

**A study of the Namibian transitional language policy in education and the role of  
code-switching in achieving it**

A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the  
degree of *Master of Arts in Linguistics*

by

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1 IMPORTANT NOTES

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- 1.2 Please note that where a candidate has not submitted this signed statement from the supervisor, their dissertation submission will be rejected by the Faculty Office.

## **ABSTRACT**

The study investigated the Namibian transitional language in education policy and the role of code-switching in achieving it. Firstly, the study identified the types, structures and roles of code-switching in the Grade 4 bilingual classroom. Secondly, the study established the challenges faced by educators and students regarding English as the medium of instruction during the transition phase. Thirdly, the study established the challenges that educators face in implementing the Namibian language in education policy during the transition phase in Grade 4.

The data were collected at the Gabriel Mubita Primary School (pseudonym) of the Zambezi region of Namibia. The study adopted qualitative research methods and data were collected via classroom observations and in-depth interviews. Furthermore, the participants were two educators who were observed and interviewed, together with their Grade 4 students. The data of the study were audio and visual recorded, translated and transcribed. Thereafter, the data collected were linguistically and thematically analysed into themes and sub-themes.

The findings of the study were that code-switching was predominately utilised by educators and students at the school under investigation. It was revealed that educators employed three different types of code-switching namely situational, educational and interpersonal code-switching for pedagogical, teaching and social reasons. The research also found that three different structures of code-switching were utilised by educators, mainly intra-sentential and inter-sentential, while tag-switching was rarely utilised. Code-switching was utilised for roles such as: to encourage students to participate in the classroom, for explanations and clarification purposes, to maintain discipline in the classroom, to show solidarity, to reiterate, to translate and to explain the subject content that students could not grasp as they were beginners. The findings revealed that educators and students faced challenges such as lack of English proficiency, shortage of teaching and scholarship materials, students' linguistic under-preparedness and limited exposure to the target language. Lastly the findings showed that educators had insufficient training on the transition phase, lack of policy awareness, and that the transition to English as the medium of instruction takes place too early.

The study recommends that the policymakers must involve educators when developing the policies and ensure that educators are trained in policymaking, orthography of two common

languages such as Subiya and Sifwe must be developed since students in the Zambezi Region are not taught in their mother tongue but rather in Silozi, the lingua Franca of the Zambian origin, educators must be given a pre-service and in-service training by the Ministry of Education on how to deal with code-switching or formulate a language policy that includes code-switching since it is considered a powerful teaching tool during the transition phase, teaching and learning material resource shortages within schools should be addressed by the Ministry of Education.

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- Lastly, but not least my Heavenly Father, for providing me with the strength, knowledge, and wisdom to complete this study. All glory to him!

## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to and in loving memory of my dad Mr Gabriel Kela Mubita, my cousin Mr Redson Kaseba Mulonda and my elder sister Ms Lettie Kela who suddenly passed away during the final stage of my thesis writing.

## **KEY TERMS**

Code mixing, code-switching, language policy, multilingualism, transition, translanguaging

## LIST OF ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
BETD	Basic Education Teachers Diploma
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CBD	Central Business District
CS	Code-switching
ESL	English Second Language
ECP	Education Certificate Primary
ELL	English Language Learner
ELP	English Language Proficiency
HED	Higher Education Diploma
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
L1	First or home language
L2	Second language
LoLT	Language of Learning and Teaching
MEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MBEC	Ministry of Basic Education and Culture
MT	Mother Tongue
MOI	Medium of Instruction
NSA	Namibia Statistics Agency
SWAPO	South West Africa People's Organisation
UNIN	United Nations Institute For Namibia
ZPD	Zone Proximal Development

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# CHAPTER 1

## STUDY ORIENTATION

### 1.1 Introduction

Namibia became a sovereign state in 1990, and it is a country that is positioned in the South-Western part of the continent and is among the less densely inhabited nations in Africa. Namibia Statistics Agency (NSA) (2016:13) estimates Namibia's population at 2.3million. The country's inhabitants speak languages that belong to three major linguistic phyla i.e. Niger-Congo, Khoisan and Indo-European. Although the country is divided into 14 regions, it has a monolingual official language which is English (NSA, 2016:13) having attained this status at independence in 1990.

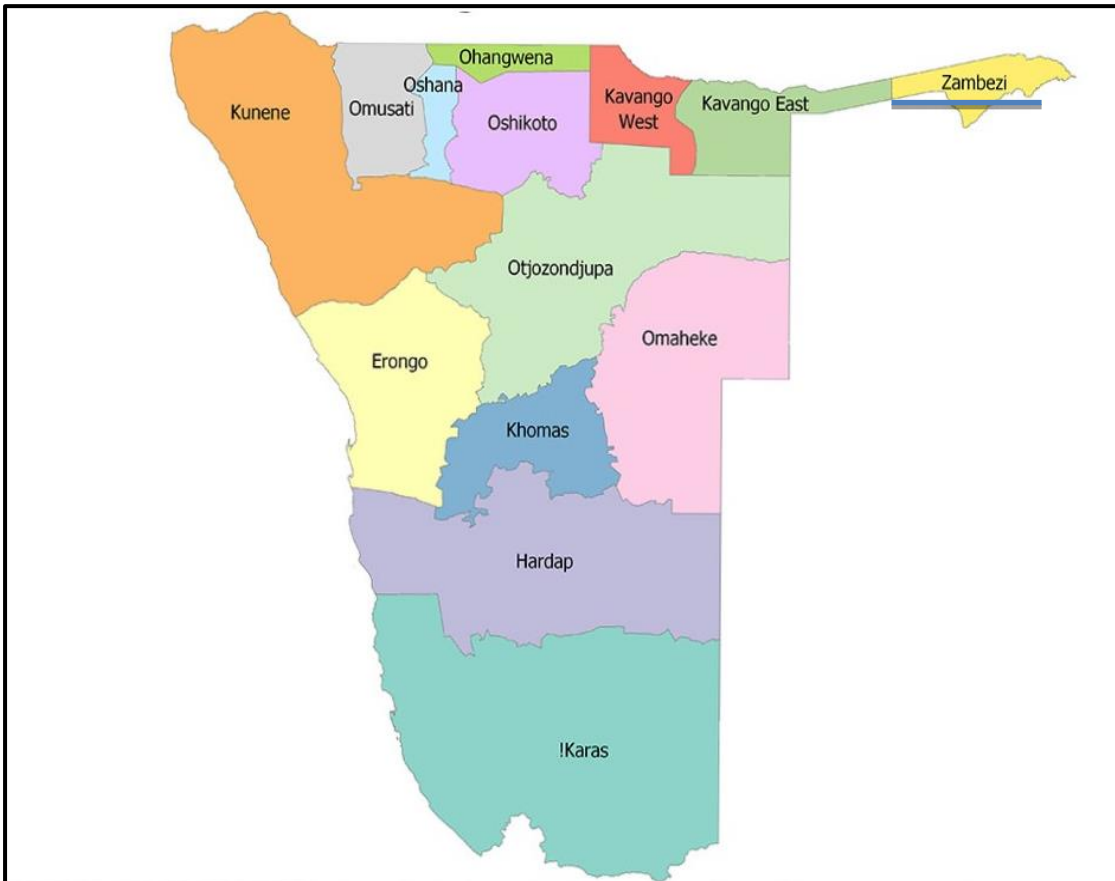
In line with the inherent multilingual scope in Namibia, Töttemeyer (2009:23) states that ten “languages were accorded the status of national languages in addition to English and these are Ju!’hoansi, Khoekhoegowab, Oshindonga, Oshikwanyama, Otjiherero, Rukwangali, Rumanyo, Setswana, Silozi and Thimbukushu”. Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir (2001) and Putz (1995) add that three major Indo-European languages are English, German and Afrikaans. Yet only English is recognised as an official language that can be utilised in all public arenas (i.e. educational purposes, media, official purposes).

Namibia was never an Anglophone state in Southern Africa as was Zambia and Zimbabwe hence English has never been Namibia's colonial language (Töttemeyer, 2009:23). Yet the Namibian language in education policy recommends that pupils must be taught in English during and after the transition period in Grade 4 and this presents lots of challenges to both educators and students in schools. It is against this background that this case study investigates the Namibian transitional language policy in education and the extent to which code-switching helps to achieve it. This section outlines the background of the study, statement of the problem, key research questions, and sub-questions to be addressed. It further presents the significance of the problem, definition of terms, limitations of the study, delimitation of the study, thesis outline and conclusion.

## 1.2. Background for the study

To provide an insight and contextual knowledge to the reader, the linguistic background and policy documents pertinent to this study will be discussed below.

### 1.2.1 The linguistic description of the Zambezi Region



**Figure 1: Present-day map of Namibia, with fieldwork area underlined** (Source: Wikipedia)

The Zambezi region was previously known as the Caprivi region until 2013 and its regional capital city is Katima Mulilo. Baumbach (1997) states that the region is highly multilingual and nine languages that are spoken in the region are as Silozi [K21], Sisubiya [K42], Sifwe [K402], Mbalangwe [K401], Sitotela [K411], Thimbukushu [K333], Siyeyi [R41], Khwe [B73d] and Setswana [S31d]. Guthrie (1971) classified these languages into two linguistic groups, namely Niger-Congo and Khoisan. In addition, Silozi is the national language after being conferred with prestige at independence in 1990, while English remains the second/certified language of the region, as mentioned earlier in 1.1.

Silozi is spoken by a few people, and it has remained the only recognised medium of instruction (MOI) taught in the foundation phase (Grade 0-3) and instructed as a subject in Grades 4-12. Furthermore, Silozi is utilised for communication purposes, radio, electronic media, print and ethnic cultural organisations and it is also utilised in places of worship. It must be noted that it is not a native Namibian language, but a lingua franca of Zambian origin (Töttemeyer, 2009:23; Sitwala, 2010). This entails that the bigger number of students are not taught in the language they comprehend because they have other home languages. For this reason, most students “begin to deal with Silozi significantly only from the time they start school” (Frank Seidel, 2005:4).

The reasons for selecting Silozi as the medium of instruction over the native languages found in the region were as follows: (1) It had a well-developed and standardised orthography, (2) It had instruction and scholarship materials compared to other languages, (3) It was intended as a language for unity, and (4) It is regarded as a neutral language. Thus, this is how “Silozi found its way to hegemony in the Zambezi schools” (Maclaren, 1958). Conversely the absence of “standardisation of the most verbal languages is arguably” used by the state as the major motive in their justification (Töttemeyer, 2009:23).

Nevertheless, presently two languages of the region, Sisubiya and Siyeyi, have now developed orthographies, but they are not used in schools. The Namibian Language in Education Policy’s key purpose was to “unify and harmonise the Namibian citizens from various language backgrounds and avoid tribalism that would oppose national unity in education, economics, politics, and societal sectors” (MEC, 1993:1). Kangumu (2008) concluded that “Silozi was perceived as a conciliator to help harmonise or rather overcome” the seeming resentment and ethnic tension between the region.

Thus, it can be contended that Silozi was not envisioned for the aim of initial learning and the educational interest of students as intended by the politicians and educators. The present researcher is of the opinion that the issue of language has, to some extent, been politicised in the nation. For instance, the people of the Zambezi “has been until recently been formally regarded by the government as being native speakers of Silozi” (Elderkin, 1998:208) and such “misclassifications of languages can possibly affect education” in the country.

### **1.2.2 The Namibian Language in Education policy during German colonial rule.**

As attested by Norén (1995:8-9) native people of German South West Africa (known as Namibia today) had been occupied and "oppressed by the Germans" from 1884 to 1915. Within this period, German was given the position of both official language and language for educational purposes

(Cluver, 1991:118). According to United Nations Institute For Namibia (UNIN) (1981:4) on their arrival in Namibia, German settlers focused on developing as well as establishing the schooling of white children first, totally disregarding the teaching of African children. For this reason, the missionaries continued being in charge of education for Africans (UNIN, 1981:4). When German was instituted in mission schools as the language for teaching, it was more in theory than practice.

German missionary authorities in the early period allowed different missionary groups (i.e. Rhenish, Anglican, Catholic and Finnish) to utilise their language of choice as the medium of education (Amukugo, 1993:43). This prevented the ability of the German language to penetrate the Namibian linguistic landscape. Later on, the Finnish and Rhenish “missionaries even went to the extent” of translating the Bible into different local languages (UNIN, 1981:4). Thus, its implementation as a language for teaching solely materialised in white German schools. This status quo continued till "Germany was conquered in World War 1 and the South African apartheid" regime annexed Namibia (Cluver, 1991:118).

