University of Dar es Salaam does not officially allow the same practices as the Sudanese and Estonian context refers to, similar practices do take place. The regularity of code switching in bilingual and multilingual context, also in education, will be discussed below.

As noted earlier in chapter two, in this study code switching is considered in the sense of Poplack (2001:262) as referring to the practice of bilingual or multilingual speakers of using two or more languages in discourse, either mixing them in introducing words or shorter phrases, or switching between the two languages with longer units of each. As noted earlier, in classroom settings, literature on classroom practices suggests that most bilingual teachers use two languages to teach the academic content. They switch between the languages spontaneously or intentionally (cf. Taha, 2009:336) and as explained by Zabrodskaia (2007:124), they may decide to code switch in order to facilitate comprehension and meaningful involvement. Regarding various forms of code switching, from a structural perspective, literature on bilingual language use refers to two main types of code switching, namely "inter-sentential" and "intra-sentential" (cf. Poplack, 2001, 1980).

Table 4.1 shows that in the eight lectures there were 100 instances of code switching in the data. The following examples illustrate how lecturers at the University of Dar es Salaam code switch to resume an earlier topic or content (excerpt 20), to translate a concept (excerpt 21) and to manage the classroom behaviour of students (excerpt 22).

(20)

1	<u>kama nilivyokwisha kusema hapo awali</u> {as I said earlier on} politics does not only
2	involve ... does not only involve the identification as well as the specification of the
3	three institutions of the state, <u>kama nilivyosema</u> {as I said}, the Legislature, the
4	Judiciary and the Executive.
	LSoc.2

Excerpt (20) illustrates how code switching facilitates cohesion and topic development. In this instance, the lecturer switches to Kiswahili to make an reference to a point mentioned earlier in (line 1) and repeats it in a conclusion (line 3). This instance also shows that the lecturer puts some emphasis on the three institutions of the state in (line 3-4). In The lecturer uses code switching to refer to an earlier topic thus signalling topic connectivity and continuity and to facilitate emphatic

repetition. Taha (2009:342) reports a similar trend at the University of Sudan by which lecturers code switch from English to Arabic during classroom interaction to repeat and elaborate materials presented in English.

(21)

1	They had to, in Swahili we say <u>kuvumilia</u> {to tolerate}. Africans recognized
2	that the governments of Europe and America, especially Europe, had come to
3	Africa ... Because, as I told you this man who is called Leopold said that we came
4	to perpetuate ourselves <u>yaani'tumekuja kukaa siyo kuvisit</u> {that is, we came to
5	stay not to visit }

LPsc.1

Excerpt (21) shows how a lecturer uses code switching for translational, emphasis and cohesion purposes. In line (1) the lecturer translates a Kiswahili concept 'kuvumilia' [to tolerate] that expresses her feelings regarding the hardship that local community's forefathers endured under colonialism. Then she adds a further emotional touch to it by translating an English quotation given more than 30 minutes earlier in the same lecture in Kiswahili (line 4). This instance also functions as a resumptive repetition in this case, functioning to focus the topic thus indicating how complex the use of code switching in a multilingual situation is. Taha (2009:342) notes that, apart from repetition, teacher code switching facilitates translations, elaborations and explanations of materials presented in English.

(22)

1	When we discuss the relationship between a state and what we call the civil society ...
2	are we proceeding accordingly? ... "hata dakika ishirini hazijafika watu wanaanza ...
3	{Even before twenty minutes have elapsed people start ... } mjitahidi,
4	tujitahidi, tujitahidi, nafikiri inaeleweka vizuri si ndiyo? {Keep up! let's keep up! let's
5	keep up!} Nafikiri inaeleweka vizuri si ndiyo? ... I think it is well understood, isn't it?}
6	... I was saying that politics ...

LSoc.2

In excerpt (22) a lecturer uses code switching to manage the behaviour of students when they seem to be relapsing before even twenty minutes of the lecture thus not following the lecture (line 2). The lecturer also uses code switching to advise students to keep up for the lecture (line 2-3) while at the same time checking if he holds his control of the class by means of confirmation questions (line 2, 4, 5). Shin (2010:111) notes that teacher code switching can function to reinforce directives, mitigate classroom disorder resultantly emphasising the footing of a teacher as an authority.

4.2.6 Categorising code switching in lectures

The assumption guiding this analysis is that code switching is not a new phenomenon among university of Dar es Salaam lecturers although it has not received serious attention. The analysis of lecturers' use of code switching focuses on how the classroom practice occurred in the transcription. The label "inter-sentential code switching" was assigned if code switching occurred between sentences and the label "intra-sentential code switching" was assigned if it occurred within the same sentence. Table 4.1 indicates that out of the 100 instances of code switching intra-sentential code switching occurred 70 (70%) times while inter-sentential code switching occurred 30 (30%) times. This means that in the 400 minutes of lecture time, intra-sentential code switching occurred after every 6 minutes while inter-sentential code switching occurred after every 13.3 minutes. The fact that code switching is the last in the list of the most frequently occurring propositional discourse strategies in the data may imply that the lecturers observe the university requirement to use English throughout a lecture session. However, the use of Kiswahili by all lecturers, though at different levels during the observed lectures, indicates how it is difficult to sanction an individual against resorting to a familiar language in case he or she deems it necessary. In section 4.2.5.2, I demonstrate the occurrence of intra-sentential code switching and in section 4.2.5.3; I demonstrate the occurrence of inter-sentential code switching.

4.2.6.1 *Intra sentential code-switching*

As noted earlier, intra-sentential code switching occurs within a sentence in a single turn or stretch of discourse. The findings of this study indicate that lecturers used more intra-sentential code switching than inter-sentential code switching. Excerpt (23) shows how lecturers used intra-sentential code switching for clarifying and advising purposes. Excerpt (24) illustrates how lecturers use code switching to clarify a point and excerpt (25) illustrates how they use it for exemplification. Gulzar (2009:37) finds that in such instances code switching does not only assist the lecturer in clarifying, advising and giving directives, but also in simplifying expression.

(23)

1	When you see the country is peaceful ... there is somebody who must have
2	done something. <u>Na ndiyo maana</u> [and that is why] as a new
3	generation ... you should also aim at ... trying to pay <u>mchango wako</u>
4	[your contribution] ...

LPsc.1

In excerpt (23), the lecturer continues a topic about what Africans who struggled for the independence of Africa contributed a great deal that being the reason why countries like Tanzania are peaceful (line 1). She code switches to Kiswahili to clarify what the new generation should do to emulate the ancestors (line 2). She finally advises students, as a new generation on what they should try to do "... trying to pay mchango wako'.

(24)

1	So this particular relationship between these two sets of individuals is
2	mediated by inanimate thing called " <u>gari</u> " [car]. So through " <u>gari</u> "
3	this particular power of these particular individuals is mediated.

LSoc.2

In excerpt (excerpt 24), the lecturer is explaining how the owner of a commuter bus relates to the driver and the conductor of the bus through the bus itself. In demonstrating how that relationship exists, the lecturer uses the Kiswahili word for car 'through the gari [car]' to clarify how in materialist contexts power relations can be mediated by inanimate things.

(25)

1	Now, this one it depends upon your office, upon your office, not the
2	office holder, he may be the shortest, but he is the boss; the Chief
3	Executive Officer; shortest, shortest man like a <u>mbilikimo</u> [dwarf] but
4	is the boss because of the position he or she is holding.

LPsc.4

In excerpt (25), the lecturer differentiates different types of authority and clarifies how they differ (line 1-2). Then he uses a simile '... shortest man like a mbilikimo [dwarf] to emphasise the point that an individual's physical characteristics do not count when it comes to issues of authority. This usage creates not only humour but also creates a sense of belonging because it uses the term 'mbilikimo', which is very familiar to students and it is often used as derogatory when remarking on peoples height.

4.2.6.2 *Inter sentential code-switching*

As opposed to intra sentential code switching, inter sentential code switching occurred when lecturers code switched between sentences. The following excerpts illustrate how lecturers used inter sentential code switching to achieve different communicative goals such as to elaborate a process (excerpt 26) and to check understanding (excerpt 27). Uys (2010:33ff) finds that lecturers

may code switch to explain a point, confirm understanding, encourage students' participation and give general instructions.

(26)

1	A process through which they acquire a culture, which is viewed as consistent,	
2	coherent, definite and so, in the process of growing up people acquire a culture.	
3	<u>Wanakunywa ile</u> [they drink that culture] as a process, as a passive process	
		LSoc.4

In excerpt (26), the lecturer explains how the people acquire through a meticulous process. The lecturer compares the process to drinking. 'Wanakunywa ile ...' [they drink that culture] (line 3). This code switching practice helps the lecturer simplify his expression by means of a simple but very familiar process (drinking). The usage also helps the lecturer create humour thus holding students' attention and interest.

(27)

1	... rather than the continuing relations with the metropolitan countries.	
2	Topic number two ... " <u>hiyo mmeichukua?</u> " [Did you take that?]. Should I	
3	repeat?	
		LPsc.2

In excerpt (27), the lecturer is reading to students a series of seminar questions for them to prepare for next seminar session. Whenever she reads it students rumble to indicate that they have not written down the question properly. After re-reading the seminar question for several times, the lecturer resorts to use of Kiswahili to crosscheck if students have written down the question properly '... hiyo mmeichukua?' [Did you take that?].

In summary, these findings presented in the above examples reflect the observation by Zabrodskaja (2007) that bilingual teachers use two languages to teach the academic content. They switch between the languages spontaneously or intentionally. They may further decide when to code switch in order to facilitate comprehension and meaningful involvement (Zabrodskaja, 2007:124). Generally, the lecturers code switch between English and Kiswahili to perform social functions such as to advise students to work hard so that they may contribute to national development, to encourage them to persevere in studies, to give them directives, to create humour, to socialise with students, to clarify, to emphasise and to simplify expression. This implies that the lecturer believes that students can easily be encouraged to pay attention in their familiar language, Kiswahili. In the study on how teachers in secondary schools in South Africa code switch during classroom interaction. These findings suggest that code switching, if taken as a strategy and not deficit, can contribute in teaching

and learning in multilingual societies such as Tanzania. In that light, it is important, as Li (2008:1) suggests that in multilingual situations there should be empirical studies to view the circumstances under which classroom code-switching is necessary, identify pedagogically sound and productive code-switching practices, and disseminate good code-switching practices through demonstrations, workshops, and teacher-training.

4.2.7 Lecturers' motivation for use of discourse strategies

Section 4.2 discussed the lecturers' use of different types of repetition, questioning and code switching practices in lectures at the University of Dar es Salaam. This section relates the observed lecturers' classroom practices to their interpretations during interviews. As explained earlier (cf. section 4.1), the interview data was collected in order to supplement and check the empirical data obtained in the lectures. After reading the lecture transcripts and identifying the most notable propositional discourse strategies, I conducted an interview with all participating lecturers specifically seeking information regarding their reasons for using the three strategies in the way that they actually did. It should be noted that the interviews were not based on the sub types of the identified strategies because it would have involved technical aspects that were not necessarily obvious to the participants. Considering the sensitivity of the topic, which on the surface looked like intrusive into lecturers' linguistic competence, I had to avoid the use of questions that implied a probe into the participants' linguistic knowledge. The interview data focused on two major topics. The first paid attention to those strategies that were observed in the lecture transcripts. The second paid attention to those strategies that the lecturers mentioned in addition to the ones I mentioned. Moreover, as part of the enquiry, the interview asked questions concerning the lecturers' views on how the English only policy affects students' academic progress and whether Kiswahili could equally function as LoI. The interview also sought lecturers' elaboration on how they assist students once they realise that they are battling with English during lectures and how they regard the strategies they use in terms of effectiveness. Finally, the interview sought lecturers' comment on whether the strategies they use vary when they teach other classes besides the first years.

4.2.7.1 *Lecturers' motivation for use of repetition in lectures*

All the eight lecturers reported that they use repetition hoping that it facilitates learning. Three major themes that emerged from the data are that the lecturers use repetition to link topics (excerpt 28), to revise or re emphasise a previous lecture or lecture content (excerpt 29) and to clarify a point (excerpt 30).

(28)

This [repetition] makes it possible for students to recognize links when learning ... I do these things [repetition] believing that repetitions are both important and helpful for students learning any subject and help them to link topics ...

LSoc.1

According to excerpt (28), the lecturer uses repetition to create linkage not only within one subject but also across subjects and topics. This means that the lecturer does not only repeat content to create topic continuity and cohesion during lecture sessions, but he also necessarily repeats content in other related fields of knowledge and at different levels of education to help students realise the connection between knowledge acquired in lower levels of learning and that acquired from other courses at university. This practice is likely to help students apply the knowledge they acquire in different situations thus actively engage in the learning process.

(29)

You know repetition ... normally when you introduce a subject matter there are different approaches. You can start from where you left the other time and when you are concluding, as a way of recap, you can go back to what you have covered in that lecture session as a matter of picking up the basic elements that you would like students to internalise and grasp. I repeated as a way of re emphasising.

LPsc.4

Excerpt (29) implies that the lecturer purposefully uses repetition to help students internalise the content taught. He acknowledges that repetition assists him in choosing the type of teaching approach to use, such as making a revision of the previous topic. The lecturer also uses repetition to conclude the topic or summarise the content thus emphasising the basic points for students to grasp. Content systematically presented that way is likely to be easily internalised and processed in the students' memory thus be readily retrievable for specific academic purposes such as answering of examination questions.

(30)

If you used certain concepts or certain vocabularies, you need to change them so as to make them easier so that they can understand you. ... You can actually see that by the manner you have taught this student has understood. You can see the facial expression. If it shows that students are still not understanding, then you repeat that point but by giving some more examples or by repeating in different language and so on, so that they understand.

LSoc.3

Excerpt (30) illustrates how the lecturer uses repetition in response to students' behaviour that signifies non-understanding of the subject matter. The lecturer does not only repeat the concepts but also provides examples and varies the linguistic choice to simplify students' grasp of the content.

4.2.7.2 *Lecturers facilitate classroom interaction*

Generally excerpts (28, 29, 30) above illustrate that lecturers purposefully use linguistic resources such as repetition to facilitate classroom interaction. As Tannen (2007:9) comments, repetition creates texture and coherence in a text or conversation. Literature on the functions of repetition in classroom settings indicates that interlocutors mainly use it to mitigate comprehension problems. Watterson (2008:392) regards this practice as effective in facilitating listener understanding. Bjorkman's (2011) study on the use of ELF in a Swedish university established that the major function of repetition was to emphasise. Kaur (2010:205) commends repetition for increasing comprehensibility and accessibility of a prior talk by providing the hearer with additional information. Generally, Norrick (1987:245) regards repetition as an inherent tool in conversation that helps speakers repeat their own conversations and echo conversations of their interlocutors. It facilitates task completion, rendering of discourse coherence and realisation of particular conversational strategies.

4.2.7.3 *Lecturers motivation for use of questions in lectures*

Section 4.2.4 categorised the lecturers' use of different types of questions. This section relates the lecturers' use of questions in the classroom to their responses during the interview. The lecturers were asked whether the observed use of questions during classroom interaction was considered deliberate or merely following a familiar lecture framework. In response, all eight lecturers reported that they are aware of their regular use of such question modes and that they do so to achieve various communicative goals. The goals include checking for understanding (excerpt 31), attracting students' attention and pressing them for participation in the content of the lecture (excerpt 32). One lecturer went further, mentioning that he also uses questions as a means to urging students to read, as they lack a good academic reading culture (excerpt 33).

(31)

... you know, questioning is used sometimes to crosscheck if the students understand what you are teaching. ... Therefore, when teaching, questioning helps students to participate in the class. It helps them understand and also this helps me to evaluate if I have successfully met my lecture objectives. When you ask a question and they answer you are in a situation to correct them so that no rote learning can take place. You know if they go for their discussions without a clear understanding of what you have taught, they might discuss things wrongly. You know these students lie to each other when they are discussing if they did not understand well in the lectures. As well when the teacher responds to their questions it gives them consensus to doubts that might have caused them misunderstand certain points. Therefore, questioning is an important strategy in teaching here.

LSoc.1

In excerpt (31), the lecturer argues that he uses questions to check for understanding, to stimulate students' participation, to evaluate his own teaching, to prevent rote learning by students, and to resolve students' misunderstanding of the content. The conscious monitoring of the teaching and learning process is a response to the lecturer's awareness of the possible communication breakdown that may result from the use of English language as LoI.

(32)

One is to crosscheck whether you are on the same frequency and sometimes you use questions to attract responses as a way of ... because you are not teaching tabula rasa. These are people who are supposed to have some knowledge because at the beginning you give them what to read. A good student should read even before the lecture, so, is also a way of encouraging them to read. Our students don't read extensively and intensively but some of the good students would read the topic before you deliver in the lecture ...

LPsc.4

Similar to excerpt (31), in excerpt (32) the lecturer argues that he uses questioning to check students' understanding. Moreover, he uses questions to attract students' responses, as they also possess some prior knowledge of the subject matter. Thus, the lecturer uses questioning strategy as a means to stimulate students' latent knowledge thereby encouraging them to develop a good academic reading culture.

(33)

Asking them questions ... It is a good way of helping them to think about the materials which I am teaching instead of just going on without, I mean, without asking them anything. If I ask them and feel that I don't get the answer, so it gives me some information. It is information to me that probably they haven't understood or maybe they don't know to answer. So, I think it is a way for me to find out.