### **1.2.3 The Namibian Language in Education policy during the Union of South African colonial rule**

Cluver (1991:118) notes that after “World War 1 Namibia became a League of Nations Mandate Class C”. The mandate was for the Union of South Africa to administer and govern the territory on behalf of the League. In 1918, two languages, Dutch and English, were accorded official status by South Africa, whereas German was given "semi-official status" (Cluver, 1991:118). Then six years later, Dutch was substituted with “Afrikaans as one of the state languages of Namibia” due to language changes in South Africa (Cluver, 1991:118).

As Harlech-Jones (1990) cited by Cluver (1991:118) clarifies, the South African apartheid regime didn't explicitly formulate a language policy for Namibia. The three goals that determined their language policy during their administration were as follows: (1) the necessity to govern the “territory efficiently” (2) the necessity to “placate the German individuals of Namibia” and (3) the objective to include “Namibia into the Union of South Africa" (Cluver, 1991:118). The above-mentioned goals entailed that, the colonizer's language policy was based on political motives rather than linguistic concerns for the indigenous majority.

Cluver (1991:118) elucidates that the Van Zyl Commission encouraged the practice of Afrikaans as the medium of teaching for students who were not predominantly of European ancestry in Grade 1 from 1958. Furthermore, “English was seen as the second official language” to be offered in the third

grade (Zyl, 1958 cited in Cluver, 1991:118). German was permissible in white private schools as the medium of education and the mainstream was Afrikaans medium throughout e.g. Coloured, Rehoboth and Nama schools (UNIN, 1981:20).

The language policy of the time stipulated Afrikaans as the medium of education in Grade 1-4 in theory, but in practice, all lower primary schools had their different medium of instructions (MOI) according to their racial group (UNIN, 1981:20). Furthermore, Harlech-Jones (1990:82) proclaims that up "until the 1980s, Afrikaans had been the main medium of instruction for all black children for seven decades in the central areas, and several decades in the north". As time progressed, adoptions were made by different education authorities to change to English as the MOI, for instance the Damara authority in 1984, Nama in 1987 and Windhoek schools in 1988 (Harlech-Jones, 1990:82). Even though distinct administrations changed to English as the MOI, this policy was neither practical nor effective most often, and students were still educated in their first languages.

As Harlech-Jones (1990:82) elucidates, till the 1980s English had a very lesser place in the teaching of most Namibians. This implies that English was certainly not utilised as the language of education aside from a few white schools with English-articulating students, nor was it prominent in the syllabus apart from the third language. Another restriction "was that as a subject for teaching, English was not taught up until the third or fourth school years, and then not primarily as a subject in which reading was conducted" (Harlech-Jones, 1990:82). After Namibian sovereignty, however, English was finally embraced as the authorised language of the nation.

#### **1.2.4 The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, 1990**

The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia was adopted in February 1990, thirty days before independence from the South African apartheid administration. According to the Oxford Dictionary (2010:211) a "Constitution is a body of fundamental principles or established precedents" according to which a nation is ruled. Brock-Utne (1995:14) asserts that the choice to utilise "English as the language of education" in Namibia was planned before the Constitution was formulated, during the struggle for freedom by "SWAPO, South West Africa People's Organisation" which is currently the governing party. Thus, it was not an impromptu decision.

Legere & Trewby (1999) examined the advantages and disadvantages of multiple relevant languages as authorised languages and mediums of instruction in a sovereign country and they discovered that English was selected since it conforms to the standards for an official language - it was the language of unity and broader communication. Their discovery was echoed by the Constitution of the

Republic of Namibia (1990:3) which asserts that English was selected as the authorised language since it is the “language for wider communication”. This implies that English is used by most individuals in the world and it might be hard to select any of the Namibian languages as the authorised language of the nation. In 1981, the key document called "Towards a language policy for Namibia, English as the second language: perspective and strategies", UNIN (1981:20) elevated English to the position of an official language. Consequently, the Namibian Language Policy should have been directed by the Constitution of Namibia.

The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia (1990:3) states the following:

- Sub Article 3.1 The authorized language of Namibia will remain English.
- Sub Article 3.2 Nothing encompassed in this constitution shall forbid the usage of any other as a medium of education in private schools or schools financed or by the state, subject to compliance with such requirements as may be imposed by law, to confirm proficiency in the official language, or for educational motives.
- Sub Article 3.3 Nothing encompassed in Sub-Article (1) hereof shall impede law-making by which permits the usage of language other than English for governmental, administrative and judicial purposes in the regions or areas where such other language or languages are spoken by a substantial component of the people.

Regardless of this emphasis on employing “English as the official language” of education, the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia (1990:3) in "Sub Article 3.2 and 3.3" makes provision for other languages to be utilised. But in reality, English has prevailed since 1990 to the level that other languages are hardly employed for official reasons

### **1.2.5 The present language in education policy for schools in Namibia**

After the demise of apartheid in 1990, the Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (MBEC) realised that there was an urgent need for a new language in education policy for schools to substitute Afrikaans as an official language. Therefore, the language in education policy utilised during the emancipation struggle by South West Africa People’s Organisation (SWAPO) schools had to be integrated into government policy. The Ministry “developed the language policy” to make sure that English was developed into the medium of teaching (MEC, 2003:1). The goals of the education restructuring were fourfold: accessibility, equity, quality, and democracy. Then the drafted policy had to endorse the usage of the indigenous languages and English in educational institutions. As a

result, "The language policy for schools 1992-1996 and beyond" (MEC, 2003:1) was formulated, implemented and it was directed by the "Constitution of the Republic of Namibia" (see 1.2.4).

The Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) (2003:1) adds that students should be educated in their first language in their "early years of education from Grade 1-3 so as to attain the basic skills of reading, writing and concept formation in Grade 4, which is the transitional year in which the first language plays a supportive role in teaching". The Namibian government believes that English is a language of extensive communication and they thus saw a need to introduce it as the lawful language since the nation was linguistically and politically inaccessible before independence. As mentioned earlier, English was regarded as a unifying language to all Namibians, regardless of race and culture (MEC, 2003:1).

However, during the transition from Afrikaans to English, educational difficulties occurred. As Harlech-Jones (1998:6) claims, educators and students lacked fluency, and this lowered the status of English as students continued to perform below standard in academic subjects. As a result, this plunge from the first language to English prompted educators and students to begin utilising code-switching as an instruction tool. Considering the above provisions by the Namibian Language in Education Policy, one may suggest that the policy attempts to encourage the usage of the first language in schools, as well as make sure that students obtain an additional language of communication.

### **1.3 Statement of the problem**

Although the Ministry of Education has selected "English as the language of instruction from upper primary (Grade 4) to the tertiary level, it has been found that English proficiency is poor" among students and educators (Töttemeyer, 2009:23). There remain some serious challenges in achieving the goal of transition to English medium as educators from schools in the Zambezi Region find themselves code-switching between English (L2) and Silozi (L1) in most cases. What compounds the problem is that "during this transition from Silozi to English as the language of learning and teaching, most students are linguistically not ready to make this leap" (Heugh, 2006). It is against this framework that this investigation sought to explore how Grade 4 educators and students manage this transition and if code-switching is an extensive part of this process. It has been my observation that educators code-switch in facilitative ways between English and Silozi during the transition period. The study will explore the types, structures and roles of code-switching in the teaching and learning settings.

## **1.4 Research questions**

The following key research question and sub-questions arose with regards to this research study.

### **1.4.1 Key Research Question**

The key question is: How do educators negotiate the policy transition from Silozi to English in Grade 4 and what are the roles of code-switching in the process?

### **1.4.2 Sub-research Questions**

To answer the key research question, the study identified sub-questions that served as an engine for the entire investigation. These questions are as follows:

- What are the types, structures and roles of code-switching in the Grade 4 bilingual classrooms?
- What challenges are faced by educators and students regarding English as the medium of instruction during the transition phase in Grade 4?
- What challenges do educators face in implementing the Namibian language in education policy during the transition phase in Grade 4?

## **1.5 Significance of the study**

It is envisioned that this investigation will disclose educational and other practices that could help Grade 4 students' effective transition from first language education to English as the language for education and scholarship. The study is therefore relevant to numerous role-players such as curriculum developers, policymakers, educators and government bodies interested in the development of the medium of education as the language of scholarship and teaching and in the process of transitioning from the first language to English in Namibia. This study is one of the first few attempts to investigate code-switching in the transition phase (Grade 4) in the Zambezi Region of Namibia. Therefore, this investigation may provide a useful launching pad for researchers to further investigate this transitional phase, including educators from other regions of the country. Lastly, this study will document and add to the written work on the utilisation of code-switching and the challenges of the language policy in education.

## 1.6 Definition of terms

The definition of key terms has been supplied to assist in understanding recurring words when reading the study.

**Code-switching** is defined in the *Dictionary of Sociolinguistics* by Swann et al (2004:40) as referring to instances when speakers switch “from one code (i.e. language or language variety) to another” in the course of a conversation. Code-switching is often motivated by factors that can be identified such as a change in topic or interlocutor.

**Code-mixing** in contrast may be considered a sub-type of switching frequently involving inter-sentential rather than only intra-sentential switching (Swann et al 2004:41). It is less easily tied to factors like change of topic or interlocutor, and is often an in-group style among people who share the same languages.

**Language policy** is delineated by Brown (2014:375) as the “position of a state on the authorised or lawful position of a variety or varieties in a nation, frequently encompassing the purpose of a language for pedagogy, profitable and political” organisations.

**Multilingualism** is delineated by Crystal (1991:228) as the skill of utilising “two or more languages by a single utterer or by a community of speakers”.

**Transition** is an instructive word showing the “point at which the medium of education changes from one language to another” (Benson, 2008:5; cf. Van Ginkel, 2011).

**Translanguaging** is defined as a practice among bilinguals drawing from dissimilar linguistic repertoires to boost the "communicative potential" of the situation (Garcia, 2009:140). This term overlaps with mixing and switching to a much greater extent than Garcia and other scholar admit but is becoming popular in educational linguistic circles. In the opinion of R. Mesthrie (personal communication December 2020) the term has value less as an independent theoretical construct different from code switching and mixing, than as a reminder to educationists that despite generations of prescriptivism and promotion of official languages, mixing and switching are normal and valuable informal and sometimes formal social practices. Code switching specialists like Myers-Scotton (1993:113) have - on the contrary - show code-switching to be more systematic structurally, socially and thematically than users and some analysts believe.

## **1.7 Limitations of the study**

"Limitations" are feasible difficulties with the investigation that are recognised by the scholar (Creswell, 2012:199). The researcher encountered minor challenges during the present study. The first limitation of this study was the sample size, which is small. I sampled one school with four Grade 4 classes and two educators respectively. Therefore, the study should not be over-generalised due to the narrow scope of the study (Stake, 2005). Secondly, the researcher spent four weeks collecting data; this may not be adequate to cover a full range of code-switching practices. Thirdly, during lesson observations, code-switching instances by educators and students were scarce on the first day. The effect was minimised by repeat observations so that educators got used to my presence.

## **1.8 Delimitation of the study**

The investigation only concentrated on Grade 4's as this allowed the investigator to gain an in-depth of code-switching phenomenon during the transition phase.

## **1.9 Dissertation outline**

This study will be covered in five different sections as delineated beneath:

**Chapter 1:** This chapter acquaints the reader to the study, the background of the investigation, statement of the problem, key research questions and sub-research questions. It further gives the importance, definition of terms and limitations of the study. Lastly, it outlines the chapter sequence of the dissertation.

**Chapter 2:** Firstly, scholarly work and a summary on code-switching in educational contexts are discussed. Secondly, the different types, structures and roles of code-switching as a sociolinguistic occurrence in bilingual education are deliberated. Thirdly, the challenges faced by educators and students regarding English as the medium of instruction during the transition phase in Grade 4 are discussed. Then, the challenges educators faced in implementing the Namibian language in education policy during the transition are tackled and after that the theoretical framework is deliberated upon.

**Chapter 3:** The chapter covers the research design, research site, selection of participants and methods used. It also discusses the data gathering process, techniques, and ethics.

**Chapter 4:** This chapter gives an analysis and interpretation of the research data gathered.

**Chapter 5:** The final chapter reports on the results, gives assumptions and recommendations as well as proposals for the areas which need to be studied further.

## **1.10 Conclusion**

This chapter presented the study and provided the background of the Namibian Language in Education Policy during pre and post-colonial era. Furthermore, it outlined the statement of the problem, research questions and explained the importance of the study. The chapter defined key terms related to the study and discussed limitations delimitation and the dissertation outline. In the next chapter, focus is on the relevant literature review to this study, to be particular, code- switching and the Namibian Language in Education Policy during the transition phase.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1. Introduction

This section reviews the literature relating to this investigation of code choice and code-switching in education. Hofstee (2006:104) defines "literature review" as an investigative assessment of the preceding writing that is pertinent to what you are studying. Firstly, scholarly work and a summary on code-switching in educational contexts are discussed. Secondly, the different types, structures and roles of code-switching as a sociolinguistic occurrence in bilingual education are deliberated upon. Thirdly, the challenges faced by educators and students regarding English as the medium of instruction during the transition phase in Grade 4 are discussed. Then challenges educators faces in implementing the Namibian language in education policy during the transition are tackled. After that, the theoretical framework is deliberated upon.

#### 2.2 Code-switching in educational contexts

Literature presented in this section discusses scholarly work on code-switching in the pedagogical settings from Namibian scholars and elsewhere in the world. In a qualitative study conducted by Canagarajah (1995:179-192) in 24 "schools found in Jaffna, Sri Lanka". The investigation concentrated on examining code-switching expressions in an English Second Language (ESL) classroom situation and Tamil was the learner's L1. It studied the interpreted English and content subjects to classify diverse discourse roles of code-switching in rural and urban areas in an ESL classroom context. It also noted occurrences of educators' code-switching into Tamil during lesson presentation. Educators were astonished and did not acknowledge its usage; intentionally, they condemned of code-switching into Tamil classroom. They mentioned that they preferred English instruction; furthermore, they considered code-switching utilisation as associated to low proficiency in English.

Canagarajah (1995: 179-192) "distinguishes two main functions that are served by code-switching in the classroom: the micro function (classroom management) and macro function (transmission of lesson content)". Under classroom management roles, the consideration of how code-switching enables the educators and pupils to regulate classroom interactions systematically and efficiently was under scrutiny (Canagarajah 1995: 179). The findings were that educators employed code-switching for the transmission of lesson content namely: repetition, explanation, reformulation, clarification and exemplification. Furthermore, for classroom management functions viz. opening the class,

negotiating directions, requesting help, managing discipline, educator encouragement, educator compliments, educator's commands, educator monitions, mitigation, pleading and unofficial interactions

In a qualitative research conducted by Denuga (2015) in “Namibia, it was found that code-switching was extensively utilised in Grade 7s’ Natural Science classes” at Zebra Primary School in the Zambezi Region. Information was gathered through lesson observations, interviews and document analysis. However, Denuga (2015) mentioned that students at the school under investigation performed poorly because they had a lack of proficiency in English. Yet, a number of educators were against the use of code-switching as examinations were written in English and the language policy does not endorse code-switching. It was found that most educators used code-switching to help students to comprehend the subject content, to acquire the L2, to elucidate concepts, to accentuate points and to include students’ involvement in the subject.

In Namibia, Shilamba (2012) studied the occurrence and “nature of code-switching practices in the Grade 8 English classroom in the Ohangwena region”. It was discovered that the educators “code-switching practices aligned well with most of Probyn’s framework” (Shilamba, 2012). The criterion of maintaining learners’ attention with question tags noted by Probyn (2009) was however not found in this study. The findings showed that the majority of educators code-switched due to the poor language proficiency of students. Therefore, “code-switching is frequently utilised as a strategy to support and promote students’ understanding” in English as it is their second language (Shilamba, 2012).

In an ethnographic observation conducted in Kenya, Merritt et al. (1992) investigated the reasons for educators “code-switching between three languages such as English, Swahili, and the mother tongue (MT) in three Kenyan primary schools”. Their investigation carried out broad observations of classroom interactions in a foreign medium, as Swahili was the inherent language of the students. Merritt et al. (1992) found that “code-switching was motivated by two factors, viz. cognitive factors and classroom management factors”. Their study observed both societal and educational roles of code-switching. The findings indicated the following: (1) Students and educators’ utilised code-switching in their interactions to assist students’ ability and performance in the classroom, (2) code-switching helps as a means of gaining students’ attention, providing a way to focus in the lesson, (3) code-switching is an additional resource for meeting classroom difficulties in a multilingual setting.

Arthur (1996) carried an ethnographic investigation between educators' and students' interaction in "two primary schools found in north-eastern Botswana". The information was gathered using two research instruments, namely classroom observation and interviews, and it concentrated on Grade 8 classes in two different areas in northern Botswana. The community comprised of Setswana and Inkalanga utterers. The school under investigation used English as the medium of instruction. The investigation revealed that educators and students code-switched from English to Setswana even though they were prohibited by the language in education policy for schools. However, knowingly the students "dismissed engaging in code-switching and rejected code-switching practices as they were compelled by the official policy to use English only as a way to prepare for examinations" (Arthur, 1996). Educators employed minimal Setswana for simplifying whatever students seemed not to comprehend. The findings indicate that code-switching served the social and pedagogical purposes.

Eldridge (1996) in another study described and analysed particular "functions of code switching in a Turkish secondary school where English a second language is the medium of instruction". The research focused on students' code-switching between the ages of 11 and 13 years. It found that there was a relationship between the level of the student and his/her code-switching approaches. Eldridge (1996) assumed that students who are proficient in the "target language are less likely to code-switch than those who lack proficiency". Eldridge's (1996) investigation regarded code-switching as enhancing both communication and learning in the classroom. The motives for code-switching were as follows: to reiterate, floor holding and to control conflict. Eldridge's (1996) study concluded that "code switching is a natural and purposeful phenomenon, and when exploited, it enhances communication and learning".

Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain's (2005) investigation was carried out in a "seminar for an advanced German foreign language classroom at the University of Alberta in Canada". The research observed students' code-switching in the foreign language classroom. The study conceptualised code-switching in the classroom environment initially as a resource for second language acquisition and then as a potential resource for effective bilingual communication. This implies that learners could use their home language as a resource for second language acquisition when they needed to. The findings indicate that code-switching was used to discipline students, engaging students in the class activities and classroom for content transmission.

### 2.2.1 Summary on code-switching

There is plenty of research done that relates to code-switching in bilingual classrooms from different parts of the world, including Africa, although not many have been conducted in Namibia. This section reviewed code-switching in educational situations and the outcomes revealed that code-switching is predominant in two classroom speaker studies that were carried out in the following countries: In Sri Lanka, Canagarajah (1995) administered a qualitative study on code-switching in 24 education settings of Jaffna. In Canada, Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain's (2005) “study led to a session for a progressive German foreign linguistic teaching at the University of Alberta in Canada” and the investigation notice students' changing in the foreign variety. In Turkey, Eldridge (1996) described, as well as analyzed specified purposes of code changing in a “Turkish school where English is the medium” of education. In Botswana, Arthur (1996) conducted an ethnographic study on the teacher's and learner's interaction in two primary schools in north-eastern Botswana. In Kenya, Merritt (1992) investigated the aspects of the educator's “code-switching between English, Swahili, and the local dialect in 3 Kenyan schools”. In Namibia, Denuga (2015) conducted a study on how educators negotiate how to teach using code-switching in the Zambezi Region. Lastly, Shilamba (2012) studied the occurrence and “nature of code-switching exercises in the Grade 8 mathematics classroom in the Ohangwena region of Namibia”.

The above-mentioned studies show the numerous purposes of classroom code-switching that have been written in a range of instructional settings from all over the globe, and sometimes it happens when educators are either aware or unaware. Occasionally it happens when educators were cognizant or incognizant. Remarkably, all three studies by Canagarajah (1995), Eldridge (1996) and Merritt (1992) revealed that educators employed code-switching mainly for classroom management. This entails that educators changed to the mutual language that was understood by them and their students so as to manage discipline during classroom interactions. Moreover, educators code-switched to engage students in classroom activities such as cleaning the classroom and the sitting arrangement. As such, it is inevitable to switch as a way to fill the gap of the language barrier

Shilamba (2012), Denuga (2015), Arthur (1996) and Canagarajah (1995) in different studies conducted on code-switching found that educators used the code-switching strategy for the subsequent reasons: (1) to explain difficult concepts, (2) emphasise a point, (3) explaining and clarifying the subject matter, and (4) for content transmission. This implies that code-switching was

employed for educational reasons and educators scaffold in the other languages as a way to help students to comprehend what was taught.

However, there were similarities between two investigators who emphasised the purposes of code-switching in Namibia schools. The studies by Shilamba (2012) and Denuga (2015) highlighted that the majority of educators' code-switching in Namibia was due to a lack of English proficiency among educators and students. This means that educators and students in this situation had a limited English background, so educators used code-switching as a communication device. Therefore, Eldridge's (1996) study differs from Shilamba's (2012) and Denuga's (2015) findings as it revealed that code-switching was utilised as a resource for second language acquisition. This implies that educators employed the first language during teaching and learning and to reiterate for the students to acquire the L2. It must be noted that this method is slow as it requires lots of repetitions from the L1 to the L2.

Despite the benefits of code-switching, two researchers indicated the weakness of this phenomenon. Denuga's (2015) findings indicated that some educators "were against code-switching because examinations were written in English and the language policy does not recommend code-switching". Also, Arthur's (1996) findings indicated that students denied partaking in code-switching exercises as they were obliged by the policy to solely utilise English to prepare for examinations.

### **2.3 Types of code-switching**

Blom and Gumperz (1972) as pioneers of sociolinguistic studies of code-switching (CS) acknowledge three types of code-switching viz.: situational, educational and interpersonal code-switching. Therefore, the differences will be made between the three types of code-switching.

#### **2.3.1 Situational code-switching**

Blom and Gumperz (1972) define "situational code-switching" as the usage of different languages in different social situations. This implies that speakers change the language in accordance with the state of affairs which they find themselves: they express one language in one condition and an alternative in a dissimilar one. Mesthrie, et al. (2000:4) state that there is a necessity to consider what can be articulated in a language, by whom, in whose company, at a particular time, place, method and situation. Downes (1998:83) presents the "concept of functional specialization and the existence of domains of language". In accordance with the argument that language in contact situations involving code-switching can take on different connotations and nuances." Thus switching

from one to the other can alter the tenor of conversation and even alter what Myer-Scotton (1993) called the existing rights and obligations

Nilep (2006:8) endorsed Blom and Gumperz (1972) in a declaration that social proceedings, defined in terms of members, location and subject, limit the choice of dialectal changes. Blom and Gumperz (1972) in their investigation carried out in Norway observed how educators utilised different languages such as “Bokmål and Ranamål”. The results of their work revealed that educators handled educational talks as opposed to debates inside a lecture differently, with speeches conducted in typical Bokmål while a change to the district Ranamål was employed to increase open discussions. Lastly, Downes (1998) observed that "Ranamål ought to take place where non-local, pan-Norwegian" standards are effectively significant.

### **2.3.2 Educational code-switching and translanguaging**

Educational code-switching is the practice of using diverse languages for educational purposes (Gumperz, 1982:409; Gulzar 2010). Often time’s educators reiterate during teaching and learning. Reiteration involves emphasising and reinforcing a “message that has been conveyed primarily in the target language” and then reiterating the message in the first language to confirm that it is understood by students (Eldridge, 1996:303). This simply means that a message is repeated in another language.

Educational code-switching is beneficial as it permits what research alludes to as explanatory dialogue inside classroom discussions, where students’ first language is utilised to “explore concepts and ideas to a point that would have been if they were to have been explored in the second language” only (Setati et al., 2002:27). This implies that educational code-switching gives students a clarification of concepts and processes in their native language, is pedagogically helpful and essential for satisfactory leaning to take place. In light of these benefits, the educator can employ educational code-switching to translate or substitute a word from the second language (L2) to the first language (L1) so as to confirm that students have understood what is being spoken about during learning. Marawu (1997) explains that this adjustment can happen in a sentence thus expressing that the communicator can change back and forth so as to build vocabulary. This necessitates single lexical items to be borrowed as a way to define new vocabulary. Marawu’s (1997) findings relate to those by Peires (1994:14) who states that an educational switch serves to channel the message which could be easily understood and fill any vocabulary gaps.

Moodley (2007:107) also acknowledges that the motives of using educational “code-switching during teaching and learning by the educators is to emphasise and ensure understanding of what has been presented, confirm as well as to build terminology” for beginners. Educational code-switching serves the following functions: (1) to support teaching and learning so that students can understand the topic, (2) to help students build knowledge, (3) to help to support the development of new concepts, (4) as a linguistic resource.