LSoc.4

According to excerpt (33), lecturer uses questions not only for checking comprehension but also for self-evaluation on the part of the lecturer so that he can improve on the teaching methods. Like the previous examples, the focus is on soliciting as much information from the students as possible so that the lecturer can plan on how to mitigate possible communication breakdown.

4.2.7.4 Lecturers motivation for code switching in lectures

When asked as to elaborate on observed practices of code switch between English and Kiswahili, all the eight lecturers reported that they resort to Kiswahili once they realize that students do not quite follow or understand the subject matter (excerpt 34). One lecturer went even further to admit that the situation compels him to code switch although it is against the university regulation (35).

(34)

Of course I use Kiswahili when I want students to understand me more. I decide to use a story or explain a concept in Kiswahili because I know my students. When I use Kiswahili they start wondering ... was this the concept? ... It is as, I said, when I repeat twice and ask them if they understand and they say no! I use Kiswahili with simple examples in kiswahili then I am convinced that they have understood. I know that may be they have not written down the concept, but at least they have understood it.

LPsc.2

In excerpt (34), the lecturer argues that she uses Kiswahili during lectures to facilitate understanding, by providing some kind of translation, exemplification, simplification and mitigation of spelling errors.

(35)

I normally talk in Kiswahili. In the requirements of the university we are supposed to talk in English and not Kiswahili. But I do violate it especially when I realize that students cannot understand concepts or theory in English, I decide to use Kiswahili hoping that they may grasp the concepts. Although I am not sure if they understand if I use Kiswahili, I normally believe that if I use Kiswahili at a certain point they will be able to understand better than if I persist in using English ...

LSoc.2

According to excerpt (35), the lecturer uses Kiswahili with the same purpose with others, which is to facilitate understanding. The lecturer's concern that the students do not understand the content obliges him to defy the English only regulation. Nevertheless, the lecturer seems to be uncertain regarding the real contribution that using Kiswahili achieves during lectures.

(36)

In some cases, I have a tendency of asking, like in my class, if there is anyone who doesn't speak Swahili because I know that at some point I will have to switch to Kiswahili. You know, so as to make things clearer. So, usually I have this tendency of asking if there is any non-Swahili speaker. I have to be strict. I try as much as possible to speak strictly in English. But if they are all Kiswahili speakers, every now and then I will try, like if I say something and I see, you know, people are looking at you as if you are from another planet, so I will switch to Kiswahili so that, like when I want to break down things, to give more explanations, clarifications. Then you have to use Kiswahili.

LPsc.3

In excerpt (36), the lecturer argues that he code switches to clarify concepts, but only when there are no non-Swahili speakers in the class. This indicates how deliberate the practice is because the lecturer understands the situation the students are in because of learning in an unfamiliar language.

All the above lecturers' contributions regarding their reasons for using the different discourse strategies largely relate to the using of English as lingua franca in higher education. Studies on how lecturers and students use English as lingua franca indicate that they observe a careful choice and use of linguistic and non linguistic forms to facilitate communication. As Björkman (2012:960) remarks, English as Lingua Franca setting is complex not only to students but also to lecturers thus requiring lecturers to invest greatly in different strategies to facilitate classroom communication. Moreover, literature on the use of English as lingua franca indicates that lecturers in such settings pay attention to deploy several strategies to mitigate communication breakdown. These strategies include what has been identified as use of questions (cf. Morell, 2004), rephrasing or repetition (cf. Swales, 2001), and signalling of important content (cf. Björkman, 2011), Code switching (cf. Taha, 2009). Moreover, the data analyzed here relates to the issues of bilingualism and multilingualism. The identified discourse strategies are characteristic of speakers in bilingual situations. Literature on bilingual speakers, such as the lecturers involved in this study, indicates that bilinguals access certain advantages that monolinguals do not. It is argued, for example, that bilingual teachers use two languages interchangeably to teach the same content (cf. Zabrodskaia, 2007). It has also been observed that bilingual speakers are advantaged in being able to use two languages at the same time (cf. Bialystok, 2011) and being context sensitive (cf. Cenoz, 2003).

4.2.8 Lecturers motivation for use of other strategies

In the interviews lecturers could give additional information and answer probing questions in order to allow wider perspective on why the lecturers used not only the observed discourse strategies but

also possible other strategies during classroom interaction. The first set of questions in the interview focused on how lecturers view students in terms of English language proficiency, challenges they face having to learn in English, and how lecturers consider their task of facilitating learning. The interview sought lecturers' opinion on which language should function as LoI or as supporting the current LoI. The second set of questions focussed on how the strategies that lecturers use vary according to levels of learners, and on the lecturers' evaluation of the effectiveness of the strategies they use in facilitating teaching and learning. The following sections present and discuss responses from the lecturers in relation to the two sets of interview questions.

4.2.8.1 Views on students' proficiency related challenges

Regarding the envisaged All the eight lecturers admitted that generally most students relatively have low proficiency in the English language and that this has an impact on their academic progress (excerpt 37).

(37)

I can say that for the time I have been teaching at the University of Dar es salaam, the ability of my students in the Department of Sociology to communicate or explain something in English language has been very low and this in a way has been affecting their ability to understand issues we teach. This is because we teach in English and so, for one who doesn't master English, it becomes very difficult to understand concepts which we use

LSoc.2

Excerpt (37) demonstrates the lecturers' concern about the challenges that learners face due to their low English language proficiency. The lecturer observes that from his experience students face obstacles learning in English, which in turn affects their ability to communicate in the language.

4.2.8.2 Lecturers' intervention

Concerning how the lecturers intervene to facilitate learning, all the lecturers reported that they use more strategies than just the major three identified in the transcripts, such as exemplifying and writing on the board (excerpts 38 and 39).

(38)

When you are preparing the lesson it has to be as if you are making pulp. You need to prepare it the way it will be easier for one to eat. Similarly, you need to make the lesson in an easier way otherwise all the students will be left puzzled. If it is about terminologies, you need to soften the terms such that the lesson is presented in an easiest language possible. If the class has no foreigner, examples can be given in Swahili especially for first year who have never learned sociology before. This can help them understand easily because they all know Swahili. Otherwise, you will be singing new songs to them. For first years who have never learned sociology, these terminologies will be compared to deep sleep. You are talking of sociological imagination; you won't be understood. Therefore, you need to reduce what you are teaching to the level that can be manageable to learn. Sometimes you need to repeat the whole lesson to make sure students understand what you have taught them.

LSoc.1

Excerpt (38) indicates that a lecturer simplifies the input in English in order to facilitate understanding. He compares the process of preparing the lesson to preparing 'pulp'. He uses examples in Kiswahili and sometimes he repeats the whole lesson.

(39)

I do that because I know that our students have a problem. You may mention a concept; they may not even know how to spell it. So, you write it so that they don't miss-spell the word, so that they know how the word is written. You do it purposely and it will help them in their note taking exercise.

LPsc.4

According to excerpt (39) lecturers use the white or chalk board to facilitate understanding of concepts that seem new to students. This strategy helps them not attend to students' spelling problems emanating from the lecturers' use of unfamiliar English terminologies characteristic of university level of learning, but also help students develop good note taking skills.

4.2.8.3 *Lecturers' views on LoI*

The lecturers gave different opinions as to which language should be used as LoI in Tanzania's higher education. Four lecturers showed interest in more use of Kiswahili; three preferred the current English only policy, while one remained ambivalent (excerpts 40, 41 and 42).

(40)

I would go for Kiswahili. I have always been open. Well, definitely even nowadays many people are teaching, they invariably do not talk all the time in English. They can change some times to Kiswahili. It is easier to talk in Kiswahili. But maybe I think because we are used. We have been taught in English and the way you read many of the books are still written in English and so on. So, sometimes it is easy to use English so that even when we shall be teaching in Kiswahili, you will find that many people will be using, throwing in some English words. I suppose moving to the Kiswahili will be, yeah, will be a better way. I would go for Kiswahili.

LPsc.3

Excerpt (40) illustrates how some lecturers, as it is true in many postcolonial societies, feel that their local languages are not developed enough to function as LoI. The lecturer despite admitting to the fact that it is easier to talk in Kiswahili, he notes some potential obstacles to its effectiveness because most learning and teaching materials are still written in English.

(41)

Well, definitely even nowadays many people are teaching, invariably they do not talk all the time in English. They can change some times to Kiswahili. It is easier to talk in Kiswahili. But maybe I think because we are used. We have been taught in English and the way you read many of the books are still written in English and so on. So sometimes it is easy to use English so that even when we shall be teaching in Kiswahili, you will find that many people will be using, throwing in some English words. I suppose moving to the Kiswahili will be, yeah, will be a better way. I would go for Kiswahili.

LSoc.4

Like excerpt (40), excerpt (41) illustrates how lecturers feel that it is difficult to move completely from English to Kiswahili. The lecturer acknowledges the current practice by which they are code switches between English and Kiswahili and predicts that code switching will continue even when lecturers will be allowed to use Kiswahili as LoI that people will also switch to English.

(42)

In my personal opinion, I say that Kiswahili should be used as a language of instruction in universities of this country because this is the language we use every day but we have not developed and computerized it, to write and read it technically. We know how to use Kiswahili in normal talk but we need Kiswahili that can be used to teach subjects such as chemistry, social sciences and so forth. There is technical vocabulary which students should be familiar with. For me, what we reiterate every day is that if we can develop a Kiswahili that can be used in chemistry and so forth, not only today, tomorrow or after tomorrow, it will be very useful. But for now, since we have not developed technical Kiswahili, let us continue with English.

LSoc.3

Excerpt (42) illustrates the opinion of lecturers who support the use of Kiswahili as LoI in universities, even if some have reservations. According to the lecturer, assigning Kiswahili the role

of LoI would be because it is a language of wider communication. However, the lecturer cautions that the attempt to allow Kiswahili such role would be futile if there are no stringent measures to upgrade the language to the level of being technically able to cater for all subjects, in both natural and social sciences.

4.2.8.4 *Change of strategies due to class level and effectiveness of strategies*

All lecturers reported that they taught other classes and admitted that the strategies vary when they teach senior classes because they assume that senior students have mastered the university academic register in English to the extent that they can stand on their own without assistance of such practices as repetition, questioning or code switching. Accordingly, all lecturers view the strategies as useful in facilitating teaching and learning in the first year but they believe less support is required when students progress to senior classes. Excerpts (43) and (44) illustrate their responses.

(43)

There is a difference, I could say. You know with first years, I think maybe it is because of education system from secondary school. First years are quite fresh, you know, and they are not used to this rigor and vigor of the university studies, you know. So sometimes you have to be soft a little bit, you know, and in most cases use the language of encouraging because it is quite a new environment for them. But it is different from third year. Third year you expect that they have been here, I mean they have been around for long enough to understand their responsibility, what they are supposed to do, what we expect actually from them. So the kind of encouragement that we give for first year students is different from, I am not saying that we don't encourage first year students, we do but the level of this emphasis in terms of encouragement differs and for third year you don't have to, in most cases as far as I have experienced, you don't have to, like explain each and everything, going into details like telling them the meanings of the words. They have already, you know, they are already used to some vocabulary, so you don't have to break down the vocabulary. This is, I mean, different from first year students.

LPsc.3

Excerpt (43) illustrates the lecturers' view that the strategies they use and the kind and amount of assistance they provide to first year students differ from the one they provide to higher classes. All this difference is because lecturers are aware of the first year students' relatively low level of proficiency in the English language remembering that they are exposed to the university academic register for the first time.

(44)

They (the strategies) are helpful. For sure they help. What I have discovered is that when you, for example, give them tests or exams, they do well and the number of students who pass exceeds those failing and this makes me feel that students understand and that the strategies I am using are useful.

LSoc.1

Excerpt (44) illustrates the lecturers' belief about the usefulness of the strategies they use in teaching first year students. The lecturers believe that a careful use of the strategies results in improved students' academic performance.

4.3 STRUCTURAL DISCOURSE STRATEGIES

The analysis so far has focused on propositional discourse strategies that occurred most frequently in the eight lectures observed with a view to determining generic features of such large-group lectures in a multilingual community of students and lecturers. It included a discussion of the reasons lecturers gave for using the strategies that were found to be generic. The lecturers' perceptions and explanation of the strategies were related to the analysis of the features of lectures themselves, in order to gain as much insight as possible into the complex set of considerations that shape the oral practices of lectures at this particular site of higher education. In the next section, the analysis focuses on the structural discourse strategies that occurred most frequently in the eight lectures. As in the case of the propositional discourse strategies, the findings presented here demonstrate how lecturers in a multilingual educational setting such as the University of Dar es Salaam, utilise formal, structural linguistic resources, specifically discourse markers and personal pronouns, to conduct classroom interaction. Typically, these formal devices function as means to construct cohesion and to indicate stance that is, positioning of the speaker and the hearer in discourse.

As noted before in section 4.2, the analysis in this section attends to generic features of the lectures, and specifically to the discursive contributions of the lecturers. The eight lectures were carefully scrutinised in order to recognise regularly occurring structural discourse strategies. Using NviVo, the coding and querying of the data helped recognise all instances of the most frequently used structural discourse strategies. The most widely used strategies according to the simple test of a distribution count, discussed below, are (i) discourse markers, and (ii) specific pronouns. The particular discourse markers that were widely used in these lectures, apparently in creating coherence and topic continuity, include forms such as *so* and *now*. Pronouns that were widely used

with similar cohesive and continuative functions refer to either the speaker or the hearer (s). First, there is a wide use of the second person singular and plural pronouns, both coded as *you*, and both used in reference to the hearers (all or some singled out) in the lecture.

Second, there is a wide use of the first person plural pronoun *we*, which is a more inclusive way of the speaker referring to him/herself as one of a group of scholars, or as one in solidarity with the hearers.⁶ Third, there is a wide use of the first person singular pronoun *I*. Sections 4.3.1 to 4.3.2 describe and analyse the discourse markers *so* and *now*. Sections 4.3.3 to 4.3.4 describe and analyse the most frequently used pronouns, namely *I*, *we* and *you*. A word frequency query was run to ascertain the actual number of times each occurred, and their concordances were checked in all of the eight lecture scripts. Table 4.2 presents the results for this set of data in this relatively small closed corpus.

Table 4.2: Most frequently used structural discourse markers in the lectures

SDSs		LPSc.				LSoc.				T
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	08
DMs	So	27	06	43	20	61	17	88	16	278
	Now	38	07	05	13	07	07	36	00	113
	G/total									391
Pron	You	43	47	103	91	93	35	108	14	534
	We	118	62	33	47	62	63	99	34	518
	I	43	21	62	55	44	41	32	23	321
	G/total									1373

4.3.1 Defining and exemplifying discourse markers *so* and *now*

As noted earlier (cf. 2.2.5), the field of discourse analysis has evoked quite a discussion about the definition, categorisation, the meaning and functions of discourse markers. Fraser (1999:932) defines them as a class of lexical expressions of the same syntactic class as conjunctions, adverbs and prepositional phrases. Fraser (1999:932) further finds that they function to signal a relationship

⁶ There is of course also the so called "Royal plural", where a speaker refers to him/herself only, by using the plural rather than the singular form. This is often used to create or affirm distance between speaker and hearer. Such use of "we" has also been identified as a means of directing attention away from the speaker personally. Thus in saying "we" when an opinion is being given, the speaker signals that s/he is not the only one who holds such an opinion, but that it is a more widely accepted idea and thus should be convincing.

between the interpretation of the segment⁷ they introduce and the prior one, with their interpretation resulting from the interplay between both the linguistic and conceptual context in a process that yields a procedural rather than conceptual meaning. In the grammar of English, discourse markers occupy similar status to conjunctions such as 'and', adverbs such as 'well', and lexicalised phrases such as 'you know'. In language use, they bracket discourse by marking relations between sequentially dependent units of discourse (Schiffrin, 1987:31). Fraser provides the following examples to demonstrate how inclusive and accommodative the category of discourse markers can be. The discourse markers are underlined for easy identification.

- (44) a. A: I like him. B: So, you think you will ask him out then.
 b. John can't go. And many others can't go either.
 c. Will you go? Furthermore, will you represent the class there?
 d. Sue left very late. But she arrived on time.
 e. I think it will fly. After all, we built it right.

(Adapted from Fraser, 1999:932)

The underlined discourse markers in (45) illustrate how discourse markers occur in an utterance. Levinson (1983:87ff) observes that they mostly occur in utterance initial position, showing how the utterance that follows responds to the former or continues it or some portion of it. Although some studies argue that discourse markers are syntactically free, grammatically functionless and somehow semantically bleached (Lee, 2004:117), they do function as semantic and pragmatic sign posts (Tay, 2011:311). For example in (52a), 'B' uses the discourse marker *so* to introduce a question about whether A's utterance '*I like him*' amounts to 'A' asking the person (him) out. The use of the discourse marker *so* in such a way illustrates how speakers give discourse coherence through relations between adjacent units in discourse (Schiffrin, 1987:24). Thus, according to Schiffrin (1987:25) *so* assists speaker 'B' in justifying his or her act of commenting or suggesting '*So, you think you will ask him out then*' and at the same time speaker 'B' marks the cause for the belief that speaker 'A' should ask the person (him) out.