Translanguaging is nothing new; it emerged in the 1980s in a city called Bangor, north Wales. Cen Williams and colleagues were studying approaches for students to utilise two languages (Welsh and English) in a lesson. Therefore, they developed the word *‘trawsieithu’* to describe reading or hearing input in one language (e.g. English) and writing or speaking about it in another (e.g. Welsh, or vice versa). The word was interpreted into “English (and popularised) as translanguaging” by Colin Baker (see Lewis, Jones and Baker 2012). Later the word has extended to cover the usage of numerous languages in educational settings.

The purpose of translanguaging is to access different linguistic repertoires and this is an operative transmission tool (Schreiber, 2015:69). This can be realised mainly through the usage of many techniques of what are described as autonomous languages and in order to maximise communicative potential. It must be noted that “translanguaging is about communication, not about language itself” (García, 2009:140). It implies that communication and the use of all our linguistic repertoire can be valuable and appropriate to the classroom and shared by the learners and the educator. We utilise different languages in our repertoire to learn, share, converse and knowledge building within the curriculum”

### **2.3.3 Interpersonal code-switching**

Interpersonal code-switching is the utilisation of diverse languages to show group affiliation. Crystal (1987) asserts that a person can switch the language to show unity with a specific social group. Code-switching can be considered as a “social and linguistic skill” (Mesthrie, 2008: 67) as well as a method to “facilitate communication” among individuals of diverse cultures (Wolff, 2011:66). Holmes (2000) echoes Crystal’s (1987), Mesthrie’s (2008) and Wolff’s (2011) sentiments that a speaker can change to an additional language as an indication of group affiliation and shared background with the recipient.

In this case, an educator can switch languages during teaching and learning as a way to build and maintain interpersonal relationships with students. The change of languages is beneficial for both educator and student as it promotes the following: (1) to build good relationships, (2) to boost their confidence, (3) for personal, social and cultural development, (4) team building, (5) knowledge sharing. Holmes (2000) concluded that it is easy to use interpersonal code-switching if the educators and the students share the similar ethnicity group.

## **2.4 Structures of code-switching**

In the following section of the chapter, three linguistic structures of code-switching proposed by Poplack (1980:589) are discussed with examples. They are intra-sentential, inter-sentential and tag-switching.

### **2.4.1 Intra-sentential code-switching**

Poplack (1980:589) stresses that “intra-sentential” are the most multifaceted amongst the three structures of code-switching. The switch happens at the clause, phrase or even word level within the same utterance and is often termed as language blending. Below is an example of intra-sentential code-switching between English and Spanish from Poplack (1980: 589):

**Example 1** Why make Carol sentarse atras pa'que everybody has to move pa'que se salga?

[‘Why make Carol sit in the back so everybody has to move for her to get out?’]

The above instance of intra-sentential code-switching shows that the speaker was mixing two languages within the sentence boundary which is English and Spanish. The purpose of the switch was to show emphasis.

### **2.4.2 Inter-sentential code-switching**

Poplack (1980:589) defines “inter-sentential code-switching as an alteration in a single discourse among two languages”. The switch happens once a sentence in the language has been finished and the following sentence starts with the new language. An instance of inter-sentential code-switching from Poplack (1980: 589) is illustrated below:

**Example 2** Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y terminó en español.

[‘Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish and finish it in Spanish’]

The above occurred when the speaker started a sentence in English and then changed to Spanish to conclude the sentence. The purpose of this switch was to emphasise a particular point.

### **2.4.3 Tag-switching**

According to Poplack (1980: 589) the “insertion of a tag to an utterance has virtually no ramifications for the rest of the sentence”. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1995: 1128) defines a tag as a label or device connected to something; or in linguistics, a tag is a word that is supplemented to a sentence for stress. Below is an example of a regional Namibian tag-switching:

**Example 3** She marked her books yesterday *kama*.

[‘She marked her books yesterday apparently’]

The above tag “*kama*” is an Afrikaans word that is used by many Namibians in their everyday language usage. The above instance was observed in the staffroom when two educators were interacting informally on a personal level. The educator started the sentence in English and completed the same discourse with an Afrikaans tag as can be seen above. The tag was inserted by the educator without violating syntactic instructions as they were inserted effortlessly. The educator was trying to compromise and soften the effect of her utterance while still emphasizing her main point.

## **2.5 Roles of code-switching in a bilingual classroom.**

The present investigation followed Canagarajah’s (1995:175) two functions of code-switching which are “micro function (or classroom management) and macro function (or transmission of lesson content)”. It used examples from some of these roles which can be observed in a classroom context and are relevant to the educators’ and students’ exchanges. To have a general knowledge of these roles, it is appropriate to give a short explanation of each.

### **2.5.1 Classroom management purposes**

Canagarajah (1995:175) states that educators change languages to acquire pupils' awareness as a means of practicing classroom supervision. An example below of classroom management was taken from Canagarajah (1995:175).

**Example 4** Educator: Liseli amaitiyāka iruñka!, you are making noise.

[‘Liseli keep quiet, you are making noise’]

The above instance occurred during classroom observation. The educator switched between Tamil and English so as to caution a disorderly and unruly student who was making noise during the lesson. The educator called the student by name for the student's immediate attentiveness.

### **Showing Solidarity**

Arthur (1996:22) states that the educator uses code-switching to express solidarity. An example below of expressing solidarity was taken from Arthur (1996:22).

**Example 5** Speak godimo tsa ya me

[‘Speak up my friend’]

The above instance is another classroom management strategy for educators to show solidarity with students. Code-switching and mixing can be employed to demonstrate unity with the group and mark affection to the students. This implies that the educator intentionally switch codes. This effective role of code-switching is called "we-code" by Gumperz (1982). This entails that it is the language utilised in homes and family bonds, the language an individual uses for casual events and for participating with the in-group members. For example, in Botswana students are regarded as Setswana medium speakers. When the educator solely presents the lesson in English from the commencement to the end, students might feel left out in the classroom. Therefore, to develop a social connection with the students, the educator must be welcoming, telling jokes and sharing ideas in the language which they all understand. By doing so, students will feel comfortable as this will support the education and scholarship environment and build a rapport.

### **2.5.2 Transmission of lesson content**

A number of different strategies are employed for the transmission of lesson content including reiteration, clarification and translation.

#### **Reiteration or repetition purposes**

Reiteration involve highlighting and supporting communication that was transferred initially in the target language with students then reiterating the communication in their first language so as to transmit to the educators that the statement is accepted (Eldridge, 1996:303). Below is an example of reiterative code-switching from Eldridge (1996:303)

**Example 6** L1: So, what do you understand about this term propaganda?

L3: It's when people spread false information.

L1: ne zaman insan yayılmış wrong bilgi hakkında birisi.

[“When people spread wrong information about someone”]

L3: You have to take action like now. şimdiki gibi harekete geçebilirsiniz

[“Like now, you can take action”]

L1: But the animals were also at fault. Their fault is that they are wrong themselves.

L3: Even men fight against themselves. Evet, hatta insanlar kavga arasında kendilerini

[“Yes, even people fight amongst themselves”]

The above instance is utilised for repetition purposes. The student repeats in Turkish what has previously been articulated in English. Eldridge (1996:303) explains that such a repetition was being used to emphasise, guarantee comprehension of what has been submitted, as well as to confirm or build vocabulary of students.

### **Clarifying meaning**

Canagarajah (1995:176) states that the role of code-switching is to clarify meaning. An example below of clarifying meaning was taken from Canagarajah (1995:176):

**Example 7** Educator: What are the three main hazards? Hazards poruḷ āpattāṇatu illai atu?

[“What are the three main hazards? Hazards means dangerous doesn't it?”]

The above instance happened during teaching and learning. The educator wanted the students to clarify the word ‘hazards’. She started the utterance in English and completed the sentence in Tamil. The reason for this change was to provide clarifications for an unfamiliar word to the students.

### **Translations**

Translations are an “activity that aims at conveying meaning or meanings of a given linguistics discourse from one language to another” (Denuga, 2015:89). An example below of clarifying meaning was taken from (Denuga, 2015: 89).

### **Example 8**

Educator: Matter is anything that occupies space and has mass, nibulezi kuli Matter ki sika sifi kapa sifi sesinga sibaka, hape sina nibwima, do you understand class?

[‘Matter is anything that occupies space and has mass, I said matter is anything That occupies space and has mass, do you understand class’]

The above instance shows that the educator is translating to students in English and then Silozi what had previously been uttered. The motive of translating in this situation was to help the learners to comprehend, to clarify meaning and to build students’ vocabulary.

### **2.6 Challenges faced by educators and students regarding English as the medium of instruction during the transition phase in Grade 4**

Grade 4 is a critical period in the Namibian education system as students transition from the foundation phase where the medium of teaching was their first language, to the intermediate phase where English is the language of instruction. This abrupt change poses challenges for students and educators. These challenges are discussed below.

#### **2.6.1 Lack of English proficiency among educators and students**

An "English Language Proficiency" (ELP) test was ordered in 2010 to all educators across the 14 regions of the country (NSA, 2016:19). The purpose was to determine the educators’ preparedness for educational roles and their linguistic competence to anticipate students' impending “performance” (Wolfaardt & Schier, 2011:6). The test grades positioned educators’ skills in English into three categories in terms of capability, namely: Pre-intermediate, Intermediate and Advanced. The outcome was that as many as 78% of educators performed poorly. Fourie & Kamanya (2015) pointed out that the educators’ unsatisfactory performance was attributed to the lack of a reading culture among educators. The proficiency of educators has a deep impact on training pupils for the demanding switch in grade 4 as educators are almost the students’ only source of English.

Besides endorsing the ideas expressed above, the MEC (2003) stipulates that the medium of teaching at Grade 4 forwards should solely be English. Having a class of English second language students of varying abilities is challenging. Since English may not constantly be delivered correctly, students could effortlessly pick up inappropriate sentence constructions or the pronunciation of words as they

are beginners and or do not hold a good command of English. The effective execution of English as the LoLT can be accomplished when educators resort to code-shifting as a communication strategy.

### **2.6.2 The abrupt change from the first language to English as LoLT**

As stated in the background of this study, MEC (2003) specifies that the language for teaching in Grades 1-3 must be the first language. Additionally, English could be instructed as a subject and from Grade 4-12, the language of education should shift to only English. Yet still the MEC (1993) states that in these “transitional circumstances, while the specified language policy will not change, the language understood” by most students in a course of study can be permitted in a supportive capacity. The Namibian government has therefore recognised the utilisation of the first language in English medium classes in assisting students to comprehend problematic terms and this is applicable only during the transition phase which happens in Grade 4. First language use can bridge communication barriers experienced by both educators and students. Heugh (2006) stresses that if the change to second language learning is made too rapidly and without Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency “(CALP) having been accomplished, the results for education” can be damaging.

The transition can be challenging for students and educators as all subjects are now offered in English which is different from Grade 3. MacDonald (1990) also found that students who changed their language of instruction before they had sufficiently grasped the new target language were not performing well. This has a detrimental impact on educators who are facilitators of the transition as they are less proficient in the LoLT themselves. Transitions are significant intervals where students encounter new and challenging assignments as they change from acquainted to unacquainted and more multifaceted situations. This shift between the “first language and English as the language of teaching” is problematic if students are not reinforced well during this phase and this can result in ineffective experiences, including feelings of unproductivity or inferiority (August & Akos, 2009).

### **2.6.3 Lack of materials to use during the transition phase**

One of the main difficulties confronted by educators and students during the transition phase in Namibia is inadequate teaching and learning materials. “Article 20 of the Namibian Constitution” declares that all pupils should have admission to education and the government shall deliver sensible services to provide productive learning (MEC, 1993:3-5). This implies that the government will provide essential resources such as instruction and scholarship supplies to schools. The instruction above in Article 20 contradicts the current lack of teaching materials in many classrooms across the

nation. Tötemeyer (2009:23) states that the implementation of English as the Language of Learning and Teaching (LOLT) was not "well-planned" as the Namibian administration presented it in schools from grades 4-12, lacking a decent interval to provide relevant materials.

This problem has been reported by several studies such as that of Wolfaardt (2001) and Holmarsdottir (2000) who stressed the scarcity of textbooks in schools in Namibia. Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir (2001:306) insist that the lack of materials in schools occurs for financial rather than educational motives. This suggests that the Ministry's action for not providing the required resources is attributed to the fiscal deficit and not educational motives as learning depends on these resources to take place. Also, Gacheche (2010) points out that the challenge of a lack of instructional materials hampers education because students' performance is poor in government schools compared to their peers in private schools where they have sufficient instructional materials.

## **2.7 Challenges facing educators in implementing the transition phase.**

In this study, it was discovered that educators encountered problems in implementing the language in education policy during the transition phase. Relevant challenges described in the literature are discussed below.

### **2.7.1 Time/age to transition to English as the medium of instruction**

Currently, the Namibian educational system follows an early-exit language programme but, during the actual implementation, the strategy follows a late-exit language programme (MEC, 1993:3-4). Early-exit language programme is defined as the generally uses of the mother tongue instruction only for two years. While late-exit language programme is defined as the use of mother tongue instructions for four years. The Namibian education system later changed to an early-exit programme because they wanted to develop English proficiency for English Language Learner (ELL) students as soon as possible with some support of the L1. As expressed by Hakuta (2000) the oral English skill takes 3-5 years to be established, and the instructional English skill takes 4-7 years. The stage of acquainting the student to L2 education is most likely the decisive aspect in the accomplishment of "L2 learning" (Broom, 2004). Nevertheless, worldwide the tendency is to depart from "first language-based education prematurely, and to fast track the change to English or an additional dominant language" (Broom, 2004). Research has indicated that learners "between 9 and 12 years make faster reasoning and pedagogic development in literacy attainment in both the home language and the second language than children between 5 and 8 years of age" (Akinaso, 1993). This phenomenon is not different from Namibia as students make the transition to English as the LoLT in

Grade 4 (8-9 years of age). Early departure to English has resulted in students underperforming as they would not have sufficiently mastered English or the central concepts that they should grasp in their mother tongue. It is contended that “Namibian students Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) in their L1 is also not highly developed, thus creating a problem in developing” the CALP in an additional language, which is the language of education (MEC, 2003:3-5).

### **2.7.2 Lack of training and preparation during the transition**

Educator training and readiness greatly impact the transition of many educators in Namibia and this study went through the old school system when Afrikaans was the language used for teaching (MEC, 1993:3-5). This is a challenge as educators are not adequately prepared or would have had minimal training to teach English during the transition phase in Grade 4 as it is required by the language policy for schools. Cummins (2000) emphasised that the absence of adequate training among educators makes it difficult for them to develop appropriate support materials to assist students during second language lessons.

## **2.8 Theoretical Frameworks**

Since this study refers to Vygotsky's Scaffolding and Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model theory, these theory and model are briefly explained below.

### **2.8.1 Vygotsky Scaffolding**

Vygotsky (1978) characterised "scaffolding" as the pedagogical as well as social assistance that students receive from educators and more advanced students to achieve new concepts. This teaching method derives from Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and his philosophies of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Scaffolding eases pupils' skills to construct on old information and adopt new information. The work supplied with scaffolding instruction is just far off the point of what the student can undertake individually (Bransford, et al 2000). Vygotsky's theory of intellectual growth mentions that students will study further once they obtain direction from somebody with additional skills on the topic, they are being taught more than they would if they were undertaking the issue individually.

A significant feature of scaffolding is that the supports are temporary. As the student's skill grows, scaffolding is progressively withdrawn when the students can finish the activities or acquire the concepts unaided (Chang, et al 2002). It implies that educators gradually reduce the assistance of code-switching. Vygotsky's scaffolding is a fragment of the instructional philosophy of the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD). The ZPD asserts that the “individual student, for each subject, has

three levels of learning: things the student can accomplish on her own, things she can achieve with help from someone else (the zone of proximal development) and things she can't accomplish no matter how much help she has" (Olson & Platt, 2000).

Vygotsky's scaffolding theory can be applied in the classroom when an educator starts an introductory talk on a certain topic which will require students to answer what they know or don't, before commencing the lesson. The motive of the talk is to find out individual students' Zone of Proximal Development so that he/she can know their present degree of apprehension. Without this data, the educator will be unable to teach them in their ZPD or provide the actual provision needed. It must be noted that individual students will have a different ZPD for each theme taught. If a class has extensive and varying ZPDs for a specific subject, it is good to have individual or group work so that the educator can walk around providing tailored guidance suitable for each student's ZPD. In the case of language or code-switching, presumably this implies that some students will need more and different types of CS e.g. situational for the different social situations within the classroom and educational code-switching for clarifications, translations and repetitions. Scaffolding encourages group collaboration and knowledge sharing amongst students. The educator must mix fast and slow students in one group, and that way they can learn from each other while developing their abilities by elucidation their thought development. The educator must be certain that each student in the groups is actively participating and has to remind students time and again of the importance of everyone participating, and that they should not depend on the knowledgeable student.

Vygotsky's scaffolding can become a weakness if the educator is providing students with too much help during classroom interaction. Students will be passive, not active, and this will negatively affect how they learn. The educator must not jump to conclusions and offer help if they are using scaffolding techniques. They have to give them the benefit of doubt and let them work on their own first, and if students are struggling, ask them questions about what they have done and think they should do next. This is the right place for the educator to use scaffolding or code-switching as they can switch from English and students' first language as it is required for them to understand. Rahman (2011) in a study on metacognitive strategies also emphasised the importance of facilitating students to be involved in activities "that can assist them to become students who are independent in their learning".

The educator must ask unrestricted questions that inspire them to discover an answer on their own as opposed to just telling them the next stage. Students must discuss their thought processing order so as to find out their existing abilities (and thus decide their ZPD) and make sure that they are involved

in learning. Hartman (2002) points out that educators use supporting strategies for the self-regulating and problem solvers. As a student is working on a project, they discuss it. It implies that they must decide, think and identify what they are uncertain about. And lastly, the educator will give advice and explain their thought process so that students can grasp why they reached such determinations.

Scaffolding is related to code-switching in the transition phase as educators can change from one language to another when the topic is difficult. By doing that, educators and students compensate for the weakness in the English language. The educator can start teaching in English and then repeat the explanation in Silozi to allow those students who lack English proficiency to benefit since they share a common language. The more capable others, in this case, the educator, provides the scaffolds so that the students can carry through their task that he or she could not finish through the ZPD (Bransford, et al., 2000). This implies that the ZPD could work in groups as the educator could walk around the classroom to facilitate and provide tailored guidance to each student. Therefore, the usage of both English and Silozi in groups is allowed so as to enhance students' participation.

### **2.8.2 Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model**

Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model formed the theoretical background of this investigation, though it isn't strictly relevant to the transition phase in Namibian schools since the model assumes a high level of bilingualism which educators and students don't possess. The sociolinguistic theoretical framework offered by Myers-Scotton (1993:113) also identified as the "Markedness Model" is utilised to categorise and clarify the diverse structures of code-switching that are used in school situations. This model of analysing discussions originates from the "negotiation principle," which comprises of the subsequent: "Choose the form of your conversational contribution such that it indexes the set of rights and obligations which you wish to be in force between speaker and addressee for the current exchange" (Myers-Scotton, 1993:113).

The model aims to consider the socio-psychological motivations of utterers when they are involved in bilingualism. Although her work focused on code-switching in the African situation, "Myers-Scotton's model has universal, predictive validity" for all people who speak two or more languages (Blommaert & Meeuwis, 2005). The Markedness model can be characterized into three key groups namely: "code-switching as an unmarked choice, code-switching as marked choice and code-switching as an exploratory choice" (Myers-Scotton, 1993). The Markedness model relates to the choice of language educators use when they come across a topic, for instance, traditional ways of living in the Zambezi region. The educator can change from English which is the medium of instruction to the first language for exploratory choice. The educators must be acquainted with their

students and their bilingualism to make an unmarked change to increase on a clarification. The objective is not to exclude any student from the learning process but to include everyone, therefore code-switching as an unmarked choice is mostly determined by the topic of discussion. After the discussion with the students, educators check if they can achieve their educational goals after the conversations. According to Wardhaugh (2006) the social milieu is another determining factor in language choice or code-switching. This implies that the educator's choice of code depends on classroom settings because they know what is best to support teaching and learning. In such circumstances, the educator is regarded as a "rational actor who can make either the unmarked choice, the more secure and the more expected choice, often used by the speakers, or the marked choice which is generally unexpected in interaction" (Myers-Scotton, 1993:113).

An individual who speaks two languages has an intelligence of markedness, concerning the rapport with the speaker who is essentially the one selecting the language in the discussion (Myers-Scotton, 1993:113). This implies that when the educator knows the students' linguistic background, they can switch the codes when faced with a circumstance. The utterer starts a conversation in one language, and if the addressee does not completely comprehend, the initiator of the conversation changes to the most likely language that is understandable to both parties. However, it is important to note at this point that the concept of the social significance of linguistic alternatives should be imposed with a quantity of carefulness to students as they do not possess the same capabilities.

## **2.9 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the different types, structures and functions of code-switching as a sociolinguistic phenomenon in bilingual classrooms. Furthermore, the challenges faced by educators and students in teaching the English language in education during the transition as well as the challenges educators confront in implementing the Namibian language in education policy in the transition phase in Grade 4 were reviewed. In addition, the chapter summarised the relevant literature on code switching from studies carried in Namibia, African and different parts of the world. Lastly, approaches that inform the theoretical framework of this study were discussed. In the following chapter I will deliberate on the research methodology employed in this investigation.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This section of the dissertation describes the procedures utilised to gather and analyse data for the present study. A qualitative method was employed by the investigator to acquire first-hand information during the teaching and learning situation as code-switching was taking place. This chapter covers the research design, research site and selection of participants used. It also discusses the data gathering methods, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

#### 3.2 Research design

“Research design” is characterised as numerous approaches or methods selected on how the researcher intends on undertaking the research (Mouton, 2001:1). Therefore, the research approach was mainly determined by the research methods that would suit the problem being researched. The present investigation follows a qualitative research method and it was planned within an interpretivist paradigm. An interpretivist approach permits meaning to be obtained in a situation through investigation of, and discussion with persons in their milieu (Cohen et al. 2007). For this reason, the interpretive approach remained a flexible tool which permitted the investigator to investigate the types, structures and roles of code-switching in the classroom situation. The interpretivist approach allowed the investigator to interview the two educators who participated in the study so as to understand their views on the phenomenon being investigated. Qualitative data was collected through the following research instruments: classroom observations with field notes and in-depth interviews. The data gathered using the above research instruments were linguistically and thematically analysed. The researcher adopted this approach because it answered research questions 1, 2 and 3 of the study.

#### 3.3 Research Site

This study was carried out at Gabriel Mubita Primary School (pseudonym) which lies within the proximity of 700m from the Central Business District (CBD) of Katima Mulilo in the Zambezi Region of Namibia. It had a registration of 1556 students at the time of the study. Most classes are congested and beyond the stipulated 1:35 “teacher-learner ratio” (MEC, 1993:3). However, this school has recorded as many as 55 students in one classroom. The teaching staffs comprised of one principal, 5 HODs and 60 educators. It has students from Grade 0 (pre-primary) up to Grade 7. Due

to the high enrolment of students, the school has a platoon system where Grade 0 and 4-7 attend school in the morning and Grades 1-3 attend their classes in the afternoon.

The Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in the Foundation Phase (Grades 0-3) is Silozi which is the first language. From Grade 4-7, the medium is English and Silozi becomes a subject as indicated in the language policy for schools. The researcher purposively selected this school as it met all the prerequisites for this study: (1) It is a government school, (2) the transition to English as the medium of instruction takes place in Grade 4. The researcher taught at this school for the years 2012-2017 and she used to teach English in Grade 7. Based on that, the researcher had easier access to the school. The management was welcoming and some educators were willing to take part in my study.

However, my personal teaching experience instinctively led me to study code-switching in Grade 4, since this is the time of the transition to English as the medium of instruction. Most students lack the English background, which thus prompts educators to use code-switching as a teaching approach for students to grasp the learning content. The researcher didn't exclude herself from this teaching tool as she utilised code-switching as well when she was an educator, for instructive and social reasons.

The researcher practiced reflexivity in this qualitative study by keeping a journal and holding regular open debates and discussions with the two educators and reflecting on the research process. The term reflexivity “refers to the examination of one’s own beliefs, judgements and practices during the research process and how these may have influenced the study” (Finlay, 1998). In light of the above, the purpose of prospective reflexivity was utilised to guarantee the trustworthiness of the outcomes by decreasing the probabilities of influencing this study. Reflexivity was employed by the researcher so as to be aware of the standards, opinions and pieces of knowledge educators brought to the investigation as a constructive thing. Therefore, reflexivity played a significant role as there were numerous means in which investigator unfairness could have affected the investigation, from the formation of data collecting tools to the collection of the information, analysing and writing it. This is because of the subjective nature of qualitative data and methodology.