As for the discourse marker *now*, Schiffrin (1987:228ff) finds that speakers use it to emphasise a point, preface an argument, manage turn taking and propel a topic forward. In a study on the use of

⁷ I use the term segment in the sense of Fraser (1999:938) to refer to proposition, sentence, message and utterance. Thus, the numbers in the examples refer to segments and not lines.

now in the court of law, Hale (1999:74-5) found that lawyers use it to resume a previously mentioned topic (46), control the flow of information (47), and mark contradiction (48).

(46) Now, Mr Lopez, you said you had just passed Shane Street?

(47) Now, uh, was the motor vehicle insured other than uh compulsory third party?

(48) Now, just pause there, do you remember what month of the year 1992 it was?

4.3.2 Characterising the discourse markers *so* and *now* in lecture discourse

4.3.2.1 Discourse marker *so*

As Table 4.2 indicates, the discourse marker *so* occurred 278 (71%) times in the eight lectures. Studies on discourse analysis indicate that *so* has a remarkably high status. For example, Lam (2010:657) notes that it is one of the most occurring items in spoken English and O'Keeffe et al. (2007) report that in the five million word Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse English (CANCODE), *so* is the 19th most frequently occurring item. Lam (2010:661) further identifies six functions of *so* in discourse namely framing, linking, showing consequentiality response, processing and turn managing. For this study, in the closed corpus of approximately 37 thousand words, *so* was the 15th most frequently used word. Excerpt (49) illustrates how lecturers use *so* to emphasise, elaborate, and continue a topic.

(49)

1	<u>So</u> , ... that spirit of spending very little but working very hard Weber was able to locate it within one of the so many protestant sects... which he called Calvinism.
2	<u>So</u> , Calvinism is one of the so many protestant sects.
3	<u>So</u> , Calvinism in this context was a sect that had been brought. That was a belief brought by a person called John.
4	<u>So</u> , John Calvin was the founder of Calvinism.
5	<u>So</u> , you can say Calvin was like Martin Luther, Calvin was also a Germany.
6	<u>So</u> , they all challenged the way the Roman Catholic Church was doing things. They never agreed on what they were writing, they never.
7	<u>So</u> , you can't say that Martin Luther and John Calvin were arguing in the same way
8	<u>So</u> , Weber was able to find the spirit of capitalism in the teachings of John Calvin
	LSoc.3

Excerpt (49) is one exceptional instance by which a lecturer uses one form *so* in a single stretch of speech while illustrating different functions of the same form. Generally, it can be observed that in excerpt (49) the lecturer uses *so* mainly to mark continuity (Hansen, 1997:160; Fraser, 1990:186; Schiffrin, 1987:31), thus to facilitate cohesion. Specifically, in line (1), the lecturer uses *so* to elaborate a previous topic, namely the spirit of spending very little but working very hard. In line

(2), he uses *so* with some expansion to link Calvinism to the protestant sects and in line (3) he uses *so* to expand the name 'John' to 'John Calvin' (line 4) before he uses it to introduce a conclusive link thus, drawing a consequence from a foregoing discourse. '*So, you can say Calvin was like Martin Luther*' (Biber et al., 1999:877). In line (5) he specifies the similarity of the two German church fathers of the Reformation (Calvin and Luther) and expands on their differences '*So they all challenged the way the Roman Catholic Church was doing things ... they never agreed ...*' (line 6). In line (7) *so* again marks the link by showing the divergence between Calvin and Luther '*So you can't say Martin Luther and John Calvin were arguing in the same way*' (Biber et al., 1999:877). Lastly, in line (8), it facilitates the resumptive turning to the main point mentioned earlier in discourse '*So, Weber was able ... able to find the spirit of capitalism in the teachings of John Calvin*' (cf. Lam, 2010:662). Generally these findings replicate the observation made by Bolden (2008:974) that *so* is a resource for establishing discourse coherence and, more fundamentally, accomplishing understanding.

4.3.2.1 *The discourse marker now*

As Table 4.2 indicates, only one lecturer (LSoc.4) did not use *now* as a discourse marker at all. Nevertheless, the discourse marker *now* occurred 113 (29%) times across the seven remaining lectures. From a grammatical point of view, *now* is used in different situations such as an adverb signifying time (50). In addition to the functions mentioned by Schiffrin (1987) and Hale (1999) above, in spoken language the discourse marker *now* can perform a series of other functions. It can function in getting someone's attention before continuing or changing the subject (51), or asking for information (52). It can also introduce gap filler or function as a gap filler (53) or express conditionality (54).

(50) They now live in the city centre.

(51) Now, let's move on to the question of payment.

(52) Now what did you say your name was?

(53) Now, let's see, oh yes - they wanted to know what time you'll be back on Friday.

(54) Now if I'd been in charge there's no way I'd have let them use the van.

(Examples from the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2005))

Practically, Fraser (1988:28) positions *now* in the group of topic markers functioning to direct the hearer's attention to the current topic, while Quirk et al. (1985:639) classify it in the group of

transitional words. This categorisation of the discourse marker *now* explains much of the functions it performs in the lectures observed. Excerpt (55) illustrates the use of *now* by the lecturers.

(55)

1 Now, don't ask me how they reacted. If you want to know how they reacted, you
2 should go to History and read for yourself. Now, what was it they were looking
3 for? Why? Why did they react? Because they realized that those people were
4 coming not for their civilization. Now, this group 'B' takes us ... and they are the
5 ones who are going to give us the meaning of 'decolonization'. Now, during the
6 years between the two world wars ... Now, we are talking about the time of the
7 colonial period. Africans sought to get away from colonial, political, social order.

LPsc.1

In excerpt (55), the lecturer is referring to how Africans reacted against colonial rule so that they could decolonise themselves. She starts by reminding students of what their topic is (the nature of 'decolonisation'), and then says that she will not give the history as to how Africans reacted in her lecture; such historical data they have to find themselves (line 1-2). She uses a seemingly direct question, apparently soliciting information from students about why they (Africans) reacted the way they did (line 2-3), which she immediately answers herself thus indicating that her intention is not primarily to ask a question but to propel the narration forward. The lecturer re-introduces a topic that she mentioned several segments earlier, with the phrase "*now this group B*" (line 4) implying that there are at least two groups, 'A' and 'B'. This is connected to the African reaction she is topicalising, and serves to show how it facilitates the understanding of the concept 'decolonisation' (line 4-5). She further re-introduces the time of the reaction '*the years between the two World wars*' (line 5-6), before she specifies the period with "*Now we are talking about the colonial period*", and provides the reason for the reaction (line 6-7).

One of the predominant functions of *now* in the lectures observed is that of focusing a topic (cf. Fraser, 1990:388; Schiffrin, 1987:228ff.). For university classroom interaction, Biber (2006:69-70) observes that lecturers commonly use the discourse marker *now* to initiate a new topic as a next step in the logical progression of an oral presentation. Excerpt (56) demonstrates how lecturers' use of *now* performs some of the functions identified in the relevant literature. In line (1), the lecturer uses *now* to perform three functions simultaneously. First, she draws students' attention to the main theme of the lecture by emphasising topic continuity; at the same time, she is instructing students not to ask questions about a previous segment thus negotiating the right to control the flow of information. Finally she also uses *now* as a focusing device (Fraser, 1990:388). In line (1) the lecturer reminds students that the focus in that segment is not on the 'how' of decolonisation in

Africa. In line (2), she uses a second *now* to indicate a different orientation from reporting what happened to asking why things happened. More specifically, as Hale (1999:75) puts it, she uses a question as preface to giving new information. This function is simultaneously topic progression and focusing since the question-form is in fact more attention directing than being the first turn in a question-answer sequence that involves two participants and would expect an answer from the second participant. In line (4) the lecturer introduces a distinction between two groups of Africans, 'A' and 'B', where the contribution of the B-group is indicated as pertinent to the topic. She then talks about a segment earlier in the lecture, '*the period between the two world wars*', thus achieving topic progression and focusing in (line 6). In line (7) she finally uses *now* to introduce specification of the period not only in terms of time, but also in terms of what identifies the period for their enquiry, namely '*... the colonial period*', thus still focussing the topic. In summary, the use of *now* is used in this excerpt to establish, clarify or reiterate a previous point, and to control the flow of information.

4.3.3 Defining and exemplifying the use of pronouns

Table 4.2 indicates that overall *you* are numerically the most used pronoun with 534 (38.89%) instances. This pronoun is, in formal terms, ambiguous in that the singular and plural forms are identical. Thus, in addressing the hearers, the speaker could be referring to one hearer specifically, to all hearers inclusively, or to a section of the hearers. Additionally, *you* can be used in much more general, modal terms, as an equivalent of "any person", in reference to an imaginary actor as in "If you were to add x to y ...", where "you" could be replaced with "a person". Therefore, in the analysis below, the use of *you* as a signifier has to be carefully considered.

The first person plural pronoun, *we*, was the second most frequently occurring pronoun with 518 (37.72%) instances out of 1373 instances of occurrences of pronouns that refer to speakers or hearers in this particular discourse. The first person singular pronoun, *I*, was used considerably less often with 321 (23.37%) instances. The difference of 197 instances between the occurrences of *we* and *I* is very remarkable particularly considering that in this context the two terms are often used interchangeably that is, *we* is in many cases an alternative to *I*. The plural form is used to refer to the singular, to the speaker only (with possibly, but not necessarily, an added implication of either including other scholars or including the audience in the particular position the speaker is advocating). The lecturers at times used *we* to refer to the students and lecturer inclusively, for the purpose of creating solidarity, showing equality in terms of knowledge possession and management. Such an inclusive use of *we* to refer more generally to 'all people' is found in Excerpts (56) and (57) below.

As Biber (2006:51-52) remarks, spoken university registers exhibit greater reliance on the precise use of pronouns than written registers. Pronouns form one of the most important linguistic devices speakers use to mark contexts of their utterances, to refer to different participants and help hearers to fully interpret the discourse; linguistic devices referred to as deictic markers. Grundy (2000:27-31) identifies three major types of deictic markers namely, personal, which are marked by personal pronouns such as (I, you, we), spatial, which are marked by place adverbials such as (here, there), and temporal, which are marked through adverbials of time such as (now, then). This study refers to two of these categories, and will show, for example, that in context, the literal meanings of some of these, can change (see the use of *we* to refer to the singular, or the use of *now* without a primary time-related meaning). Even so, deictic markers such as the particular ones to be discussed here are important in marking stance (cf. Jaffe, 2009; Biber, 2006).

4.3.4 Characterising specific pronouns as structural discourse markers

4.3.4.1 *The pronoun you*

In this section, I shall illustrate how lecturers use deictic markers, particularly personal pronouns, to contextualise their utterances while facilitating interpretation by students. The following excerpts illustrate how lecturers used the personal pronoun *you* in its three different functions, in the lectures.

(56)

1	That is why <u>you</u> see the world has experienced things like revolutions. Of
2	course <u>you</u> can as you read and get to know Thomas Hofs. <u>You</u> can come up
3	with other criticisms. I thought these are important for <u>you</u> to build on.
	LPsc.3

The lecturer's use of *you* in excerpt (56) directly engages students in the lecture by reminding them of political revolutions at different times in different parts of the world (line 1). He also invites the students to develop their own views as they discover them through their reading (lines 2-3). He concludes by indicating his stance and highlights what is important for the students regarding the content he has presented (line 4). This practice points to an important issue of the choice and use of the pronoun in a classroom setting. The lecturer seems to deliberately stimulate and engage students into independent study and critical thinking by just giving them the basics '*I thought these are important for you to build on*'. Furthermore, the lecturer demonstrates his wish to help students better understand the concepts they are studying.

(57)

- | |
|---|
| 1 <u>You</u> remember when we were talking about alienation?
I know <u>you</u> have studied History, isn't it? |
|---|

LSoc.1

In excerpt (57) the lecturer uses *you* to stimulate students' memory so that they can participate in the discussion. He commits the students to materials that are familiar to them, thus engaging them by referring to already given material as an introduction to the discussion of new material at hand. This strategic choice and use of the pronoun is customarily done to engage the hearers directly, in this case to instil in the students the habit of revising their lecture notes, linking ideas they learnt at lower levels of the course, and critically relate them to the ideas they learn at university. After having developed that habit, the students will discover that learning is a continuous process. This is likely to facilitate their success in learning at tertiary level.

(58)

- | |
|---|
| 1 For those of <u>you</u> who missed the test on Friday morning, |
| 2 <u>you</u> will meet on Sunday at 1 pm, that is where <u>you</u> will get the |
| 3 directives from him ... where <u>you</u> can do your test |

LSoc.3

Excerpt (58) facilitates another important role of a lecturer, which is to maintain a good rapport with students. The lecturer here recognises the fact that his duty is not only that of sharing knowledge with students, but also of caring for their affairs as in making assessment arrangements. Students who missed a test or assignment are directly addressed and informed of the alternative arrangements that have been made for them. In this case, the *you* does not refer to all hearers, but to a selected group within the class.

(59)

- | |
|---|
| 1 But I believe that <u>you</u> have also got to read a piece by Dahl. |
| 2 Before <u>you</u> ask me a question, please dig deeper. |

LPsc.4

Excerpt (59) resembles excerpt (58) in that both appear as illustrations of managerial uses of *you*. However, excerpt (59) gives academic advice regarding students' own engagement with learning material rather than logistical arrangements regarding another core academic activity, namely assessment, that is, the one where students have to show their grasp of material outside of and after the lectures. Here students are directly addressed to remind them of their own responsibility for their

learning, thus of what they should be doing outside of the classroom, specifically of building a reading culture and through that, also improve critical thinking skills.

The three excerpts given above summarise the three common instances of the lecturers' use of *you* to engage students (i) in content development, (ii) in linking to work formerly presented through questioning, and (iii) in management of out-of-classroom academic activities. Excerpt (60) demonstrates the predominant use of *you* for explanatory purposes. This usage occurred generically in all lectures.

(60)

1	You cannot say I am very far from the United States, because <u>you</u> know what is going
2	on in the United States, in Egypt ... <u>you</u> know everything; therefore geographical
3	distance is becoming irrelevant. Under globalisation people can make crucial decisions
4	even without coming into physical contact with each other. <u>You</u> can decide on public
5	policies. <u>You</u> can decide on economic issues without coming to each other physically.
6	That is because of information and communication technology. <u>You</u> don't need to go to
7	US to negotiate, to bargain about various economic issues or public issues. <u>You</u> can
8	negotiate while seated in Dar es Salaam with a person in Washington.

LPsc.2

Excerpt (60) illustrates how lecturers typically use the generic pronoun *you* to refer not to any specific hearer, nor necessarily to the group in the class. In this case, the generic *you* is very similar to the generic *we* (to be discussed below). It functions as a kind of place holder for any persons who would "say they are far from the United States", "decide on public policies", "decide on economic issues", "need to negotiate with partners in the US", and so on. Such generic use may facilitate topic continuity and coherence through explanation and clarification. The lecturer is explaining the pervasive influence of globalisation through the revolution in Information and Communication Technology. Using the generic *you*, she explains what an individual can do today with such easy access. The lecturer keeps students' attention, by drawing on their sense of humour (line 1, line 7-8), and in doing so also keeps them focused on the topic while she continues it and maintains the control of the flow of information. The repetition of the pronoun *you* here indirectly acts as a cohesive device in this section of the discourse.

4.3.4.2 *The pronoun we*

(61)

1 Today we will look at Max Weber on Religion. In the past lecture we were
2 introduced on some of the concepts that Weber used in his studies, and today
3 we want to broaden that spectrum so that we can be able to understand from his
4 perspective, what specifically is the role of religion in the development of
5 Western capitalism.

LSoc.3

The use of inclusive *we* in excerpt (61) does not only build common ground between the lecturer and students, but it also facilitates topic development and coherence. The lecturer registers his intention to share the topic with the students (line 1), and connects it to the previous topic (lines 1-2). Then he talks about how they are going to handle the current topic in relation to the previous (line 3) and goes on to mention the aim of the current meeting '*so that we can be able to understand ...*' (lines 3-5). This use of *we* represents a marking of solidarity between lecturer and students regarding the particular assignment for that lecture.

(62)

1 That is why we say that power is at the heart of politics. There is no politics
2 without power. Therefore, power is centre in political science. We study,
3 actually if you look at what we do in political science, we study issues related
4 to the acquisition of power.

Psc.4

While excerpt (61) uses generic *we* to demonstrate the lecturer's shared intention with students regarding the current topic, excerpt (62) illustrates the use of the pronoun for indicating solidarity with a scholarly community. The lecturer relates what they study in Political Science with power. In using the pronoun *we* here he refers to political scientists generally. This includes the lecturer in the community of scholars, and at the same time invites students to become part of that community of practice.

The above two examples demonstrate how lecturers use the first person plural pronoun to express shared activities and develop shared knowledge. Excerpt (63) illustrates how the lecturers use the pronoun *we* generically in explaining an idea, facilitating topic continuity and cohesion.

(63)

1	So the social self develops through an active process, an active process ... through the
2	interactions <u>we</u> engage with people, and as I have mentioned, Charles Cooley, in his
3	concept of the looking glass self, <u>we</u> define and we value ourselves through the way <u>we</u>
4	think others see us It is as if <u>we</u> are looking in a mirror and <u>we</u> define ourselves in
5	function of how others view us.

LSoc.4

The generic use of *we* in excerpt (63) refers to people more generally. This is widely inclusive and in reference to not only the lecturer and students who are present. The lecturer describes how the social self facilitates the self as a general process. He talks about how human beings (*we*) participate in the active process through interactions with people. He also describes how humans (*we*) define themselves based on how others see them. This narration strategically involves students in the construction of knowledge concerning the development of self.

4.3.4.3 *The first person pronoun I*

Table 4.2 indicates that the first person pronoun *I* was the third most frequently used pronoun (321 instances) out of 1373 total instances of personal pronouns under study. The pronoun occurred not only when lecturers referred to themselves and their own duties in knowledge construction but also when they talked about their own role in the scholarly project, as in excerpts (71), (72), and (73).

(64)

1	<u>I</u> would like to, <u>I</u> don't want to define it; sometimes concepts are not
2	definable, <u>I</u> will try.

LPSc.4

In the above excerpt, when asked to define the concept 'authority', the lecturer refers to the difficulty of defining some academic concepts, not only because it is difficult for the lecturer (the speaker himself), but because some concepts are abstract and complex. The secondary school practice of defining every concept is indirectly challenged in this way.

Excerpt (64) above demonstrates the use of pronoun *I* in used in referring to the speaker, the lecturer himself, when he is expressing his own responsibility in academic affairs. The following examples illustrate how lecturers use such self-reference in expressing their personal knowledge (excerpt 65) circumstances (excerpt 66) and (excerpt 67).

(65)

1	Recently we had people who believed that May 21 st was the end of
---	--

2 the world. But I'm told they have postponed. It's going to be
 3 October ... We have churches, like in some churches ... if you are
 4 wearing suit, ... then you get the front seat, I'm told,
 5 I'm not sure, but that's what they say.

LPsc.3

Here the lecturer is topicalising some church practices and then interjects a comment referring to himself (line 2) *I'm told*'. Such self-reference is part of giving information to which he cannot commit himself so he claims to have received it from someone else. This strategic use of the pronoun *I* helps him proceed with examples while expressing an element of doubt. In so doing, he manages to continue with the topic while managing the class emotionally well.

(66)

1 It is like us, I am not a full professor. I am simple but I hold an office as
 2 the Head of Department. There may be professors whatever, I don't care,
 3 I am the boss, I have legal-rational authority.

LPsc.4

Here the lecturer uses his own circumstance to exemplify the meaning of "legal-rational authority". By amusingly using himself as an excerpt, he is likely to attract students' attention to the topic, helping them to understand the concept in question well. Such use of *I* could be fictive, in that even if the speaker were not in fact the Head of Department, or even if he were actually a professor, he could still use the pronoun "I" illustratively, to make the example more concrete for the hearers.

(67)

1 So, as a father or as a teacher here, I imagine, ... I take the role of the others.
 2 I imagine myself in the role of the other. I imagine myself, as I am in your role as
 3 student role, listener in order to determine the criteria you will use to judge
 4 my behaviour. So, I try to determine how these people look at me and surely they
 5 consider me to be their lecturer and so on, and on the basis of that information,
 6 I use that information as a guide for my actions. That is, I take my role, role
 7 taking as young children in the process of growing up.

LSoc.4

As in excerpt (66), in excerpt (67), the lecturer refers to himself in highlighting his experience not only as a teacher, but also as a father, to develop a topic. He tells the students how he feels when he contemplates the concepts he is teaching in relation to his real life roles. This exposition, as it is given in excerpt (67), again draws attention to the lecturer himself. His own position and reflection is offered as an *aide de memoire* that is, to create a mental image of the way the lecturer exemplifies it.

4.4 SUMMARY

This chapter has presented and discussed the most notable discourse strategies that the lecturers who participated in this study used during lecture sessions. The three most remarkable propositional strategies are lecturer repetition, lecturer's use of questions, and lecturer's use of code switching between English and Kiswahili. The findings indicate that lecturers use the two types of repetition to achieve cohesion, topic continuity and emphasis. With regard to questioning, the findings indicate that lecturers use four types of questioning strategies to check for comprehension, to stimulate higher level thinking, to manage classroom behaviour as well as to encourage students' participation and independent study. On the part of code switching, the findings indicate that lecturers use two types of code switching to engage with students, to translate some concepts, to explain, to translate, to manage students' behaviour and to advise or encourage students. Additionally, the chapter has shown that lecturers use the strategies consciously considering the low level of English proficiency among students. The chapter has also shown that lecturers are divided in relation to which language between the rival two, English and Kiswahili should be LoI. Some believe that English is more developed and entrenched than Kiswahili thus it should continue functioning as LoI while others consider that Kiswahili should occupy a great position as a language of wider communication in Tanzania.

Moreover, this chapter has demonstrated how lecturers use structural discourse strategies generically in their classroom interaction. Generally the chapter has shown the relationship between structural discourse strategies and propositional discourse strategies by showing that both work to facilitate topic continuity and coherence. The chapter has demonstrated how discourse markers function as cohesive devices, marking such textual functions as framing, linking and showing consequential relationships. Specifically, the chapter has shown that lecturers use the discourse markers *so* and *now* to achieve similar communicative goals as those achieved using propositional strategies. For the case of *so* the chapter has shown that it is used to mark emphasis, elaboration of a point and continuation of a topic while for the case of *now*, the chapter has shown that it is used for drawing speaker's attention, for topicalising an idea, for progressing a topic progression, reiteration and clarification.

The chapter has also shown how specific pronouns perform different functions. Particularly, the data show that the pronoun *you* functions not only as an interactive device, but also as an explanatory device of significance in classroom interaction. Its significance is noticeable in terms of engaging students in the content, indicating lecturer's stance, inviting students' comments, directing

and advising students about their responsibility in the learning process. As for the use of the pronoun *we*, the data show that it is not only a solidarity device, but, as with *you*, also a strong explanatory device. Finally, at least in the lectures that were recorded, the data show that the pronoun *I* marks different kinds of speaker information, such as speaker knowledge and his or her stance about it, speaker's circumstance and speaker experience.

Chapter Five

DISCUSSION AND REFLECTIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I shall take further the discussion of the research findings presented in chapter four. The discussion is organised to address the fourth fundamental objective that guided this study (cf. section 1.3.2). The first three objectives of the study intended to assist in identifying, in terms of propositional and structural strategies, the generic features of lectures taught in two of the large Departments of the University of Dar es Salaam. This interest is not merely to describe what these features are for the particular case studied here, but also to consider them as indicators of how large group teaching in multilingual African communities is managed at tertiary level. These objectives were addressed in chapter four.

Here the fourth objective, namely to consider the use of the most prominent strategies used in lectures in terms of their likely functionality in facilitating learning, will be addressed. The various fields of academic interest that would inform the research questions and objectives of this study were presented in chapter two. It became clear that besides the analytic tools provided by Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis (cf. sections 2.1 and 2.2), this study would necessarily also entail consideration of relevant aspects of classroom interaction as a discourse type (cf. section 2.4). Additionally, it would entail Bilingualism and Bilingual Education (cf. section 2.5) as well as relevant aspects of educational uses of English as a Lingua Franca (cf. section 2.6). This chapter will illustrate how the study relates to and can also contribute to the understanding of classroom interaction in higher education in a multilingual community. It will also illustrate the kinds of bilingualism (individual and social) that are operative in higher education in Tanzania, particularly where English is the only recognised LoI.

Many scholars refer to the fact that higher education is currently experiencing rapid challenges that call for urgent attention and action (Hénard, 2010; Fairclough, 2001). Universities today, like all other sectors in society, are subject to change that is related to broader patterns of social change and human interaction. This includes the fact that they have to respond to one of the buzzwords of capitalist organisations, be it private business or public service, called 'quality' (Fairclough, 2001:30). Hénard (2010:4) associates these challenges with the role of universities in creating

employment and educating for specific professions in the increasingly knowledge driven global economy, which demands skilled labour. This puts pressure on higher educational institutions to produce appropriately skilled graduates. Moreover, as universities constantly compete for students and funding, they are under the scrutiny of quality assurance agencies that audit teaching and research, thus putting a new kind of pressure on institutions that were formerly elite organisations that could develop knowledge for the sake of knowledge. This practical reality calls for a total involvement from all levels of a university as an organisation. Individuals, departments, units colleges, institutes, schools and the whole university inevitably play a concerted role in ensuring the achievement of the university's goals and objectives because as Fairclough (2001:30) observes, flexible organisations need flexible employees. Unfortunately, as Hénard (2010:4) argues, most of the current evaluation of performance of universities concentrates more on research as a means of ranking institutions while neglecting other factors such as classroom practices. In the following four sections the findings of this research that were discussed in chapter four, will be related to theoretical positions highlighted in the literature, that were discussed in chapter two. Finally, this chapter will give an assessment of the status quo in large group teaching, and provide some pointers as to the structuring of lectures in higher education that will clarify what the role and significance is of attention to language in such a context.

5.2 BILINGUALISM AND BILINGUAL HIGHER EDUCATION

As noted earlier (cf. section 1.3) bilingualism, as a linguistic capacity of individuals and as an identifying feature of communities, is a common phenomenon in many countries (cf. Corson, 1990:159). As has been pointed out, language is central to education because it functions as the most prominent vehicle of all learning. García (2009:22) argues that this is even more important to bear in mind in bilingual education because then learners are confronted with more than one language as the learning vehicle and often more than one language is offered as subject of study. García (2009:126) clearly distinguishes between, on the one hand, bilingual education as a form of teaching and learning where many have to manage a dominant language that is not their L1, as "learning vehicle" and, on the other hand, language programmes in which a language may be taught to L1 or L2 learners of the particular language.

Early learning through an L2 poses very specific difficulties for very large numbers of children entering primary education worldwide, and these difficulties continue for many in

secondary education as well. Much smaller numbers of students in any community actually progress to tertiary education. Furthermore, for a long time many people have held the assumption that by the time learners are ready to enter tertiary education, they should possess well-established language skills in the language of instruction and thus need no special attention. Anecdotal evidence of learners who were able to master a new language required of them on entry into a tertiary institution, abounds. However, systematic investigation of the language practices of students (although not the focus of this study) as well as of lecturers who need to use an L2 as LoI at tertiary level in African contexts is scarce. In attending to the lecturing practices and perceptions of lecturers at the University of Dar es Salaam, this study aims to contribute to the field of tertiary educational practices in bilingual and multilingual communities.

Those at university level, who teach through medium of an L2 such as English, will themselves have progressed through primary and secondary education in which their L1 was phased out as LoI and their L2 (or L3) eventually became the LoI. Thus in climbing up the academic ladder to become lecturers in tertiary education, they not only experienced use of an L2 as LoI, but also in one way or another overcame difficulties that many students appear not to have managed. This makes an investigation of their practices and perceptions informative.

Considering classroom practices, much of the approaches and techniques used in primary and secondary classrooms apparently cross over to universities. For example, Mwinsheikhe (2009:228-9) finds that teachers in Tanzanian secondary schools improvise and adopt four coping strategies to overcome language-related learning barriers. These are code switching, safe talk, negative reinforcement and teaching of English language skills. Where relevant to the findings of this study, I shall refer to these in section 5.3 below. At undergraduate university level, Chickering and Gamson (1987:3) suggest that lecturers should adopt strategies that promote higher order thinking through tasks such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Strategies like these are said to promote active learning. Scholars maintain that to achieve such goals lecturers must possess knowledge of alternative techniques and strategies for questioning and discussion, and must create a supportive intellectual and emotional environment that encourages students to take risk (cf. Hughes & Schloss 1987; McKeachie et al., 1986). In the discussion below, I shall consider how the findings of this study relate to the suggestions of, among others, Chickering and Gamson.

5.2.1 Bilingualism and Multilingualism in education in Tanzania

As explained in chapter one, Tanzania is among the most linguistically diversified countries in the world with more than 120 languages used in the country at various levels. Nonetheless, apart from Kiswahili, none of the indigenous languages has the opportunity of functioning as LoI in the education system of the country. This phenomenon has triggered a heated debate among different stakeholders as to why other local languages are not privileged to play the role of LoI, but also as to why Kiswahili, the most popular lingua franca in Africa, does not have a full-fledged opportunity as LoI in the entire education system of Tanzania. The question is why Kiswahili does not at least have the same position as English in the post primary level education. This debate has really exhausted a lot of energy from some stakeholders who argue in favour of bilingual education in which both Kiswahili and English are developed as LoI. For example, as cited earlier in chapter one (cf.1.1), Qorro (2009:58) describes the intricacy of the situation by remarking that:

It is not easy to talk of new ideas when discussing the language-in-education or the language-of-instruction issue, since for almost 50 years African countries such as Tanzania have been debating this issue, with the debate almost going stale at times.

The above excerpt illustrates the awareness there is of the detrimental effects of neglecting the use of a familiar language in education. Many stakeholders with sensitivity for linguistic rights have expressed their concern about African countries forcing their citizens to learn through medium of languages they have not mastered. For the case of Tanzania, deep concern about the educational policies and practices has come from not only local researchers but also from outsiders. For example, Brock-Utne (2010:636) points out that although most African countries, including Tanzania, place the language-in-education policy at the core of their education and development plans, very many education policies still do not explicitly consider the role of language. Brock-Utne (2007:487) makes an important and intriguing observation based on an analysis of two bilingual programmes run concurrently in English and Kiswahili in selected secondary schools in Tanzania. The study questions the kind of aim that Tanzania has regarding appropriate education for the labour force it wants to create for national development. The observation is that if Tanzania continues with policies that favour the use of English in education, it is not developing people who can contribute sensibly to the work force in a variety of sectors. She finds that both teachers and students are battling with teaching and learning through English. If Tanzania aims to create a critical and creative labour force, it should then rethink its language in education policy. The most stimulating question that most African countries have to ponder concerns how they can succeed in

the endeavour to create an environment that will ensure the provision of education to all its citizens in a language that will best serve all of the local population (Brock-Utne, 2001:115).

In the light of the foregone observations, it is useful to reflect on how a language that is familiar to an individual can play a crucial role in providing an improved and focused educational experience, also for students at tertiary institutions. At the same time, it should be kept in mind that, with the demands of globalisation on education systems all over the world, it may be an unattainable goal to try to replace one language-in-education with another. A practical measure would be to foster the coexistence of at least two languages, a local language such as Kiswahili and a global language such as English as languages of instruction. In so doing, linguistic rights of a far greater number of learners than otherwise can be attained. This would call for the acceptance of bilingualism in education as a reality, as it has been illustrated in some contexts in South Africa (cf. Banda, 2007). The following section highlights some advantages and disadvantages of the bilingual education system.

5.2.2 Advantages and disadvantages of bilingualism

Recent research on language acquisition and language use in bilingual situations has indicated that bilingual speakers are different to monolinguals in language development and in the nature of their proficiencies. Emphasising the importance of learning, Bialystok (2011:229) remarks that through the process of learning, all our experiences leave their mark on us. How we respond to future situations is determined by similar experiences we came across in the past. Such patterns of learning, also of learning languages, create knowledge in particular areas. In the case of bilinguals, Bialystok (ibid.) maintains that bilinguals develop certain kinds of skills and knowledge through an intense and sustained interaction with life circumstances. In language production bilinguals are said to exhibit very slight, yet measurable time lags in such situation as selection of vocabulary items, apparently because they have to select the linguistic items from two competing languages. However, in most situations that can be objectively measured, bilinguals have an advantage of being able to use two sources of language. This is manifested also in speakers' code switching practices. Generally, bilinguals are credited for exhibiting higher creative skills (Hamers & Blanc, 2000), being able to reflect on and manipulate language more adeptly (Bialystok, 2001), and being more context sensitive (Cenoz, 2003) than their monolingual counterparts. In considering the language use and general advantages in development of knowledge that fluent bilinguals have been found to exhibit, one has to ask some pertinent questions. One such question would be whether an

educational system that suppresses the development and use of one (or more) of the languages that bi- and multilingual speakers know, really works to the advantage of the students.

Research on linguistic and cognitive characteristics of bilinguals indicates that in certain domains such as language acquisition, young language learners may be, at least temporarily, at a disadvantage. For example, bilingual children are said to lag behind their monolingual counterparts in the development of vocabulary in both languages (Bialystok et al., 2009; Oller et al., 2007). Although some believe the deficit in the size and richness of vocabulary in young bilinguals is made up in time, according to others such as Portocarrero et al. (2007), the limitations can continue into adulthood. As adults, bilinguals are said to produce less articulate speech than monolinguals, and their language use is allegedly characterised by imprecision and tardiness (cf. Gollan et al., 2005). Both in general language acquisition and in developing vocabulary, the "handicaps" witnessed among some bilinguals can be attributed to the constant choices that bilingual speakers make subconsciously between the resources of one language and another, at times leading to verbal delays and even confusion (Westly, 2012:39).

Although much work has been done in psycholinguistic and neurolinguistic research, which indicates the features discussed above, it has to be emphasised that none of these have taken a particular interest in the practices of adults teaching and learning in a higher education environment. Thus, after considering the generic features of lectures as discursive type in a multilingual community in this study, one needs to pose questions as to how received knowledge on how the bilingual mind works, is integrated and sufficiently put to use in the form of the lectures as they are currently structured.