### **3.4 Linguistic profiles and selection of the educators in this study**

This section of the chapter provides the distribution of the linguistic profiles of the two selected educators who were observed and interviewed during this study. The data from the interviews is discussed individually. To conform to ethical obligations, the names of the people remain anonymous. Pseudonyms are given to protect their secrecy.

<b>Educators Pseudonyms</b>	Age and Gender	Teaching Experience	Educator's Home Language	Qualifications	Educators Subjects	Preferred language of teaching
<b>Educator A</b>	45/F	19 years	Mbalangwe	HED & BETD	English	English & Silozi
<b>Educator B</b>	49/F	26 years	Subiya	ECP & BETD	Natural Science	English & Silozi

Educator A is a 45-year-old female educator who has nineteen years of teaching experience and is presently teaching English to two grade 4 classes at the Gabriel Mubita Primary School. She prefers teaching in English and Silozi. Her home language is Mbalangwe. Most educators in the Zambezi region can talk or understand other local languages quite comfortably. This means that it is not difficult for her to translate into different languages when a need arises. She holds two teachers' qualifications, namely BETD (Basic Education Teachers Diploma, Upper primary 4-7) from the former Caprivi College of Education, and a Higher Education Diploma (HED) from the University of Namibia. She is an English subject head at the school.

Educator B is a 49-year-old female educator who has twenty-six years of teaching experience and is presently teaching Natural Science to four grade four classes at the above mentioned school. Her home language is Subiya. She is eloquent in other local languages spoken around the Zambezi region. She holds two teachers' qualifications that she attained from the former Caprivi Teachers Training (Education Certificate Primary, ECP) and a Basic Education Teachers Diploma, Upper primary 4-7 from the former Caprivi College of Education now University of Namibia, Katima Mulilo Campus.

The researcher selected the two participants because they were eager to participate in this study. The participants taught English and Natural Science as indicated above. The grounds for taking those two subjects were established on the fact that they had connections to each other and had cross-curricular issues and themes such as HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus) and AIDS (Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome), Human Rights and Democracy, Population Education and Road Safety. The researcher anticipated that students would participate more since they are familiar with the content. The selection of the participants was established on the precondition that they were teaching the Grade 4 classes.

It must be noted that educators participating in this study cannot be taken as representative of the total educators in the school or nationally. This suggests that it is not possible to investigate the whole population, but what is imperative is to pick out representatives that meet the study prerequisites. The researcher wanted to observe more than two participants, but others refused to participate because they feared that I would judge, expose and report their teaching practices to the Ministry of Education. Besides, educators from other grades volunteered to take part in this investigation, but the study was grounded in the transition phase only. It is vital to restate that the educators' participation and permission was mandatory since I had to interview and observe them in order to get their perspective and knowledge about several views pertaining to the Namibian language policy as they are directly affected by the transition.

### **3.5 Data collection methods and instruments**

Numerous types of data gathering methods were employed to undertake this qualitative research. Qualitative data gathering mainly comprises of words rather than figures (McMillian & Schumacher, 2001:41). During this investigation, the researcher gathered the information by utilising the following research tools: classroom observations in addition to field notes and in-depth interviews. Therefore, classroom observations aided in answering research question 1 of the study. Thereafter, in-depth interviews helped in answering research questions 2 & 3. The rationale for selecting these methods were based on the following purposes: (1) They significantly contributed in answering the research questions of the study as mentioned above, (2) They provide deep insights and comprehension of the phenomenon of code-switching and transition in the educational setting. The research instruments are further clarified below.

#### **3.5.1 Classroom Observation**

Marungudzi (2009:56) defines "classroom observation" as an investigation method that comprises of information collected in the absence of the researcher trying to manipulate it. The intention of observing two Grade 4 English and Natural Science educators was intended at answering my sub-research question 1: What are the different types, structures and roles of code-switching in the Grade 4 bilingual classrooms? The researcher nominated these methods based on two previous studies that adopted this method in an African context. The first study was conducted by Arthur (1996) who employed a classroom observation method in an ethnographic study in north-eastern Botswana on educators' and students' code-switching from English to Setswana. The second investigation was conducted by Denuga (2015) who adopted classroom observation to investigate how educators mediate scholarship using alternations from "English to Silozi in the Zambezi Region of Namibia".

To gain a profound understanding of how educators employed code-switching during the transition phase from English to Silozi, each educator was observed 5 times over 4 weeks. The researcher utilised a classroom observation schedule in order to capture the code-switching phenomena as it happened during teaching and learning (See Appendix I). It was observed that the two disciplines were different, English is a tool of communication while Natural Science seeks to understand how the universe works and it involves theories or experiments to conduct an inquiry. Both subjects had a different lexicon. For this research, the investigator carried out the observations as an observer and remained quiet and interacted less when required.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:294) maintain that the benefit of observation is witnessing face-to-face information as an investigator at the site of the presentation. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:273) assert that one benefit of observations is that it depends on “researchers receiving, perceiving and recording these observations rather than depending on the subjects' self-responses” to inquiries or assertions. The disadvantage of observation is that the investigator might change educator or student conduct during the “observation, possibly resulting in reactive” behaviour (Westat, 2010:93).

The researcher resonates with Westat’s (2010:93) findings as her presence during the study appeared to have influenced the behaviour of the educators and students. The English educator appeared to be nervous during her lesson as she was trying so hard not to code-switch during the first day of the observations even if students seemed not to understand. The researcher’s influence on the educator was minimised by my frequent visits to her classroom as she felt comfortable with me and we built a rapport again as former colleagues and in my new role as a researcher. After this, she reverted to code-switching to facilitate learning. While the Natural Science educator was not influenced by my presence during the classroom as she carried on with lessons, she code-switched between English and Silozi whenever a need arose. When it comes to students, my presence distracted them a lot as they would stare at me all the time, and they didn't pay attention even though they were previously informed of my intended presence in their classrooms. I sat at the rear of the classroom during observations so that I would not interrupt the flow of the class. I used audio-visual recordings to ensure that no important information was omitted.

The researcher used field notes together with classroom observation to collect data. Field notes provided a substantial contribution to the data as they were read as evidence that gives meaning and assists in the understanding of the phenomenon of code-switching. Maykut and Morehouse (1994:73) state that making valuable “field notes” is a demanding exercise, one which is alleviated by taking a significant period to transcribe instantly once one departs the area, while thoughts are

clearly remembered. The researcher jotted down some field notes immediately after the lessons were finished so as to avoid the anxiety that might be caused during teaching and learning. Field notes which were written down focused on code-switching that was employed by the educators during classroom interactions. Also, the researcher observed that the circumstances that led educators to switch during teaching and learning interactions were classroom management, explanation of difficult words and to encourage students' participation and solidarity. Lastly, field notes permitted the researcher to access the field and record what she observed unobtrusively.

### **3.5.2 In-depth qualitative interviews**

An in-depth interview is a qualitative study method that requires carrying out detailed discrete discussions with some respondents so as to disclose their positions on certain circumstances. Salinger and Shohamy (1989:166) back this definition and assert that the function of the "interview is to attain data" by speaking to the participants. The researcher selected this method based on three African studies that adopted in-depth interviews in their research and these are debated below. Shilamba (2012) a Namibian scholar conducted in-depth interviews with educators on the phenomenon and nature of "code-switching practices from English to Oshiwambo in the Grade 8 classrooms in the Ohangwena Region of Namibia". Denuga (2015) another Namibian scholar adopted in-depth interviews in her study to investigate how educators facilitate scholarship through "code-switching from English to Silozi" in a Grade 7 classroom at a school in the Zambezi Region of Namibia. Mrawushe (2016) a South African scholar conducted in-depth interviews with educators on the pedagogical usage of "code-switching in a multilingual English Second Language (ESL) classroom in Matatiele".

The aim of the interview was to assist the investigator in answering the research questions as it made it attainable to acquire an understanding of all interviewee's viewpoints on the challenges, they were facing during the transition phase. Secondly, in-depth interviews offered a richer insight, understanding and increased quality information about the phenomenon the researcher was investigating. For this reason, interviews were suitable since little was known about the subject and the scholar needed to follow-up on some research questions which were not attainable during the classroom observations.

Before the interview session, the researcher made an appointment with the two educators who were observed during classroom observation. Permission was granted to interview and audio-record the educators so that I could transcribe and retrieve them when required. Subsequently, the purposes of the interviews were explained to the educators. Then, interview questions were formulated in such a

way that it prompted educators to narratively express themselves and it comprised of 10 questions (See Appendix J). Therefore, four themes were created out of the research questions, namely: linguistic background, language preferences, transition challenges and language development, to compare and contrast their opinions on the matter. The researcher asked semi-structured questions that were based on research questions 2 & 3 of the study to make sure that those important facts are not overlooked during interviews and to probe their thinking.

Furthermore, the interviews were executed after teaching hours at the teacher counsellor's office on the last day of the researcher's visit to the research site because she wanted a relaxed and positive aura for the interviews. Interviews were conducted on an individual basis between the researcher and an educator. The reason for this preparation was to make sure that participants in the study were at liberty to express their sentiments unimpeded or without being influenced by their fellow educator. During the interview session, the researcher rephrased or posed some follow-up the questions when the respondents gave unclear or vague responses. The interviews lasted between 15 and 20 minutes.

After the interviews, the researcher examined, interpreted and discussed the data as presented in Chapter 4 into themes and sub-themes that emanated from the interviews. It must be noted that educators were referred to by pseudonyms in the discussion and analysis chapter. Thornton (2009:29) concluded that interviews are “one of the most powerful tools to understand people’s point of view, belief and attitudes”. This is because of the interactive nature that an interview has over other types of data collection techniques.

### **3.6 Data Analysis**

The researcher analysed the data manually by utilising two methods namely: linguistic data analysis and thematic data analysis and these analysis methods are discussed below.

#### **3.6.1 Linguistic data analysis**

Hartman & Stork (1972) define linguistic analysis as an organised attempt to describe language information for a clear purpose. The researcher selected this technique because it aided in answering research question 1 of the study, on the types, structures and roles of code-switching obtained through classroom observations. This study adopted Hartman & Stork’s (1972) classification of linguistic analysis as discussed below:

1. To begin with, the researcher segmented data collected during classroom observations, into small chunks or codes to find the regular pattern. By this, the researcher selects words related to English and Silozi and she transcribed them on an individual basis.

2. Next, the researcher examined how the language was distributed. This entails that the researcher examined the lexical and grammatical codes within sentences to determine code-switching.
3. At this stage, the researcher analysed the speech and constituents of materials for instance words, sentences, paragraphs and general structures connecting to the features, themes and patterns relevant to the research questions. She came up with the types, structures and roles of code-switching which were employed by educators and students in the classroom.
4. After analysing, the researcher reread the results and drew up some assumptions. The researcher assigned particular attributes to codes of materials and reflected on the results to examine the functions and meanings of the language used. She analysed her data to the wider framework that was established previously to draw conclusions that answer the research questions (See Chapter 4).

### **3.6.2. Thematic data analysis**

“Thematic data analysis is specified as a process for recognising, examining and reporting patterns (themes) within information” (Braun and Clarke, 2006:79). The researcher selected this method because it helped in analysing data obtained via classroom observations and interviews and it answered research questions 1, 2 and 3 of the investigation. Therefore, this qualitative study adopted a thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006:79). The investigator analysed the data in the six-phase framework below:

1. Firstly, the researcher *familiarised herself* with data from the audio-recordings she had captured from the two educators she had interviewed and observed. I listened to them numerous times. After listening, the researcher transcribed and translated all the data manually.
2. Secondly, the researcher *generated some codes* by organising the data collected during classroom observations and interviews with educators into small chunks as an early coding process. Thereafter I scrutinised the complete information several times to get a deeper sense of what it contained. This entailed that I listened to the recordings and noted some fascinating issues before I started on transcription later at the completion of the information gathering phase. Fluidity was employed when coding as it is not a straightforward process.
3. Thirdly, the researcher *generated some ideas based on preliminary themes*. Data gathered was organised into main and sub-themes. Braun and Clarke (2006:79) noted that this

process is done when the researcher is “translating the transcripts during which themes are identified as well as data portions which seemed to be with compelling and potential examples of some issues”. This implies that certain portion of the information were segments and others were larger pieces. Data was organised utilising colours, remarks and assigning codes to find where themes are located in the transcriptions. Some of the themes were identified while I was typing my field notes. At this point, I looked for those classrooms and interview excerpts which matched with the transcripts I acquired throughout classroom observations. The last quest for themes occurred as soon as I planned and drew up the outline of each data analysis chapter. After drawing up these outlines, I developed divisions and subdivisions (concentrating on the key research questions and sub-research question) under which I allocated codes (in an orderly way) and segments of transcripts (be they from classroom observations or interviews).