Clearly, in the lectures themselves as well as in interviews with lecturers, there is both overt and covert recognition of the multilingualism of participants in the educational process and of the community as a whole. In Tanzania, at the University of Dar es Salaam, even with a language policy that prescribes the use of English only as LoI, uses of more than one language in teaching and learning are extant. Banda (2007) reports on one important study that examined how lecturers and students used the different languages that they know at the University of the Western Cape. Investigating peer mediated teaching and learning, the study revealed that tutors and lecturers who shared a Xhosa/English repertoire with students, allowed the use of Xhosa in informal classroom working sessions, but they used Xhosa neither during tutorials nor during consultations in their office. This indicated that they were not utilising the multilingual advantage that, according to received knowledge on learning where speakers have multiple linguistic resources, they should have

access to (Banda, 2007:6). Moreover, although students were allowed to write their tutorial work in Xhosa, they still opted to write in English (ibid.). Banda (ibid.) explains this anomaly first with reference to the fact that tutors and lecturers at university have been taught from the fourth school year to operate primarily in English in doing academic work. They are said to find it difficult to change such an established practice. Secondly, the current language policy and language planning in South Africa still assigns English a status that intrigues students and tutors to the extent that they feel doing academic exercises in English is a mark of academic superiority (Banda, 2007:7). Extrapolating from this study, one needs to bear in mind that the already established position of English as a global LoI, and as the language of higher education as the dominant language in many other professional domains in Tanzania, will not easily be changed. Thus, possible advantages of introducing the use of Kiswahili alongside English in a new form of bilingual education that recognises the current multilingual practices officially may not necessarily materialise.

5.3 ENGLISH AS LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION IN TANZANIA

This study has been guided by the need to know what is happening in multilingual classrooms in higher education in an African context. This cannot be done adequately without reflecting on how lecturing links with the issue of English being used as a lingua franca in academic settings. The issues of bilingualism and bilingual education worldwide are very often issues that relate to the use of local languages that are in competition with English as LoI. Currently in many parts of the world, higher education takes place in a context where neither lecturers nor students are native speakers of English. This has a bearing on the way lecturers combine skills from their other languages in teaching students who are also non-native speakers of the LoI. In Tanzania, with a majority of people speaking more than two languages, the use of English as LoI poses a great challenge. The major goal of this study was to establish how non-native English speaking lecturers manage the delivery of lectures to almost all non-English native speakers at university level.

Chapter two (cf. section 2.6) introduced the concept of 'lingua franca', the development of English as global lingua franca, and particularly as a lingua franca in academic contexts and in higher education. This study did not specifically set out to study aspects of ELF in lectures in higher education in Tanzania. Therefore, only cursory remarks will be made here. Three issues appear to stand out in considering the use of English in the recorded lectures, and will briefly be discussed here. First, these recordings corroborate the point of departure of many

ELF studies, namely that the English used in lingua franca communication and in academic discourse, does not completely fit a standard native form. Even so, there is no indication that such 'new Englishes' prohibits successful communication in the particular context. Second, the relatively extensive code switching between ELF and Kiswahili indicates an important area for new research on ELF in African contexts. This is because in Anglophone Africa English is primarily used to facilitate communication between nationals with different L1s and to assure that besides the local advantages, learners are provided with a second language that gives access to a globalising world and to international communication as well as in academic discourses. Third, the specific propositional and structural discourse strategies that were analysed in chapter four are themselves largely illustrations of ELF uses in the lectures. This indicates that what has been identified as generic to large group lectures at the University of Dar es Salaam has already incorporated critical aspects of ELF. The following two examples illustrate how grammatical issues as well as features of Kiswahili, enter into the lecturer's use of English thus creating another kind of world English.

Excerpt 68 illustrates an instance where the lecturer uses English, which reflects ELF features some of which in the context of Tanzania, are features of Kiswahili expressed in English and some are ordinary grammatical features typical to speakers of any foreign language.

(68)

Now, the concept of 'working class', the one I was saying. He's saying that the working class is the necessary part of ... of a nation but its members are not full members of the political society.

(LPsc.3)

The underlined words in excerpt (68) imply an anomaly in the lecturer's use of verbs and articles. Excerpt (69) provides one of the possible prescriptive versions of the same text.

(69)

Now, the concept of 'working class', the one I was **talking about**¹. He **argues**² that **a** working class is **a** necessary part of a nation but its members are not full members of **a** political society.

(LPsc.3)

The highlighted words in excerpt (69) illustrate how the lecturer draws equivalent linguistic forms from Kiswahili and uses them in English. The verbs **talking about**¹ and **argues**² seem to mean the same as the verb 'saying'. This can largely be explained by the fact that in Kiswahili the verb 'sema'

[say] can be used in both spoken and written registers across all domains of language use including the academia. Nevertheless, although in the perspective of the notion 'Standard English' these features seem ungrammatical, they are unlikely to hamper the delivery of content by the lecturer or the understanding of the content by students.

Excerpt (70) illustrates how the findings of the study help explain the concept of world Englishes. The lecturer draws expressions from Kiswahili oral tradition and uses them in English thus creating a remarkably useful English blend.

(70)

When you see the country is peaceful or relatively peaceful, there is somebody who must have done something. "Na ndiyo maana" [that is why] as a new generation, a young generation, you should also aim at providing or trying to pay "mchango wako" [your contribution] while you are living so that people who come after you, your children and grand children, will also be able to say "ukiona vyaelea vyaundwa". Vimeundwa na babu zetu, ambao ndio nyie" [when you see things afloat, they have been made, they have been made by your forefathers, who are you!]

LPsc.3

In the above example, the lecturer freely switches from English to Kiswahili without any attempt to translate assuming that all students understand or should understand Kiswahili. She exercises her linguistic right to use a familiar language to ensure that she delivers the intended content. As Mauranen, (2003:517) observes, educational practices should allow speakers of a foreign language to comfortably speak it and there should be no attempts to set a Native Speaker model for international users as this sounds both counterproductive and unachievable. This practice also tallies with the recommendation made by McCarthy (2001) for the need to identify other standards than 'native speakers' standards and work to identify the criteria for English use in different cultural contexts.

5.4 THE LANGUAGE OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION IN LECTURES AS A DISCOURSE TYPE

Lectures form one aspect of academic discourse genres. The generic frame of the lecture requires speech turns and utterances of participants to be produced in a particular way. As Leftin and Snell (2011:41) observe, genres are characterised by social and semiotic dimensions including the thematic content, compositional structure, styles, lexical items, interactional roles and norms, interpersonal relations and evaluative frames all of which form a rich ground for linguistic analysis. As explained earlier in chapter two (cf. section 2.4), lecturers play several roles in the social activity

of teaching. Wragg (1999:5) introduces a list of five major roles of teachers, namely knowledge transmission, counselling, social work, assessment and managing, which I apply here to lecturers. As it is the case for other roles, the role of transmitting knowledge, as relates to lecturing, in some cases can be influenced by contextual elements such as the shape and size of the class and venue as well as the linguistic repertoire of participants. This can affect the style of teaching (for example dictate a lecture method as opposed to a discussion method) in larger classes such as the targeted ones in this study. It can also influence the kinds of materials selected (lecture notes, handouts, white or chalkboard, overhead projector or power point) and how they are used. Specially, in the context of large class size, which inhibits the possibility of using a wider range of teaching methods that encourage active engagement of students, language becomes a primary tool in bridging possible obstacles. Therefore, the role requires that lecturers carefully select and use discourse strategies that facilitate teaching. Using the lecture method as it is at the University of Dar es Salaam, has established generic patterns that can be identified and described; these can also be assessed for how effective they are in transferring the kind of content that new social orders require of university graduates. This situation of large student numbers, is among the factors that have determined the continued use of the lecture method in higher education, not only in Tanzania but worldwide.

5.4.1 The lecture mode of instruction

The language of classroom interaction functions in various modes of instruction, among which the lecture mode counts as one that is probably the longest established. Though currently facing much criticism from humanistic, learner-centred teaching and learning theorists, the lecture method remains the most popular mode of instruction, not only in Tanzania but also almost in all parts of the world. It is the method that most people know, experienced themselves and therefore prefer in the context where teaching involves large groups of learners. This is also motivated by limitations in both human and material resources. As for the definition of the notion 'lecture' in the fields of social sciences and education, the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (2009) defines it at three levels. The first level relates to a lecture as a discourse on a particular subject given or read to an audience, the second relates to it as a published text of such discourse, and the third relates to it as a method of teaching by formal discourse. In this study, I combine the first and third definitions with slight modification to refer to a lecture as "a method of teaching by formal discourse, read to a class for instructional purposes".

While lecturing still holds a front position as a teaching strategy in higher education, its value is contested in different ways. On the one hand, scholars like Dunkin (1983:75) positively argue,

"there is no doubt that students do learn from lectures, and that lecturing will continue to be a common method in institutions of higher education". Soliman (1999:2), on the other hand, presents the opposite opinion about the value of the lecture method of teaching by quoting a lecturer at the University of New England saying, *"I don't believe in lecturing. My Study Guide and Research Materials are my inputs that take the place of lectures. I meet the students regularly for dialogue, interaction, problem solving and question and answer sessions"*. Section 5.4.2 below presents a discussion of some of the advantages and disadvantages of the lecture method of classroom instruction as documented in the literature on modes of instruction. This will be related to findings of the generic features of large group lectures at the University of Dar es Salaam (cf. chapter 4), for assessment and critical evaluation.

5.4.2 Advantages and disadvantages of the lecture mode of instruction

Literature on teaching practices currently indicates that the disadvantages of big group lectures outweigh the advantages. Nevertheless, as will be briefly pointed out in section 5.4.2.2, there is research that has identified similar disadvantages for the teaching of small groups (cf. Mande, 2001). The reality at the University of Dar es Salaam, as is the case in many other African universities and elsewhere in the world, is that teaching large groups of enrolled students in big lectures is a general practice. Fundamentally, it is the default form of lecturer-student contact. The practice continues due to many factors such as limited numbers of staff who have to teach large numbers of students, limited infrastructure in terms of the number and size of venues, and limited technological support in the form of facilities such as use of overhead projectors, data projectors and online teaching facilities. Much of this can be related to the costliness of improving the infrastructure, and limited funding for keeping up with the latest in technological development. In response to the challenges posed by the situation explained above, lecturers have to improvise in various ways to mitigate potential communication breakdowns. One of the means they apply in these circumstances is to draw from their linguistic repertoires different verbal and nonverbal discourse strategies that may assist in smooth delivery of the content at hand.

These strategies include those presented in chapter four, namely repetition, use of questions, code switching, use of discourse markers and deictic markers, as well as explanation, demonstration and use of the board. This section presents some discussion and reflections on the findings in the light of the prevailing context in Tanzania. The discussion gives a reflection on the advantages and disadvantages of the lecture mode of instruction, the factors accommodating the continued use of this mode at the University of Dar es Salaam, and the lecturers' classroom practices in response to

the challenges emanating from these factors. The section further discusses some of the proposed alternative modes of classroom instruction in the light of the findings of this study, and finally it situates the findings of the study in the context of bilingualism in Tanzania and the use of English as lingua franca in higher education. The framework for the discussion is the relationship between the observed classroom practices on which lecturers rely and the contextual realities they have to manage, such as the kinds of human and material resources that are available.

5.4.2.1 Advantages of the lecture mode of instruction

The desire of lecturers to cover a well-conceived syllabus poses a major challenge to them (McKeatchie, 1997:67). The lecture method, which most lecturers resort to in order to cover as much content as possible, has received both credit and criticism regarding its usefulness in facilitating learning. The following sections highlight some of the observed advantages and disadvantages.

Literature on the modes of classroom instruction indicates that the lecture method is valued for a number of reasons. Soliman (1999:2) summarises some of the reasons that academics cite in favour of the lecture method, namely enabling them to have a purposeful teaching, to project their enthusiasm and to allow students to hear the thoughts of experts in the field. A very appealing description of the set of advantages as far as this discussion is concerned, is the one presented by USA (2012). Firstly, according to this guide, the lecture method is one of the most efficient methods for the delivery of facts or ideas in a relatively short time, especially in contexts where the lecturer-student ratio is high. Secondly, the method proves to be a necessary one for providing students with important background information and prepares them for discussion. Thirdly, the method is useful in supplementing materials by collecting and distributing information difficult to find in scattered places such as textbooks, journals and tapes, resultantly highlighting pertinent materials and up to date information. Lastly, the method facilitates the delivery of information to large numbers of students from real subject experts. Since lecturers mostly speak from actual experiences and scholarly analysis of findings, they can reinforce credibility and in a sense become mentors and role models to students. Nonetheless, literature on classroom instructional modes also identifies some disadvantages of the lecture mode of instruction as the following section explicates.

5.4.2.2 Disadvantages of the lecture mode of instruction

Despite being commended for facilitating classroom interaction in large group situations, the lecture mode of instruction entails a number of disadvantages. One major setback of the lecture mode is its

reliance on the monologue style of knowledge delivery. Bakhtin (1984:110) observes that the style grants the lecturer a dominant voice thus allowing him or her to seem as if s/he possesses a ready-made truth. According to USA (2012), there are at least five notable disadvantages of the lecture mode of instruction. Firstly, the method cannot suitably be applied in the teaching of practical skills such as speech, cooperative thinking and motor skills. Secondly, the method can only conveniently relate to developing skills on the comprehension level of cognition, and is limited in teaching more practical cognitive skills (such as the development of concepts and principles). Thirdly, the method denies the lecturer the opportunity to evaluate and establish what the students have actually learnt before a new section is introduced, or before an examination. Fourthly, since the method limits students' participation and mostly renders them passive, it may deter the lecturer from holding students' attention. Lastly, the method is time and energy intensive on the part of the lecturer and it requires speaking skills at an advanced level. With that background about the lecture method of classroom instruction, the following section presents the characteristics of the lecture method with reference to higher education in Tanzania.

Nevertheless, the lecture mode of instruction can become more communicative if lecturers can adopt the dialogic style of instruction which, as Bakhtin (ibid.) remarks, facilitates students' participation, thus allowing the lecturer to build on students' input. Soliman (1999:7) suggests several means by which lecturers can promote engagement and learning during a lecture. These include use of vivid examples, use of humour to create interest and emotional release, use of analogies, similes and metaphors to link new to known knowledge, and use of sign post statements such as "Today I want to examine four principles of...". Others are the use of framing statements such as "The basic principle underlying...is this." Lastly is breaking the lecture after every 15 minutes with some activity such as letting students write down one or two questions they may have had at a certain point in the lecture and instruct them to discuss with a neighbour.

5.4.3 The lecture mode of teaching in Higher Education in Tanzania

As noted earlier, although the lecture method prevails in higher education, it is perceived with a certain degree of scepticism. Soliman (1999:5) observes that the method is accepted as a fact of academic life by not only academics and administrators, but also by students. For example, in Tanzania as it is in many other countries, the acceptance of the lecture method is already reflected in the designation of academic staff where labels such as 'Assistant Lecturer', 'Lecturer' and 'Senior Lecturer' are in practice.

The lecturing method is predominant in higher education in Tanzania due to a number of factors. The most notable is the pressure to increase the number of students in universities in response to instructions from the education system to develop primary education through the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) 2002-2006 and the Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) 2006 -2009. These two plans have led to an increased number of primary school leavers entering secondary school and subsequently finding their way to the university. This has meant that the universities have had to accommodate more students than before, although the infrastructure has not developed in the same proportions. Political moves such as those that improved expectations of access throughout in primary and secondary education, education have been criticised for their failure to provide support in tertiary education, also in assisting with modification of the teaching modes in universities.

Northege (2003:169) associates such a situation in higher education with the expansion programmes that do not match with availability of funds. In the case of the University of Dar es Salaam where this study was conducted, the situation is attributed to the IMF and World Bank imposed Structural Adjustment Programmes that resulted in, among other things, trade liberalisation and finally liberalisation of education. This liberalisation led to the mushrooming of privately owned schools thus hiking the number of students with access to a university education even though the infrastructure and financial capacity remained weak. As will be briefly pointed out here, large student numbers and the constraints of the infrastructure oblige the lecture method, and therefore the particular uses of language associated with such a genre.

Lecturing at the University of Dar es Salaam, like anywhere else, is challenging due to a number of factors. Large classes are among the factors that assure the continued practice of the lecture method at the University. For instance, the number of students in the studied departments ranged between 100 and 300 per course. This situation limits the use of any method of instruction other than the lecture method. The issue of class size and how it influences learning and teaching in higher education has engaged researchers in developing countries such as Tanzania as well as in developed countries worldwide. In Australia, Markwell (2003:2) laments that the decline in the practice of small group teaching in universities and the diminished opportunity for individual contact between students and academics has posed a great challenge to the Australian prospect of having higher education fit for the 21st century. This is apparently due to the worsening student-staff ratio. This has been compounded by the dramatic rise in students' enrolment and intense market competition (cf. McInnis, 2003:2ff). In the university sector of Ireland, it has been observed that large classes are a

common practice that is likely to persist in the future due to the ever increasing number of enrolled students (Waddington and McCaffery , 2010).

The funding of the university does not tally with the expanded enrolment of students; therefore, the university has resorted to using the few large lecture halls and theatres that they do have, to accommodate the large numbers of students. These are associated with problems such as inaudibility of the lecturer, especially in cases when the sound system is defective or at times when the supply of electric power is down.

As explained above, the staff-student ratio at the University of Dar es Salaam is very high, thus encouraging large group lectures. This situation militates against the possibility of dividing the large classes into smaller, more manageable groups. Even if the number of lecturers increases, especially after the return to work of all the members of staff who are currently training elsewhere, the limited infrastructural capacity such as a limited number of large venues is likely to foster continued use of the lecture method. Considering the inherent limitations of the large lecture in the transfer of extant knowledge and the development of new knowledge, in the following sections I shall give some reflection on the alternatives to such a genre in teaching.

5.4.4 Active learning as alternative mode of instruction in higher education

Recent reflection on the most effective forms of teaching mostly argues against the use of the lecture method, and suggests models of instruction that promote active learning. In most cases the suggested methods point towards having small class sizes that facilitate learner centred practices. This trend is linked to the opportunities that new technologies offer for moving away from traditional approaches to learning and teaching in higher education (cf. Allan et al., 2009; Field, 2004, McInnis, 2003; Saunders & Klemming, 2003). Thus, according to Gibbs (1981), lecturers can enrich their lecturing methods by integrating resource materials and alternative modes of communication with the conventional lecture methods to overcome some of the institutional constraints. Markwell (2003) further suggests that universities should encourage teaching methods that prompt active learning, such as discussion and debates that can improve independent and clear communication skills. Other such active learning modes of teaching are the seminar method, the case study method, and the tutorial method (Mande, 2001). The following sections provide an overview of some of the alternatives suggested in the literature that can be used to enhance the lecture methods already in use at the University of Dar es Salaam.

5.4.4.1 Collaborative learning

In a study about university students' view on the good lecturer's classroom practices, Rego (2003) found that students consider four major kinds of behaviour of lecturers necessary. These are participatory modes such as encouraging students to participate in the teaching and learning process, practical modes such as explaining points by using practical examples that are accessible to students, modes of pedagogical conscientiousness such as the lecturer's professionalism, and modes of courtesy such as showing respectful behaviour towards students.

It has been argued that focus should be on the learning outcome rather than on the teaching process itself. Then lecturers and students collaborate for attaining quality learning. Markwell (2003:1) observes that learners learn both from each other and from those who teach them, thus better methods of teaching are those that promote active learning. Universities should thus encourage such collaborative teaching methods that refine skills for independent thinking and clear communication. Markwell (ibid.) presents some of the factors that play role in determining the quality of learning. These factors fall into three major groups. The first set of features relate to qualities of the students themselves, that is their aptitude, their approaches to learning, as well as the size and nature of their classes and the quality and diversity of the group members. The second set of features relate to the kind of curriculum being studied, the calibre and strategies of the lecturers and the way learning is encouraged through assessment and feedback. The third set of features relates to the available and used resources such as libraries, laboratories and Information Technology, the scope for learning in classrooms and outside classrooms and the wider institutional and social contexts.

5.4.4.2 The Peer Assisted learning mode

The peer assisted learning mode (hence forth PAL) is well established in Great Britain and in the United States of America, where it is referred to as supplemental instruction (cf. Capstick et al., 2004). Boud et al. (1999:413) define PAL as the use of teaching and learning strategies in which students learn with and from each other without the immediate intervention of a teacher. This mode works to enhance students' learning experience by providing them with an opportunity to discuss curriculum topics in a non-threatening environment (Hammond et al., 2010:202). The mode has potential advantages to students and teachers as it facilitates retention and has been found to produce improved grades (cf. Pakinson, 2004; Congos & Schoeps, 1998). Other benefits of the mode are that it helps students to cope with university life and to understand the learning context better (Capstick et al., 2004). This mode is also associated with improved critical thinking skills (Finlay & Faulkner,

2005). Students' own view of peer teaching and learning practices indicate that the method is not particularly appreciated (cf Hammond et al., 2012; Sim, 2003). Hammond et al. (2010:208) found that students responded well to the social aspects of peer learning sessions, showing that they valued hearing other people's perspectives, learning from others and being able to air their concerns. However, they showed reservations as to the potential of this method in helping them understand complex concepts and course expectations. Sim (2003) found that students rated the contribution of peers to have made the least impression on their development of knowledge and skills. They indicated that they had learnt more from tutors and lecturers.

5.4.4.3 *The seminar mode*

Another mode of classroom interaction in higher education is the seminar mode by which the seminar facilitator or lecturer provides students with a topic in advance of their meeting. Students then come to the seminar prepared to present their search results to the whole group. The seminar group which meets periodically, is supposed to consist of fewer students than would be the case in a lecture. Mande (2001) finds that the method is advantageous in that it allows students time to examine the topic thoroughly and helps them to acquire improved synthesis, analytical, critical and communication skills. Setbacks associated with the method are the possibility of students and tutors not coming well prepared, thus rendering the seminar discussion dull. This method has a high requirement for resources and there is minimal instruction. Such resources are dependent on good funding and location of a suitable seminar venue thus, the necessary infrastructure is essential.

5.4.4.4 *The discussion mode*

The guided discussion mode forms another method of instruction under the active learning teaching methods. According to Kelly and Stafford (1993), the method can be applied for both small and large groups, and can take different formats. Four such formats are identified. First there is the controlled group discussion format by which the lecturer introduces the topic and controls the discussion while students make comments or ask questions. The second is the step-by-step format by which the lecturer divides the topic into several segments and then alternates between the presentation of the content and discussion while allowing students to comment or ask questions. The third is the buzz-group discussion format by which the lecturer, at a certain point in the lecture, asks students to turn to their neighbour for a few minutes to discuss their understanding of a problem or a prepared question. The last is the snowball group format by which the lecturer asks students to extend their buzz-groups by doubling the group size so that pairs form fours and fours form eights

and the large groups finally present back to the whole class in a plenary session thus allowing ideas to unfold gradually. The advantages of this method include providing an opportunity to students for personal and intellectual growth through the interaction between them and lecturers and among themselves. This method allows for active learning at a high conceptual level as well for building self-confidence and independence among students in managing their own learning. The difficulty of this method is that teachers have to thoroughly plan for both the content for discussion as well as the strategies to be used to attain the seminar set goals. This can sometimes be tasking to the lecturer in terms of time and energy.

Generally, based on my experience as a lecturer at the University of Dar es Salaam, I can find that no one mode of classroom interaction in higher education can suit all situations. For the case of small group methods as discussed above, Mande (2001) makes it clear that they can by no means be fully reliable as they depend on many circumstances. For example, they can deny the student the chance to learn note-taking skills because of not using listening skills. They can encourage dominance of the discussion by one student or a few who have prepared for the topic. They can be disorganised because students may not wish to work with each other. They can be unproductive to students as many do not take discussion seriously thus not caring about taking any notes; finally, and they may lack lecturer's input as not all lecturers are comfortable with seminars or discussions.

5.4.4.5 *The use of practical examples mode*

The use of practical examples forms one of the most cherished strategies in the literature on the methods that stimulate active learning. This mode, which highly relates to the findings of this study, involves a number of practices that many other modes are likely to fail to execute. The strength of the method resides in its reliance on the linguistic potential of the lecturer, which is the focus of this study. As will be pointed out in section 5.5 below, the findings demonstrate how central language is to teaching. According to Courter et al. (1996), students value it greatly because lecturers who provide practical examples in their lectures to reinforce the links between theory and practice facilitate their learning. The coexisting use of practical examples and theory simultaneously develop a theoretical and practical base for students (Courter et al., 1996:1). Section 5.5.1-5 will provide more clarification on how the method operates with examples from the current study.

5.5 LECTURERS' CLASSROOM STRATEGIES IN TEACHING BIG GROUPS

Although literature on classroom interaction in higher education reiterates that large class size inhibits active interaction, some practices can facilitate active learning regardless of class size (cf. Field, 2004). The practice of engaging students in the teaching and learning process seems to be at the top of the agenda in most institutions, although its implementation is constrained by a number of factors. Baldwin (2010:164) notes some of the constraints, which include decreasing resources for the provision of a good learning environment. Particularly, the idea of engaging students seems to be prohibited by large lecture halls and a class size of five hundred and more students. Yet, this is a common phenomenon in many parts of the world, and invariably this is portrayed as daunting for the students as well as challenging to the lecturer (Baldwin, 2003:164).

Soliman (1999:5) finds that lecturing in such conditions is challenging even to experienced academics, as it requires improvising and developing new lecturing skills. According to Bash (2009), there are political, linguistic and pedagogical learning factors that impact on classroom strategies. Examples of political barriers are the internationalised market of higher education and the globalization of knowledge. These may oblige the use of a second or foreign language in education. As linguistic barriers, De Vita (2000:170) identifies language-related factors, especially lexical and phonological ones. As pedagogical barriers, De Vita (2000:173) finds that universities are teaching ever greater and culturally diversified numbers of students. The teaching methods that previously worked well now do not help most students: the lecture method that dominates is least suited to students' learning. Furthermore, Barlow (2002:1) notes that in universities, knowledge of the style and register of academic language is often taken for granted. Lecturers ignore the differing backgrounds of students by regarding students to be equipped with understanding of appropriate vocabulary and terminology from the outset. Therefore, some form of renovation of teaching practices that may benefit learners in big group lectures should be encouraged.

In considering what kinds of new classroom practices would be helpful, there should be attention to the kinds of practices that research identifies as most likely to be useful. The practices often referred to, and specifically recognised in the recordings analysed for this study, include repetition, use of questions, code switching, use of discourse markers and deictic markers. This is particularly so in the context of English being used as lingua franca in academic settings worldwide, to see how they can inform the current practices. Considering work on bilingual education that recognizes the range of linguistic resources that are available in communities helps to identify the most useful strategies. Bilingual education draws specifically on languages other than English that students bring to the

classroom. Such a form of education allows more use of those languages while at the same time developing English as lingua franca in such a way that the multilingualism of the speakers is not denied or repressed, but actually encouraged. Students and lecturers are allowed development of their linguistic repertoire, thus enabling them to become society members who can contribute meaningfully in a range of different linguistic and social contexts.

The following sections present reflections first on those strategies identified as generic to large lectures in the data of this study (cf. sections 5.5.1 to 5.5.5). The set of reflections is on some potential discourse strategies of a slightly different kind, which could be used in facilitating teaching and learning in higher education in such a multilingual society such as Tanzania (cf. section 5.5.6). I shall demonstrate how the lecturers who participated in this study improvise lecturing skills that facilitate active learning regardless of the number of students and the size of the venue.

5.5.1 Use of questions

The ways in which lecturers generically used questions in the big group lectures studied at the University of Dar es Salaam have been discussed quite extensively in chapter four (cf. sections 4.2.3 and 4.2.4). Overall, the findings of this study are that the lecturers' use of questions as a discourse strategy is a kind of behaviour that all use quite regularly. Particularly, in the big groups the kinds of questions are ones intended to engage students, to get them to reflect, but rarely to actually give a long answer that will open a discussion. Tag questions, rhetorical questions and closed questions are all typically used to elicit agreement with the proposition of the speaker. Open-ended questions, which were according to their occurrence within the transcribed texts the least often used of all question types, could perhaps allow students to differ from or engage critically with the lecturer. However, the impression is that more often than not, open-ended questions were used to check students' memory rather than to invite a new discussion.

Clearly, the constraints of the large venue explain most obviously, why these question modes are used. For instance, the use of questions in Excerpts (8-18) illustrates how the lecturers improvise different strategies to explain concepts that cannot be explained using other illustrative devices or resources such as overhead projectors or data projectors with visual presentations.

5.5.2 Code switching

The ways in which lecturers generically used code switching in the big group lectures studied at the University of Dar es Salaam have also been discussed extensively in chapter four (cf. section 4.2.5).

The findings of this study demonstrate the importance of recognising that regardless of the actual policy about the use of English only as LoI at this university, bilingualism and multilingualism is the norm among all participants, lecturers, students and other staff members. The study has also emphasised that situations where classroom interaction is through a language other than the first language of participants, is not an isolated one. Code switching is a regular and acceptable phenomenon when speakers are proficient in more than one language. It is a communicative practice widely used in most public domains in Tanzania, and the University of Dar es Salaam is no exception here. This study has indicated that the L1 of staff and students, particularly also the local lingua franca, Kiswahili, can form a valuable resource in teaching and learning. On careful consideration of the excerpts discussed in chapter four, it is clear that code switching is most often used to minimise social distance between lecturers and students, to give accessible illustrations and to rearticulate complex insights in a more informal mode so as to assist students in building new concepts and new forms of understanding. All the eight examples presented in chapter four (cf. section 4.2.5) indicate that lecturers draw on their own bilingualism and relate to a language with which the students are familiar, to facilitate classroom communication through code switching. Essentially, this study proves how inseparable speakers are from their linguistic and cultural roots. The code switching instances exemplified in this study conveys ideas in a manner that is conventional in every other bilingual educational context.

I would suggest that the practices of code switching that already exist, should be investigated for the positive contribution that they do make to the development of new knowledge, that teaching policy perhaps be adjusted to provide for such good uses of code switching and bilingual education. This can be done without undermining the value of also developing knowledge through medium of an international lingua franca such as English, in a manner that allows wider access to information and to other social contexts than would otherwise be possible.

5.5.3 Discourse markers

The ways in which lecturers generically used discourse markers in the big group lectures studied at the University of Dar es Salaam have been discussed in detail in chapter four (cf. section 4.3.1 and 4.3.2). Particularly, the use of the discourse markers with the highest incidence in the recorded lectures was analysed. Although, in some instances "so" and "now" are used so often and even repetitively, it appears to be typical of spoken language where the speaker is virtually giving a monologue. These markers often signal a transfer to a new topic and the introduction of a related or new idea. They also mark pauses as part of rephrasing or emphasising. In all the examples

presented, lecturers use "so" and "now" to achieve cohesion in long stretches of discourse that need various kinds of textual structuring to assist hearers in recognising the logical flow of an argument, and in following the main points of the presentation. No matter how the lecture method of instruction can be criticised, the role that language plays in the method is paramount. Even when a lecturer uses power point, the explanation part will still be vital, thus requiring him or her to employ a variety of linguistic devices to deliver the intended content clearly.

5.5.4 Pronouns

The ways in which lecturers generically used pronouns that refer to themselves as speakers or to the students as hearers in the big group lectures studied at the University of Dar es Salaam have been discussed in detail in chapter four (cf. section 4.3.3). It appeared that the uses of "I", "we" and "you" by lecturers is in much the same way as they would be used in any other context where a speaker intends to engage hearers. The engagement of hearers could be by lecturers identifying their own position, by identifying who they are addressing, as well as by challenging hearers to put themselves in the position of another, be it other persons currently related to what is being discussed, or persons in history whose ideas are relevant to shaping the hearers own thoughts and positions.

As explained above, language plays a central role in lecture delivery regardless of whether it is an "old style" lecture, or a more innovative approach that attracts active participation from the hearers. For instance, the use of pronouns in the provided examples, as explained under section (4.3.3), is very useful in indicating stance or ensuring that the relationship between lecturers and the content as well as the students is clear enough to signal important points. One such typical example is excerpt (8). The use of pronouns "I" and "we" facilitates a smooth explanation of the concept 'legal-rational authority' by allowing the lecturer to signal different positions when he is a participant in the example and when he is inviting students to contemplate with him.

5.5.5 Use of the black or white board

Although the use of the black or white board as a supportive device in teaching was not specifically discussed, it needs specific mention, as this is the one part of the presentation in which the lecturer uses written (as opposed to spoken) language in the lecture genre. Even with new technologies such as the overhead projector or the data projector, the black or white board remains a widely used resource in the big lecture hall. It is used supportively to emphasise concepts that are being introduced and to give an indication of highlights that need special attention. In the interview sessions all the lecturers commented that it is a very useful means of helping students identify not

only the concepts being introduced, but also the spelling of different concepts they learn, which is also important because the LoI is an L2 to the majority of the students. Most important is the fact that all lecturers argued that they use the strategy of writing while lecturing to assist students who are unfamiliar with the English terminology because of being exposed to the large group lecture method for the first time when they arrive at university.

The above discussions summarise findings of the analyses given in chapter four. In the following section I shall refer to suggestions given in a handbook on "Strategies for Effective Teaching" prepared by the University of Wisconsin-Madison in 1995. The illustration involves use of practical examples, which I found is related to and exemplified in the lectures I observed. The handbook refers to more strategies, such as 'show and tell', 'case studies', 'guided design projects', open ended labs', the flowchart technique', 'open ended quizzes', 'brainstorming', 'question and answer' method and 'software'. I shall not discuss any of these, as they are not directly relevant to the recorded lectures that this study has been investigating. However, I shall refer to use of practical examples or analogy as a means of explanation, and I shall illustrate from the recorded lectures how each one of the participant lecturers used analogy in their presentations.

5.5.6 Use of practical examples

Literature on good classroom practices by lecturers (cf. Rego, 2003; Sim, 2003) indicate that students value lecturers who actively motivate and engage them in the learning process, who communicate effectively, and who present the content in a systematic and orderly manner. Factors such as these foster the continued use of the lecture method in higher education. Baldwin (2003:165) is frank about it that although many institutions and stakeholders claim to embrace modern ways of teaching in higher education, lectures remain at the heart of students' classroom experience. According to the Wisconsin University Handbook for Teaching Assistants (1996), the biggest challenge in teaching is to help students to learn. Therefore, it makes some very specific suggestions as to how teachers or lecturers can link theory to practice. It suggests the use of practical examples to assist students in connecting theory with applications. The main goal of giving practical examples is to help students to understand new materials as well as to apply the acquired knowledge to new situations. Accordingly, the handbook elaborates this suggestion by categorising illustrative practical examples into those that help explain a theory and new concepts and those that help illustrate the application of basic principles.