4. Then, in this phase, the investigator *reviewed, modified and developed the preliminary themes* that were identified in the third stage. The researcher compared and contrasted the themes based on the research questions to identify areas of overlap and differences. While writing the thesis, I developed a comprehensive chapter outline of Chapter 4
5. During this stage, I had to substitute a number of topics and sub-topics to other sub-division and combine and submerged others.
6. Later, the researcher defined and further refined the ideas that she demonstrated in the on-going analysis to analyse the data within them. By defining and refining I identified the core of what each topic is about (as easily as the themes overall) and decided what aspect of the data each theme captures.
7. Finally, this is the last stage of *producing the report* as the researcher has fully worked-out themes. The duty of the researcher was to write-up the thematic analysis of the thesis to tell a complex narrative of her information in a method that encourages the reader of the merit and validity of my analysis (See Chapter 4 and 5).

It is worthy to remark that during dissertation writing, phase 5 and 6 were recurrent. Sections and sub-sections including excerpts and questions of the Chapter 4 had to be moved around and some entirely taken away and substituted with others which appear to convey convincing examples. Reviewing the literature was also an on-going process, as each “newly discovered” pertinent source was read and included in the dissertation drafts throughout the study period.

### **3.6.3 Triangulation**

Denzin (1998) cited by Patton (2002:247) contends that no solitary technique ever sufficiently resolves the problem of competing for determining elements. The inadequacies in “one method are thus compensated for by another method” (Creswell, 2012). Triangulation in this study incorporated the usage of several instruments, i.e. classroom observation, in-depth interviews and written documents such as policy documents and the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, textbooks on code-switching and Google Scholar to improve consistency, accuracy and to counterbalance the limitations of each process.

### **3.7 Ethical considerations**

Heugh (2006:5) stresses that the researcher must follow the required ethical procedures when embarking on the study that involves humans. Several research ethics should guide a researcher, and these are guarding from injury (both bodily and mental), respect, self-respect, honesty, and integrity from the side of the researcher, right to self-determination, right of privacy and protection of confidentiality. As soon as clearance was granted to the researcher by the University of Cape Town Ethics Clearance Committee (Appendix A) permission was requested in writing from the Directorate of Education in the Zambezi Region of Namibia and permission was approved (Appendix B & C). The researcher requested consent from the headmaster of the sampled school to carry out her research and authorisation was granted (Appendix D & E). Furthermore, authorisation from the two relevant Grade 4 educators were requested and granted (Appendix F & G). The researcher had a briefing session with the educators to elucidate the purpose and the value of the study. Lastly, consent letters were drafted to seek permission from the guardians to observe their children in the study (Appendix H). All students were anonymised in all data.

### **3.8 Conclusion**

This section provided the reader with the qualitative research methods employed in data gathering. The information was collected by means of classroom observations with field notes and in-depth interviews in order to answer research questions. The chapter deliberated the research design, research site and selection of participants in this investigation. The data collected was analysed through linguistic and thematic data analysis. Ethical considerations were highlighted particularly to guarantee participants' anonymity. It must be noted that the research was designed following other studies that have examined code-switching practices in classrooms in Southern Africa and around the world. In the subsequent chapter, the data is analysed and discussed in detail.

## CHAPTER 4

### DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 4.1. Introduction

This section gives an analysis, discussion and interpretation of the qualitative data. Through discussing the outcomes, the researcher utilised linguistic analysis of code-switching which emanated from classroom observations. The findings from both classroom observations and interviews are thematically presented in chronological order with themes and sub-themes. Triangulation of data from various sources was used for an in-depth understanding of this phenomenon of code-switching.

#### 4.2 Brief recap of data collection methods

The researcher used classroom observations as a data-gathering method. Classroom observations respond to sub-research question 1: What are the types, structures and roles of code-switching in Grade 4 bilingual classrooms. The study was conducted in one school. Both educators were observed 5 times each over 4 weeks and the total numbers of lessons observed were 10. Voice recordings were utilised to capture the data, in addition to handwritten notes. Observations were conducted in Grade 4 classrooms only since the transition to English as the medium of instruction occurs at this level. It was evident that the educator's selection of code was influenced by the language background of the students. Thus, Silozi and English switches were used interchangeably in all classrooms. The study focused on spoken interaction and not the students' written materials. The examples of excerpts used in the study are numbered from Line 1-46.

In addition, the researcher used the following transcription conventions in the transcribed lessons for presenting the code-switching examples.

Category	Transcriptions
Educators	A for the English educator B for the Natural Science educator
Students	1, 2, 3
Chorus	All learners

English	Normal case
Silozi & Afrikaans	<i>Italics</i>
Totela	<b>Bold</b>
Mbalangwe	<u>Normal case but underlined</u>
Subiya	<b><i>Bold italics</i></b>
Sifwe	<i><u>Italics and underlined</u></i>
Translations	[‘Square brackets with single inverted comma’]

### 4.3 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS OF CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

The researcher uses the terms code-switching and translanguaging as rough synonyms. The former term is more useful when identifying different types, whereas the latter is useful for stressing the creativity of the phenomenon, especially in educational contexts where it is often officially frowned upon. On the whole, I preferentially use code-switching. During classroom interactions, it was observed by the researcher that educators employed various methods of code-switching to attain teaching, learning and social goals. It must be noted that code switching does not exclusively address students’ linguistic limitations, rather, code-switching is seen as an approach that is utilised mostly for educational motives. Canagarajah (1995:175) distinguished “two major functions that are served by code-switching in the classroom: micro function (or classroom management) and macro function (or transmission of lesson content)”. The following analysis presents examples of three types of code-switching namely: situational, educational and interpersonal code-switching. I will furthermore highlight in the analysis where intra-sentential, inter-sentential and tag-switching were employed as well as the roles of code-switching in bilingual classrooms.

#### 4.3.1 Situational code-switching

During this research, situational code-switching was observed to occur among educators and students, involving changes in the choice of the languages concerned according to situations within the classroom. As bilinguals, they spoke English in one situation, and Silozi, the first language, in another. Below is an illustration of situational code-switching that was observed during the classroom interactions.

Excerpt 1: English

Topic: Traditional foods found in the Zambezi Region

Line 1. Educator A: What is traditional food?

Line 2. All learners: No response was given, the entire class was quiet.

Line 3. Educator A: *Banana*, traditional food *kiñi? Hamuzibi taluso ya lico za sizo.*

['Children, what is traditional food? Don't you know the meaning of traditional food']

Line 4. Student 1: Teacher, I think, *ki lico zeluca kwa mandu aluna.*

['Teacher, I think, its food we eat at our houses']

Line 5. Student 2: *Kilico zeluleka mwa mantolo.*

['Food that we buy in shops']

Line 6. Student 3: Hmm! Maybe, food *zelulima kwa masimu bo ticele.*

['Hmm! Maybe, the food we plough in the fields, teacher']

Line 7. Educator A: You are partly correct, *kono* traditional food are dishes that are passed through generations or which has been eaten by many generations, *ni talusize kuli lico za sizo kilico zene lichiwa ku bosantulu ba bosantulu mu utwile?*

['You are partly correct, but traditional foods are dishes that are passed through generations or which has been eaten by many generations on. I mean that traditional food, its food which was eaten from generation to generation, understood?']

Line 8. All students: Yes, teacher.

Line 9. Educator B: Give me any traditional food, *ze fumanaha mwa sikiliti saluna.*

['Give me any traditional food, found in our region']

Line 10. Student 1: Beans, muzinzila, mumaka, muloho wa mangambwa, fish.

['Beans, berries, red berries, wild spinach, fish']

Line 11. Student 2: *Boticele hanizibi lico za sizo zenibata kubiza mwa sikuwa, cwale nika sebelisa Sisubiya, inkuma, muñende.*

['Teacher I don't know these traditional foods I want to name in English therefore, I will use Subiya, water lilies, millet scones']

Line 12. Student 3: Teacher, what about **mawungu** and **chinyungela**.

['Teacher, what about mopane worms and mealie meal traditional drink']

Line 13. Educator A: Thanks for your answers you are all correct. *Banana, muzinzila ki* berries, *mumaka ki* red berries, *muloho wa mangambwa ki* wild spinach, *inkuma ki* water lilies, *muñende ki* millet scones **chinyungela** *ki* mealie meal traditional drink, **mawungu** *ki* mopane worms.  
[‘Thanks for your answers you are all correct. Children, its berries, red berries, wild spinach, water lilies, millet scones, mealie meal traditional drink and mopani worms’]

Excerpt 1 above demonstrates how the educator used situational code-switching to build up vocabulary and competence in a bilingual classroom. At the inception of the lesson in Line 1, the educator introduced the lesson by asking students the question, 'What are traditional foods?' The educator's question was accompanied by a mute response from the entire class as can be seen in Line 2 above. This situation prompted the educator to immediately switch to Silozi the first language (L1) of the students in Line 3 and she uttered, “*Banana, traditional food kiñi? Hamuzibi taluso ya lico za sizo*” [‘Children, what is traditional food? Don't you know the meaning of traditional food?']. Vygotsky's (1978) scaffolding theory was applied in the classroom when an educator started the topic which required students to answer what they know or don't, at the commencement of the lesson. This entails that scaffolding by the educator was significant in this situation to support teaching and learning when it was required.

However, it is imperative to note at this point that this was an educator-led code-switching, as she was the first one to initiate Silozi in an English lesson when she realised that students didn't comprehend the word ‘traditional food’ in English. This was due to the lack of English proficiency among students as they do not hold an advanced mastery of the language during the transition in Grade 4. The educator therefore, switched to Silozi as a communication tool to address the situation. According to Myers-Scotton (1993:113) the educator is regarded as a "rational actor who can make the unmarked choice, the more secure and the more expected choice, often used by the speakers, when confronted with the circumstances in the classroom”. In Line 4, students were responding to the question asked by the educator, and in so doing switched from English and to Silozi. The student followed the same pattern of switching that the educator used when she asked the questions.

Then in Line 5, the second student responded to the educator's question in Silozi (L1) only without any use of English, the L2. The third student in Line 6 replied in English and concluded the sentence in Silozi as the student in Line 4 did. Firstly, it must be noted that the educator did not stop the

students from answering in Silozi as she wanted to create a relaxed and anxiety-free atmosphere for students, which is conducive to effective learning. Secondly, the educator allowed students to code-switch between the L1 and L2 because she knew that the students were likely to be much more effective in the L1 than in the L2 at this transitional stage and to enhance dialogic interaction with the students. Rahman (2011) emphasises the importance of facilitating students to be involved in activities “that can help them to become students who are independent in their learning”.

After a couple of students had explained the word "traditional food" in Line 7, the educator reinforced their positive response by evaluating it and elaborating on the concept further in English and repeating the information in Silozi as a way to build language competency. In Line 9, the educator asked students to 'name traditional food found in the Zambezi region' to invite students to participate in the lesson, the educator began the sentence in English and completed it in Silozi. The researcher observed that this motivated the students to participate as almost all students wanted to give answers.

In Line 10, the student responded, and the utterance is, “Beans, *muzinzila*, *mumaka*, *muloho wa mangambwa*, fish” ['Beans, berries, red berries, wild spinach, fish']. The student only knew two traditional foods in English, beans and fish. She therefore switched to Silozi for other cultural food terms. Then in line 11, another student openly indicates that he doesn't know the English words for the traditional foods he wanted to mention. He used Subiya the local language spoken by most people in the Zambezi region, and utters “*inkuma* and *muñende*” ['water lilies and millet scones']. The student drew from cultural and linguistic knowledge that he has about these kinds of foods to support learning. In Line 12, the student asked, “Teacher, what about **mawungu** and **chinyungela**” ['Teacher, what about mopane worms and mealie meal traditional drink']. The student knew the answer to the question but lacked the vocabulary in English, so the student used a word from his local language, Sitotela.