The Wisconsin handbook introduces analogy the most useful tool for explaining and exemplifying new concepts. This is done by providing a mental link between the new concept and an idea that the students can easily envisage. One helpful example of analogy presented in the handbook refers to the concept of the conservation of energy in a natural sciences course, explaining it in terms of money in a bank. Three types of bank accounts are analogously compared to three types of energy. A process assumed to be known to students, namely the different ways of depositing and withdrawing money, is used to explain the different forms in which energy is transferred and saved. I shall refer to the Wisconsin explanation of using analogy, to illustrate how, in the lectures that I observed, lecturers made use of this explanatory strategy. The following eight kinds of practical example will illustrate how, intuitively or decidedly, lecturers used analogy in their big group teaching. This highlights another generic feature of the big group lecture at the University of Dar es Salaam. For the illustrations here, I have taken one example from each lecture. The analogies used here all occurred as components of one of the three most frequently used propositional discourse strategies. These examples illustrate not only how practical examples are brought in to facilitate learning; they also illustrate the strategies identified by the Wisconsin guide as brainstorming and the question answer method.

⇒ *The floating ship example*

The following excerpt shows a lecturer's use of a famous Kiswahili saying to bring home the idea that everything has a source, and that even something abstract like the peace students are experiencing in the country has a source; it can be attributed to the effort someone before them has put in.

(71)

L:	<u>Ukiona vyaelea. Ukiona vyanini?</u>	[If you see them afloat, if you see them doing what?]
SS:	<u>Vyaelea!</u>	[Afloat]
L:	<u>Ukiona vyaelea?</u>	[If you see them afloat?]
SS:	<u>Vimeundwa!</u>	[They have been made!]
L:	<u>Na ukiona vimeundwa vyaelea!</u>	[And if you see them made, they are afloat!]
L:	<u>Ukiona vyaelea, nini vyaelea?</u>	[If you see them afloat, what are afloat?]
SS:	[Silence]	
L:	If you see the boat ... in literal translation you know, there is something--Somebody who has made it. Now you see Tanzania - You call it Tanganyika. When you see the country is peaceful or relatively peaceful, there is somebody who must have done something. "Na ndiyo maana" [that is why] as a new generation - a young generation, you should also aim at providing or trying to pay " <u>mchango wako</u> " [your contribution] while you are living so that people who come after you - your children and grand children, will also be able to say " <u>ukiona vyaelea vyaundwa</u> ". " <u>Vimeundwa na babu zetu, ambao ndio nyie</u> " [when you see them afloat, they have been made, they have been made by our forefathers, who are you!].	
		LPsc.1

In this excerpt, the lecturer appeals to students' knowledge of the idiomatic expression, wanting to explain that current good conditions are the result of the hard work of previous leaders, of African freedom fighters such as Kwame Nkrumah and Julius Nyerere. This is not only about political history, but also an encouragement for the students to follow such an example. So, by using the expression the lecturer compares the peaceful Tanzania to a floating boat; the "makers" of the boat are Nkrumah and Nyerere, and the concept of cause and effect in the historical-political processes of achieving liberation after colonialism is so explained.

⇒ *The common river example*

The following excerpt is a second example from the Political Science lectures in which the concept of 'globalisation' and how some states profit more from this process than others, is brought home to students. Using the metaphor of the "global village" to explain that the world has effectively become a smaller place where people meet easily and should be able to share more easily than otherwise, the lecturer elaborates and introduces the idea of a river flowing by the village. The lecturer uses the image of a river from which theoretically every member of the village should draw water in equal measure, to challenge the universal advantages globalisation is said to have.

(72)

... the countries that benefit through globalisation are the core countries, the core countries including USA, European countries, at least even in the semi, periphery there is the so called semi periphery countries such as Japan and India, they are benefiting from globalisation, but what about Tanzania? Are we benefiting as USA? And therefore the question of global village, who are the members of the global village? Do they access resources equally? As in your home? Because you can have just one river "kila mmoja anaenda anachota palepale, sindiyo? [Everyone goes and draws water from it, is it not?] Now, in the global village, can you do the same? Can you get the same amount of water? That are the questions that you need to address as you are seated with your friends, your fellows, as you go - the global village and its impacts to periphery states

(LPsc.2)

⇒ *The hen and egg example*

In the following excerpt, the lecturer uses well-known argument often used in controversies about what the cause and what the effect is in a given situation. He is working with the concepts of 'ideas' and 'material conditions', referring to the Marxist question whether people first think about a condition and then create it, or whether the material conditions are first, and then prompt ideas about the condition. As this is a rather abstract kind of argument, he refers first to the old question that has no answer, namely whether the chicken was before the egg, or vice versa. He elaborates this

illustration by referring to how hot weather prompted the introduction of fans and air conditioners (where what came first is clear). Finally, moving closer to the 'material conditions' concept, he refers to the notion of a shirt, asking whether there were shirts before people started conceptualising varieties of shirts, or whether the idea of a shirt came first, and only then the manufacturing started. So, by a reduction of what is material to the concept of a shirt, which all students know, the position Marx took, is explained.

(73)

So, that is actually a major contribution in sociological thinking. We ask what is it, what is it primary, is it idea or material condition? ... Let's say what was primary in understanding for example the issue of the universe. What was what was there first? Is like thinking of a chicken and hen and an egg. What was it primary? Is it chicken or egg? So, to Marx actually what was primary is the material condition. That material condition, I mean, existing material condition leads people to think something. For example, I will give you an example of weather for example. Because of warm weather, for example, warm weather in Dar es Salaam, it is very warm, very warm! So, people have started thinking of ways to at least be happy by introducing air conditioners and fans and whatever so that the people can be happy. So, the idea of fan or air condition came after the weather. Do you understand what I 'm talking? So, if I ask you for example, what was it primary between the idea of having a shirt and a shirt? ...

LSoc.1

⇒ *The vendor versus Bill Gates example*

In the following excerpt, the lecturer uses references to common vending practices in Tanzania in explaining and exemplifying the difference between a capitalist and a survivor. To distinguish between those who amass wealth to take care of their basic needs and those who do so in excess of their basic needs, he refers to two opposite players in business. First, he refers to the difference between small concerns such as the Tanzanian street or market vendors and large concerns such as international companies operative in Tanzania, such as Coca-Cola and Toyota. Second, he relies on the students' existing knowledge of the owner of another such international concern, namely Bill Gates who is the owner of the Microsoft Company and on their ability to recognise the difference between him and the regular vendor in order to bring home aspects of Weber's concept of 'capitalism'.

(74)

Well in normal circumstances people accumulate wealth ... you have people who have small businesses, they are selling water they are selling in Ubungo or people are vending they are doing small business in terms of vending ... they have, let's say, ten cloths they move from one corner of Dar es salaam to the other to sell, but at the same time we have people who have, let's say, industries they own, industries worth of millions of money. All these people are accumulating ... but actually we can say a person who is vending ... he is accumulating the kind of wealth to make him survive ... But a person who owns an industry, let's say Coca-Cola, or he owns an industry, let's say Toyota, he does not accumulate capital for basic needs, he is accumulating capital beyond his personal needs. In this context Weber is talking of accumulation beyond personal needs. So, a person who has a business worth, let's say of 100 USD, we cannot call him or her a capitalist ... is a person who shows the characteristics of capitalism. But take an example of person who has 20,000 USD, we can say this is a capitalist because this kind of money is beyond his personal requirements. So, a person like Bill Gates can be termed a capitalist because even if he was to expend that money ... even if he was to use that money for food, he could perhaps spend hundred years before being able to finish that money. But a person like ... a person like a food vendor at your cafeteria ... he can actually spend that money in a week and then it is over.

LSoc.3

⇒ *The man to thing relationship example*

In the following excerpt, the lecturer uses an elaborated example of how the owner, driver and conductor of a commuter bus are related to one another through ownership of the "daladala" and agreements about managing the commuter business they jointly operate, as an analogy that demonstrates how materialistic power relationships exist in society.

(75)

Remember last time when we were discussing the owner of the "daladala" [commuter bus] and we cited an example of one of you who is attending this particular lecture ... and who is therefore unable to drive his "daladala" [commuter bus] to commute people, passengers from Ubungo to Manzese or whatever area and we said that he being the owner of the "daladala" [commuter bus] he controls two things at the same time. He controls the thing itself, that is the "gari" [car] ... the "daladala" [commuter bus] ... but at the same time, simultaneously, he controls these particular two men, the driver as well as the konda [conductor]. So, there is a relationship between this particular owner and the "konda" [conductor] as well as the driver. The owner is the individual person. These particular two individual (conductor and driver) are also individuals but this particular relationship between the owner and the driver and the "konda" is mediated through the inanimate thing "haiwezi kuona" [it cannot see] "haiwezi kusikia" [it cannot hear] called "hii gari" ... [this car]. So this particular relationship between these two sets of individuals is mediated by inanimate thing called "gari" [car]. So through "gari" [car] this particular power of these particular individuals is mediated, influences or determines whatever activities of these particular two individuals.

LSoc.2

⇒ *The drinking of culture example*

The following excerpt illustrates how the lecturer uses a metaphoric reference to the activity of drinking to articulate one way in which people acquire culture. In explaining the abstract and variously defined concept 'culture', he mentions a list of what he regards to be components of culture (values, norms, etc.) and collectively refers to them as "a code for behaviour". Regarding the acquisition of this code, he refers to the fact that some see it as a process that people not only passively receive, but in fact 'take in' unquestioningly, like drinking something that will become part of them without them putting in any more conscious effort than swallowing it.

(76)

So, in the process for growing up, humans get inculcated into a particular code of conduct, or are exposed to a variety of values, norms, morals, conceptions, meanings, evaluations - a code for behaviour. So culture as a code for behaviour. The process of growing up for some is considered, it is considered as a process of enculturation. Some view this process of enculturation as more passive. They tend to see it as a passive process, through which people learn to execute different rules or actions for ... the code of conduct. Some view it as a passive process through which they acquire a culture, which is viewed as consistent, coherent, definite and so, in the process of growing up, people acquire a culture. "Wanakunywa ile" [they drink that] culture as a process, as a passive process ...

LSoc.4

⇒ *The corrupting of elections results*

The following excerpt illustrates how the lecturer refers to elections for a student leadership that are in process at the time of the lecture, to elaborate the concept that human beings are naturally egoistic and selfish. He analogically uses the student elections in which students themselves are engaged, to bring home a point that the social scientist, Thomas Hofs, has made.

(77)

... if I ask you now like how many people in this class are selfish, it's likely that no one is going to raise their hands, uwongo?[is it a lie?]. Who is selfish, who is nasty, who is egoistic? These are things that we are ... I mean, we don't like to be associated with but we know deep inside that it's how we are. Elections are over? ... And what is the fate of our ... friend, he won? Or you are still in the, "au bado mnachakachua? Ameshinda?" [or you still corrupting the results ... has he won?] ... he is about to win? ... alright! So, Thomas Hofs is credited for having that courage, you know, to speak about human nature. Things which ... people would not like to hear, as I said no one would like to be associated with this kind of aah, but we know deep inside that this is how human beings ...

LPsc.3

⇒ *The boss versus rank example*

The following excerpt illustrates how a lecturer uses his own position to explain the concept of power related to a position and not to the individual who at a given time fills that position. He intends to explain that there is power in the abstract position of the presidency, the position of a Head of Government, which stays the same (constitutionally) even if the individual is not going to be the same person indefinitely. He uses the analogy of the Head of a Department at the University to explain how the President as Head of State is invested with "legal rational authority". He explains this very specifically by telling students that even a person who according to one category is not in the most powerful position (lecturer as opposed to full professor), can simply by being in a position with "legal rational power", become powerful.

(78)

It is like us, I am not a full professor. I am simple but I hold an office as the head of department. There may be professors, whatever, I don't care, I am the boss, I have legal-rational authority (uproar). It is not much to be proud of but I am trying to explain the legal-rational authority. J.K may be simple, wearing a smiling face all the time but he has the legal-rational authority. But there may be the Mengis⁸ with a lot of money. There may be the Manjis with a lot of money, a lot of cars, they have a lot of what, but they don't have the legal-rational authority. He is the president. We are not looking at Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete as an individual, as a personality, we are looking at him as the president, office holder, holding an office of the president ... the presidency! We are looking at the individual as a position, he holding that office. Is that ok?

LPsc.4

5.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has demonstrated how the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam improvise different strategies to facilitate teaching and learning. The chapter has shown how, in the light of other suggested modes of instruction, the lecture methods can still hold a dominant position in teaching large classes. The findings show that there are some concepts and ideas only the lecture method can suitably handle. A special issue concerns the influence of English as lingua franca and the way the lecturers manoeuvre around it by careful use of such devices as repetition, questioning, code switching, discourse markers and indexicals. In the light of these observations, it is suggested that the lecture method should be regarded as effective as any other method of instruction. The only issue should be on how to apply the insights from different studies and models for a common classroom practice model that can cater for such situations as bilingual classroom settings.

⁸ Mengi and Manji are renowned business people in Tanzania.

Chapter Six

CONCLUSION, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study sought to explore, from the lecturer's perspective, the language of classroom interaction in higher education in Tanzania. It particularly focussed on such lecturers' use of discourse strategies during classroom interaction with students. The recorded data of lectures and of interviews was transcribed and analysed within the framework of four questions. A literature review confirmed that although there has been extensive research on which languages are used in classroom interaction in Tanzania, the generic features and functions of the language of lectures as a vehicle for teaching and learning have remained relatively unexplored. This exploratory study has identified the nature and form of spoken discourse in university classrooms with large student numbers in Tanzania, the reasons and motivation for particular kinds of adjustment through the use of verbal strategies such as repetition, use of questions, code switching, discourse markers and pronouns to facilitate the execution of the academic goals of teaching. The study also sought to ascertain how lecturers view not only their own practices generally, but also the challenges facing students' who are learning through English, and how the lecturers attend to those challenges to help students. It further sought to gain lecturers' opinion with regard to the choices they are obliged to make between English and Kiswahili as languages of instruction.

6.2 DATA

Data were collected and processed in accordance with the study's aim presented in chapter one of this dissertation. That aim was to identify the discourse strategies that the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction, in order to categorise and map them according to their occurrence and functional patterns, and to characterise them in the context of a bilingual tertiary level education setting. Three fundamental objectives that guided the study were to identify and describe the discourse strategies, to explain how and how widely and why the lecturers use the various strategies that were evident during classroom interaction. The third question was to map the lecturer's discursive strategies into an occurrence pattern that can function as reference in indicating which strategies occur systematically in classroom interaction in a multilingual educational system.

The objectives were accomplished and the findings demonstrated how lecturers in multilingual educational settings utilise linguistic resources available to them to facilitate classroom interaction.

There were two sources of data, namely eight lectures and eight interviews. The lecture data were processed under two major categories namely propositional and structural discourse strategies. The analysis of propositional discourse strategies focussed on lecturer's use of repetition, use of *questions* and *code switching*. The analysis of structural discourse strategies focused on discourse markers *so* and *now* and on three personal pronouns, which were *you*, *we*, and *I*. The interviews with staff members recorded after their lectures provided complementary information to the one obtained from the lectures. They particularly gave information about lecturer's classroom experiences as far as English as LoI is concerned, discourse strategies which lecturers profess to use to facilitate teaching apart from those observed in the data, the reasons for their use of the various strategies, their view about the usefulness of the strategies they use, and their additional comments.

The study referred to literature on discourse strategies in classroom interaction elsewhere to relate to the identified discourse strategies that the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction. Specifically, the targeted studies to which this project referred were those on the discourse strategies typically used in classroom interaction in general and various studies on classroom interaction in linguistically diverse communities. It has to be noted that considerably more research has been done on strategies used in primary and secondary teaching than in tertiary teaching. Special consideration was given to strategies speakers use for smooth communication where speakers from different first language communities and with limited shared communicative resources are in contact.

6.3 THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The study combined some insights from Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis frameworks in order to cover sufficient nuances of the characteristics of lecturers' classroom practices at the University of Dar es Salaam. Both analytic frameworks proved useful in that Conversation Analysis supported in analysing conversational features of lectures and Discourse Analysis assisted in analysing the discursive features of lectures. The focus was on the language of classroom interaction as an instance of a particular discourse type, and the aim was to characterise it in the light of bilingualism and bilingual education concepts in the context of higher education teaching and learning in Tanzania. The study briefly considered the potential properties of the lecturers' use of English as members of the outer cycle in Kachru's famous inner and outer cycle

model of English usage. Thus the study considered the LoI used in Dar es Salaam as an instance of a "new English". The findings reflect the characteristic use of English as lingua franca in academic settings thus forming part of world Englishes, particularly in the higher education system of such a multilingual society as Tanzania. It was noted that as an international language used to bridge linguistic differences, the English used in higher education in Tanzania shows marked differences to the documented uses of English in higher education in European countries.

The analysis followed a bottom-up approach to avoid imposing theoretical predispositions on the data. This approach demonstrated how lectures share certain characteristics with ordinary talk. Through the analysis of the oral communication practices of lecturers, conversation analysis revealed how the lecturers organise the communicative events and the roles of the different strategies in wider social processes. The two branches of conversation analysis (formal and applied) were especially useful in the analysis of the data. Particularly Pure Conversation Analysis framework facilitated the identification and analysis of aspects of spoken English such as repetition, questioning styles and code switching. Additionally, by drawing on the insights of Applied Conversation Analysis, the study scrutinised oral practices such as code switching in the social context of the Tanzanian higher education classroom interaction policy that requires all academic discourse to be through the English medium. Examined against this policy, lecturers' practices of code switching convey a significant message regarding the contradiction between policy on LoI and actual classroom practice. For example, the study revealed that lecturers used the strategies consciously as a response to the perceived problems that English poses to students when they attend lectures delivered in the official language of academia.

These findings help reveal how participants in their practical contexts do things the way they do, even when contrary to how the things are planned, evaluated and accounted for elsewhere in theory or at a higher hierarchical level in an organisation (cf. Heap, 1990). Furthermore, this theoretical approach helped the researcher to distance himself from practical or accidental personal interests of various lecturers by conducting the interviews after the lectures and then based on the data in the recordings, thus focussing the questions on the actual instances of the lecturers' classroom practices. Thus, the use of video and audio recordings of institutional practices was crucial especially when dealing with data that can reveal undesirable results that may call for social reaction.

6.4 FINDINGS

Specifically the data reveals that lecturers rely heavily on repetition, questioning and code switching. These strategies play a remarkable role in facilitating speech production and comprehension. Moreover, the study reveals that lecturers generically utilise features of spoken language such as discourse markers. These are acknowledged for facilitating smooth face-to-face communication by helping in discourse organisation, content flow and signalling of how speech acts are meant to be taken.

Discourse Analysis provided a framework for analysing different properties and patterns of language that emerged from the lectures. It helped analyse how lecturers use discourse strategies to produce different patterns of text. It specifically helped reveal how lecturers' uses of repetition, questions and code switching as well as discourse markers and pronouns, creates coherence and facilitates topic progression. The study used the Discourse Analysis framework as a master frame for analysing the pragmatic and conversational elements of language in use in a university classroom. With its interest in the structure of discourse in interaction, Discourse Analysis helped relate different discourse strategies with different acts in the context of different cultural values and roles that university lecturers play. The lecturers used different discourse strategies to not only make discourse coherent and topics prominent and continuous, but also to fulfill pertinent academic roles through their use in exemplifying, explaining, eliciting, and emphasising. These strategies were used in the social roles of lecturers as well, as when they were advising, reminding, or even warning students about their intellectual responsibilities and engagement with the content.

Generally, Discourse Analysis helped produce discourse data through guiding the researcher's listening to talk, transcribing it and reflecting on its meaning and significance. The use of Discourse Analysis facilitated an understanding of oral practices of lecturers during classroom interaction with the inclination that so people's talk can provide evidence about other aspects of their life. Thus, this study has discovered the interactional practices of lecturers and it has established how they utilise their linguistic repertoire to accomplish the academic activity of lecturing. Generally, the analysis has made explicit lecturers' classroom behaviours that for long time seemed to be inconspicuous and probably not likely to attract any linguistic scrutiny.

The main findings are given after the analyses in the summaries at the end of chapters four and five. Here I summarise the main findings in accordance with the three major questions, which are:

- What discourse strategies do lecturers use during classroom interaction?
- How do the lecturers use these strategies?
- Why do they use these strategies?

With regard to the first question, the study identified three major types of strategies that the lecturers used namely propositional discourse strategies (repetition, questioning and code switching), connectivity discourse markers (*so*, and *now*), and contextual personal markers (pronouns *you*, *we* and *I*).

With regard to the second question, the study revealed that the lecturers used the strategies in a wide variety of forms. For repetition, there were two types, namely phrasal and clausal repetition. Phrasal repetition was on factual and action concepts, thus mainly noun phrases and verb phrases were repeated, while the clausal repetitions were mostly of independent clauses, which functionally play a great role in drawing the listener's attention, thus facilitating comprehension.

With regard to the third question, the lecturers provided reasons for using the strategies identified in the recorded lectures. The common reason they gave was their awareness of the non-native English language proficiency of students, as well as the fact that first year students are new to the register typically used in university lectures, thus needing more careful consideration from the lecturers than when they are teaching more advanced students. The study reveals that the lecturers use the strategies believing that they help to simplify their lecture delivery. Concerning their views towards the language of instruction in higher learning, three out of eight lecturers suggested that English should be maintained as the single LoI, provided that it is taught well in lower levels, i.e. in secondary schooling. Four lecturers were on the side of Kiswahili with the feeling of having a local language being used to impart knowledge, thus reflecting nationalism. One lecturer was ambivalent, claiming that neither language would bring better results if stakeholders were not actively involved in creating an environment conducive to adequate mastering of both languages.

6.5 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The study has indicated how the lecturers draw on their bilingual status to enrich lectures. Specifically, the study indicates that they use code switching across all the three most frequently used propositional strategies. They code switch when they repeat concepts and when they ask

questions. They also code switch for specific purposes of translating or explaining concepts, managing classroom behaviour and showing solidarity with students. This study has shown how, as it is for many countries in which English is not the first language of the majority of the learners, lecturers in Tanzania use it in higher education teaching. It has become clear that there is a need for continued investigation of how non-native speakers of English of varying levels of proficiency are able to arrive at mutual understanding of academic work in this medium.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study focussed on only one college and two departments on the main campus of the University of Dar es Salaam. The results cannot be generalised to be applicable for all the other campuses, nor for all the universities and tertiary institutions in the country. Therefore, follow-up studies that include different institutions and fields are advised, with a view to accomplish documentation of a wider spectrum of lecturers' classroom language practices in the country. Moreover, the analysis in this study focussed on the uses of the numerically most used discursive strategies, namely on the three propositional markers, two discourse markers and three pronouns. These are not representative enough given the wide range of language properties that one does find in lectures. Therefore, it is recommended that more studies focussing on other markers of this discourse type be conducted to avail information concerning the variety of discourse strategies lecturers use.

6.7 CONCLUSION

This study attempted to isolate a number of generic features of lectures at the University of Dar es Salaam. Two characterising features were established as the fact that this is an institution where a majority of the staff and students are multilingual who are likely to be proficient in at least three languages, namely in their local community language, in Kiswahili and in English. Another feature was the fact that in the higher education system of Tanzania English is the academic lingua franca, which is not only the default LoI, but in fact is the prescribed LoI. This study has discussed how existing research on bi- or multilingualism and bilingual education can facilitate reflection on how the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam manage big group lectures, using a variety of strategies to facilitate teaching and learning. Furthermore, it has highlighted some of the pertinent aspects emerging from ELF research that are interesting regarding ELF teaching at the University of Dar es Salaam.

In spite of a popular and quite widely distributed perception about poor performance of both teachers and learners in theoretical and policy debates, classroom language practically shows that it can provide some solutions to mitigate potential obstacles to teaching and learning in a multilingual society. The practices analysed in this study call for closer scrutiny of practical issues of English language usage in the Tanzanian context, as an instance of the uses of English in higher education elsewhere in the world where English is not an L1, but a lingua franca to the majority of the participants.

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Appendix A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SELECTED LECTURERS

I. OPENING

My name is Mr. Shartiely and I am an Assistant Lecturer in the department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics (UDSM). Currently I am pursuing PhD studies in linguistics at Stellenbosch University (SA). As we agreed in our first meeting, I should interview you so that I get additional data for my study following my observation of your lecture on (date) this year.

Particularly I would like to ask you some questions about your educational background, some teaching experiences you have had, and some of your observations concerning the language of classroom interaction at the University of Dar es Salaam.

I hope to use this information to help document the range of discourse strategies that Lecturer use, how and why they use them.

The interview should take about 30 minutes. Are you available to respond to some questions at this time?

Let me begin by asking you some questions about your education and carrier background.

A. General carrier and education background information

1. How long have you been teaching in this University?
2. Where else have you taught before?
3. Where did you pursue your studies?
 - a. Undergraduate
 - b. Masters
 - c. Doctoral
4. At undergraduate level did you train as a teacher?
5. During your carrier have you ever attended a teaching methodology course?
 - i. Yes
 - ii. No
 - iii. If yes, when and where?

B. Language issues

1. During your secondary education which medium of instruction was used?
 - a. English
 - b. Kiswahili
 - c. English and Kiswahili

2. A lot of people complain that the students of the University of Dar es Salaam have low level of proficiency in English language, what is your opinion about this claim?
3. Have you ever experienced a situation where you introduced a topic to students and you felt that they did not understand what you meant?
4. If yes, what do you do to help them understand what you mean?

C. Discourse strategies

1. During your lecture on (date) at point 'X' you used discourse strategy "Y", why did you choose to use it?
2. You also used strategies (abc) at points (xyz), did you plan to use them before you came to class?
3. How can you describe the way the strategies help you in teaching?

D. Opinion

1. What difficulty do you think students experience by learning in English?
2. Which language would you recommend to be used in teaching at the University?
3. Why?

E. Closing

Well, it has been a pleasure finding out more about you and your teaching experience. Let me briefly summarize the information that I have recorded during our interview

I appreciate the time you took for this interview. Is there anything else you think would be helpful for me to know so that I can successfully map up your use of discourse strategies? I should have all the information I need. Would it be alright to arrange for another meeting if I have any question?

Appendix B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Discourse strategies of lecturers in Higher Education Classroom Interaction: a case study at the University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Mr Shartiely from the Department of General Linguistics at Stellenbosch University. The results of this research will contribute to a PhD dissertation. You were selected as possible participant in this study because you are an experienced lecturer teaching large classes, which normally call for lecture method. Since my study targets data from lectures and not seminars, I find you as quite useful for this research.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to identify the discourse strategies that the lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction in order to categorise and map them in a discourse strategy framework that will be used to illustrate their occurrence patterns in bilingual tertiary education.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

- 2.1. Have one of your lectures being audio-visually recorded,
- 2.2. Participate in a 30 minutes interview with the researcher.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no any foreseeable risks or discomforts to you or your students. I shall do my best to ensure that no interruption or distraction. At most, there will be a low visibility of presence of the person recording.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO YOU AND/OR TO SOCIETY

You will benefit from this study by getting a copy of the audiovisual package of your lecture. This will work as a tool for reflection and contemplation, if you so wish. Moreover, the outcomes of this research will be made available to you. It is also intended to assist in reflection on, and possible development of, lecturing strategies across the University.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Your participation will be entirely voluntary. Therefore, you will not receive any payment.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you personally will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of coding your name and the course concerned using a number or letter, keeping the data in a password protected computer and by limiting access to the original data to the researcher, supervisor and examiners. When the results are to be published, confidentiality will be maintained by referring to strategies and uses of language without mentioning names of courses or lecturers.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the study.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATOR (S)

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Mr. Shartiely (Principal Investigator) at cell number +255-713-340-130, email: etiely@yahoo.com

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECT/PARTICIPANT

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact Ms Malena Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT /PARTICIPANT

The information above was described to me by Mr Erick Shartiely in [English/ Kiswahili] and I am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject/Participant

Signature of Subject/Participant

Date _____

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [name of the subject/participant]. [He/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in [English/Kiswahili] and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator

Date

Appendix C

ETHICS REVIEW REPORT

Applicant: Mr NE Shartiely

Project title: Discourse strategies of lecturers in Higher Education Classroom Interaction: a case study at the University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

Nature of research project: PhD (Department of General Linguistics, SU)

Reference number: 486 / 2010

Supervisor: Prof C Anthonissen (Department of General Linguistics, SU)

Date: 2 December 2010

Summary of Research

This research proposal of Mr Shartiely was tabled and considered at a meeting of the Ethics Committee on 2 December 2010 (in terms of the guidelines prescribed by the Stellenbosch University Framework Policy to Promote and Ensure Ethically Responsible Research, adopted by Senate on 20 March 2009). The purpose of this review is to ascertain whether there are any ethical risks associated with the proposed research project of which the researcher has to be aware of, to assess the nature and extent of these ethical risks, and to suggest measures that can be taken to avoid or minimize these risks.

Documents Received:

The Ethics Committee received the following documentation as part of the submission for ethical clearance:

	Documents Received / Documents Outstanding
A signed application for ethical clearance [signed by the researcher and supervisor; not signed by the Head of Department]	Received
Copies of relevant letters of permission	Outstanding
Project proposal	Received
Informed Consent Form	Received
Interview schedule for lecturers	Received
Lecture observation schedule	Received

The purpose of the study is to identify the discourse strategies that lecturers of the University of Dar es Salaam use during classroom interaction, in order to categorise and map them in a discourse strategy framework. Selected lectures in the Department of Political Science and Department of Sociology will be recorded and classroom activities will be observed. Thereafter interviews will be held with lecturers.

The researcher should respond to feedback from the Research Ethics Committee by submitting the required documents, notes, or amendments to the office of Mr. Sidney Engelbrecht (sidney@sun.ac.za / 021 808-9183) in the Division for Research Development, Stellenbosch University, before the research can commence.

The Research Ethics Committee wishes to provide the following feedback:

Finding of Research Ethics Committee (REC):	Suggestions by REC	Responses by the Researcher / Principal Investigator
1. The Ethics application form was not signed by the Head of the Department.	A duly signed application form must be submitted before the start of this study.	The supervisor is also the Head of Department
2. The researcher indicated in the application form (9.1.1) that permission will be obtained from the University of Dar es Salaam, as well as the two departments where the study will be conducted.	All letters of permission must be submitted prior to the start of this study.	The letter provided by the office of the Vice Chancellor of the University of dare es Salaam is final. The researcher presents it to individuals or units as letter of introduction.
3. The researcher indicated in the research proposal that he is a lecturer in the College of Arts and Social Sciences and that lecturers from two departments in this College will be selected to participate in this study. A purposive sampling method will be used, i.e. the researcher will approach specific lecturers and ask whether they would participate in the study. It is unclear from the documents received whether the researcher would be able to make an unbiased decision on whom to include in the study, and that this type of sampling method would not have an effect on the results.	The researcher is requested to explain in a note to the Ethics Committee why a randomized sampling technique will not be used and how he will ensure, with the purposive sampling, that selection and response bias would not affect the results.	The researcher's main motivation is what lecturers do during classroom interaction particularly with first year University students in a multilingual society with English as the only Medium of Instruction. The aim is to understand how this context shapes the process of lecturing and ultimately identify, describe and analyse individual lecturer's linguistic behavior during classroom interaction. Therefore, there is no any anticipated risk of bias since the lecturers, though purposively selected, they must be teaching first year students. Furthermore, the the linguistic behaviours of lecturers cannot be predicted in any way and more important is the fact that the researcher is from a different department and he has

Finding of Research Ethics Committee (REC):	Suggestions by REC	Responses by the Researcher / Principal Investigator
		never taught or been taught by any of the selected lecturers.
4. There is a discrepancy in the proposed dates for data collection (see # 4 and 8 of the application form).	Please clarify the specific dates for data collection in a note to the Ethics Committee.	Section 4 gives detailed description of the actual data collection process while section 8 provides general information about the commencement of the whole study up to the time of actual field work. For instance, during the period of June -July 2010, the researcher made a recognisance trip to the University of Dar es Salaam.
5. Lecturers will be video taped during one of their lectures and the researcher will also attend the class for observation. Both matters should be brought under the attention of the participants in the Informed Consent form.	The researcher is requested to amend the informed consent form by explicitly stating that lectures will be recorded and that participants will have the opportunity to review the transcripts for verification.	Noted

Recommendation:

On the basis of the application submitted to the Ethics Committee, the proposed research project may continue with the proviso that:

- Researcher will remain within the procedures and protocols indicated in the proposal, particularly in terms of any undertakings made in terms of the confidentiality of the information gathered.
- The research will again be submitted for ethical clearance if there is any substantial departure from the existing proposal.
- The researcher will remain within the parameters of any applicable national legislation, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of research.
- Any notes and/or amendments are submitted to the office of Mr. Sidney Engelbrecht of the Division for Research Development, Stellenbosch University
- The researcher will consider and implement the foregoing suggestions to lower the ethical risk associated with the research.

MEMBERS: Profs J Hattingh, C Theron, E Terblanche, Drs. C Thesnaar, G Görgens, G van Zyl, S Viviers, N Somhlaba & Ms R de Villiers.

**UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM****OFFICE OF THE VICE-CHANCELLOR
P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA**

Ref. No: AB3/12(B)

Date: 20th December, 2010To: The Deputy Vice-Chancellor (Administration),
University of Dar es Salaam.**UNIVERSITY STAFF AND STUDENTS RESEARCH CLEARANCE**

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr. Nikuigize Erick Shartiely** who is a bonafide staff Member of the University of Dar es Salaam and who is at the moment conducting research. Our staff members and students undertake research activities every year especially during the long vacation.

In accordance with a government circular letter Ref.No.MPEC/R/10/1 dated 4th July, 1980 the Vice-Chancellor was empowered to issue research clearances to the staff and students of the University of Dar es Salaam on behalf of the government and the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, a successor organization to UTAFITI.

I therefore request you to grant the above-mentioned member of our University community any help that may facilitate him to achieve research objectives. What is required is your permission for him to see and talk to the leaders and members of your institutions in connection with his research.

The title of the research in question is "**Discourse Strategies of Lecturers in Higher Education Classroom Interaction: A Case Study at the University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania**".

The period for which this permission has been granted is **December, 2010 to March, 2011** and will cover the following areas/offices: **University of Dar es Salaam.**

Should some of these areas/offices be restricted, you are requested to kindly advise him as to which alternative areas/offices could be visited. In case you may require further information, please contact the Directorate of Research, Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2087 or 2410743.


Prof. Rwekaza S. Mukandala
VICE-CHANCELLOR

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