The educator concluded the lesson in Line 13 with pedagogical reinforcement, thanking the students for their answers. Later, the educator summed up by elaborating in English all the traditional foods which were given by students in the two local languages mentioned. She thus tries to build up their English vocabulary. To conclude, Fishman (1967:29) refers to this type of code-switching as operating at a "macro-level" where two languages, each with distinct usage in particular circumstances or situations, are applied in an interchange.

The next excerpt shows another example of situational code-switching, and in this case, we have person-related switching for classroom management. It also demonstrates how educators used inter-

sentential code-switching by switching from English to Silozi in response to a particular situation. Poplack (1980: 589) defines “inter-sentential code-switching” as a change in a “single discourse between two languages, where the switching occurs after a sentence in the language has been completed and the next sentence starts with the new language”.

#### Excerpt 2: Natural Science

##### Topic: Identify living and non-living

Line 14. Educator B: I am going to give you an example of a living organism, *Salome utalime kwanu*.

[I am going to give you an example of a living organism, Salome look here].

The above occurrences of code-switching were person-related and also related to classroom control. In Line 14, the educator switches from English the language of teaching, to a new utterance or sentence in Silozi so as to change the focus from teaching to disciplining a student. This was prompted by having to respond to a student who was inattentive and unruly during the lesson. The educator switched from English to Silozi the first language because Silozi was found to be appropriate for classroom management, to reprimand, scold or control unruly students.

These sorts of interjections are common in classrooms because the educators commonly need to address classroom management issues directly as they rise. Canagarajah (1995:175) defines "person-related switching" as cases related to classroom supervision. The instances of the inter-sentential-switching show the educator's ability in English and Silozi. Zirker (2007:10) notes that a “speaker can start a sentence in one language on one topic, but then end up arguing” a different point in an alternative language as motivated to do so by an interlocutor. This is also considered situational here because it responds to a change in the classroom situation and the attention of the educator.

#### Excerpt 3: Natural Science

##### Topic: Matter and Non-living Matter

Line 15. Educator B: *Wena Likezo usike wanata yomuñwi* do you understand *zenibulela*, you have to stop it.

['You Likezo don't beat the other one do you understand what I am talking about, you have to stop it']

- Line 16. Student 1: Teacher, *Muchimba uwuzwize siñoliso saka*, I know it'  
 ['Teacher, Muchimba stole my pen, I know it']
- Line 17. Student 2: *Bome banilekezi siñoliso se, hanikufi sona, nchangu.*  
 ['My mother bought this pen, I am not giving it to you, and it's mine']
- Line 18. Educator B: Muchimba and Likezo *hake mutahe kwanu nisiñoliso seo semusweli kulwanela*, I said came here with that pen.  
 ['Muchimba and Likezo come here with that pen you are fighting for I said came here with that pen you are fighting for ']
- Line 19. Student 1: Eni teacher, but *hanina kumufa sona.*  
 ['Yes teacher, but I am not giving it to her']
- Line 20. Educator B: Give me that pen, *lukayo ambola kwa ofisi, kasamulaho atuto ye.*  
 ['Give me that pen, we will talk at the office, after this lesson']

Similarly, in the above excerpt, code-switching was used by the educator to manage the classroom during lesson presentation. The switches occurred between English, Silozi, and Subiya a local language. In Line 15, the educator started the sentence in Silozi and switched to English and the utterance is, “*Wena Likezo, usike wanata yomuñwi*, do you understand *zenibulela*, you have to stop it” [‘You, Likezo, don't beat the other one, do you understand what I am talking about, you have to stop it’]. The educator reprimanded the student who was beating the other student during the lesson. The educator thus used Silozi, the language in which they were comfortable and understood. By the tone of her voice and the switch of the language, the researcher believed that she wanted to put a stop to the altercation which was taking place in the classroom. The findings relate to Myers-Scotton (1993:113) who asserts that an individual who speaks two languages has an intelligence of markedness, concerning the “relationship with the speaker who essentially the one choosing” the language in the discussion. This indicates that the educators are acquainted with their students’ linguistic background, and as such, they switch the codes when confronted with a situation. The strong directives were in English; “do you understand” and “you have to stop it”. This agrees with Canagarajah’s (1995:175) observation that educators employ code-switching as a tool to get students’ immediate attention and exercising classroom management.

In line 16, the student code-switches between Silozi and English when she responds to the educator during classroom interactions by saying, “Teacher, *Muchimba uwuzwize siñoliso saka*, I know it” [‘Teacher, Muchimba stole my pen, I know it’]. The student intended to draw attention to the educator she was addressing. As the altercation continues, the other student in Line 17, said, “*Bome*

*banilekezi sona hanikufi, nchangu*” [‘My mother bought me this pen, therefore I am not giving it to you, it’s mine’]. The sentence above demonstrates a fight about ownership. In addressing the other students, student 2 notably uses solely Silozi as the language that is relevant to “engaged” exchanges between students.

As indicated above in Line 17, one student borrowed a word from Sisubiya, a local language, to emphasise a point and the utterance is: *nchangu* [‘It’s mine’]. The vernacular language can be more persuasive than the official languages. Mesthrie et al (2000:148) suggest that “language varieties constitute a resource that may be passed on in interaction with others”. This applies to the switch as a situational resource employed by both educators and students, even though the students are still developing competence in English. Therefore, Silozi was highly valued for disciplining students and interpersonal arguments.

In Line 18, the educator’s utterance is, “*Muchimba and Likezo hake mutahe kwanu nisiñoliso seo semusweli kulwanela*, I said come here with that pen” [‘Muchimba and Likezo come here with that pen you are fighting for, I said come here with that pen’]. The educator needed to clarify what the disagreement was about before it escalated and posed a danger to some students in the classroom. The student in Line 19 responded “*Yes, teacher, but hanina kumufa sona*” [‘Yes teacher, but I’m not giving my pen to her’]. The educator managed to calm down the situation and decided to ask the two students to see her in her office after the lesson. The situation was disruptive enough for the educator in Line 20 to ask the two students to see her in her office after the lesson. Lastly, she asserted control and continued with the daily lesson. As illustrated in this instance, Silozi works better for control as it is the mutual language that is understood by all the students, as it can be more persuasive than English, the official language.

#### Excerpt 4: Natural Science

##### Topic: Weather conditions of Namibia

- Line 21. Educator 2: *Musike mwalwanela textbook yeo ya Natural Science yenimifile.*  
[‘Don’t fight for the textbook for Natural Science textbook I gave you’]
- Line 22. Student 1: Teacher, Mwilima *ubata kusebelisa buka anosi.*  
[‘Teacher, Mwilima want to use the textbook alone’]
- Line 23. Student 2: *Bo muluti buka ye, iyinzi kwa hule nina* I can’t see a thing.  
[‘Teacher, the textbook is far away from me, I can’t see anything’]
- Line 24. Educator 2: *Wena put that book at the centre of the table, kele munisinyeza nako.*

[‘You, put that book at the centre of the table, you have wasted my time’]

In the above excerpt, code-switching was used to control students who were conducting themselves in a disorderly manner during the observations. In line 21, the educator switched to both languages and the utterance is, “*Musike mwalwanela textbook yeo ya Natural Science yenimifile*” [‘Don’t fight for the Natural Science textbook I gave you’]. The educator wanted to stop the group of students from fighting and pulling the textbook they were given. The level of noise drew the educator’s attention as this was hindering the lesson proceedings. Then in Line 22, the student responded, “Teacher, *Mwilima ubata kusebelisa buka anosi*” [‘Teacher, Mwilima wants to use the textbook alone’]. The student implies that one student wanted to use the book all by himself which was impossible given the situation of textbook shortages.

Then in Line 23, the second student utters, “*Bo muluti buka ye, iyinzi kwa hule nina*, I can’t see a thing” [‘Teacher, the textbook is far away from me, I can’t see a thing’]. The researcher realised that the second student was far in the corner and had difficulties accessing the textbook. The educator in line 24 instructed the students to put the textbook at the centre so that all the six students could have access to textbook, which they did. The MEC (1993:3-5) mentioned that most government schools were jammed to capacity as they were above the required 1:35 teacher-learner ratio due to an influx of students in urban areas. The classroom under investigation was overcrowded with 55 students. Lastly, it is the educator’s responsibility to manage and control her class in addition to teaching.

#### **4.3.2 Interpersonal code-switching**

The excerpts in this section demonstrate the use of interpersonal code-switching which occurred during classroom observation. Interpersonal code-switching was employed for social motives such as showing solidarity or group affiliation as shown below.

##### Excerpt 5: Natural and Health Science

##### Topic: Describe the state of Matter

Line 25. Educator A: We are going to continue *nilituto zaluna moluezezanga kazazi ni zazi*,

Ms Kela there *kunani lika zebata batisisa kuluna*.

[‘We are going to continue with our lesson as we do daily, Ms. Kela

there will be observing us']

In the above excerpt, interpersonal code-switching was employed to show group affiliation and common background with the researcher. The switches happened between English and Silozi. After the greetings, the educator in Line 25 articulated, “We are going to continue *nilituto zaluna moluezezanga kazazi ni zazi*, Ms Kela there *kunani Iika zebabatisisa kuluna*” [‘We are going to continue with our lesson like we do daily, Ms Kela there will be observing us’]. Introducing the researcher in Silozi made students realise that I understood the language and eased the worry and pressure that might have taken place in the classroom.

Crystal (1987) asserts that a person can switch to show unity with a specific societal group. It is equivalent when the educator changes the language during teaching to build unity that is associated with sociable relations with students. Lastly, Holmes (2000) mentions that a speaker can change to an additional language as an indication of group affiliation and shared background with the recipient. The researcher agrees with Holmes’ (2000) findings as it was easy for the educator to change languages because they came from the same ethnicity with the students; therefore, they understood each other well.

As another example of interpersonal code-switching, the next excerpt shows the usage of tag-switching. Tag switching happened when the teacher introduced a tag at the end of the sentences. Below is an illustration of tag switching that was observed during teaching and learning.

#### Excerpt 6: Natural Science

##### Topic: Matter

Line 26. Educator B: *Lubulela kuli Matter kisika kaufela so bona, sokona kuswala, sika sifi*

*kapa sifi*, you know?

[‘We say Matter is anything that you can see, take out space and has mass, you know?’].

Line 27. Educator B: This is a book, table, and chair, *ne?*

[‘This is a book, table and chair, isn’t that true?’]

The above excerpt shows that the educator employed tag-switching for interactional effects. Catherine & Angus (2010) proffer that "a tag is a label or device attached to something, or in linguistics, a tag is a word or phrase that is appended to a conviction" to show stress. The definitions above propose that a tag is used as a way of rounding off an utterance. In Line 26, the educators said,

“*Lubulela kuli Matter kisika kaufela so bona, sokona kuswala, sika sifi kapa sifi, you know*” [‘We say Matter is anything that you can see, take up space and has mass, you know’]. The educator introduced the tag *you know* in English after a sentence that is mostly in Silozi first language, in order to direct the hearer’s attention. Furthermore, a tag can be included spontaneously in a sentence; it does not have syntactic restrictions. Tags can be discourse markers that are used to direct the hearer’s attention, which is why they can be considered as interpersonal code-switching.

In line 27, the educator articulated, “This is a book, table and chair *ne*” [‘This is a book, table and chair, right?’]. The word *ne* is pronounced as [nei]. The educator used a German tag *ne* to show emphasis (though there is an Afrikaans equivalent *ne* [nə]. Khati (1992) cited Poplack (1980) that “tag-switches are true types of code-switching because their use is an application of foreign language elements in an utterance made in another language”, in this circumstance English and German. The present researcher is motivated to agree with Poplack’s observation as the use of tag code-switching doesn’t indicate a deficiency of skill in English by the educator, neither are there parallels in the L2. The educator may apply them automatically or purposely, and if they are not understandable, they can be simply substituted with equivalents in the language that the bilingual students understand. The equivalent of the word *ne* in Silozi is “*Hakiniti*” [‘isn’t that true’].

### **4.3.3 Educational code-switching or translanguaging**

The excerpts in this section demonstrate the use of educational code-switching which occurred during classroom observation. In this study educational code-switching was driven by the bilingual classroom in which educators and students interacted. Gulzar (2010) and Gumperz (1982:409) identified some aspects relating to CS in a bilingual setting such as translations, reiteration, and explanations to enhance classroom participation of which these are shown below.

#### Excerpt 7: English

Topic: Reading excerpt about Beverly and Rosemary fighting

Line 28. Educator A: *Mwa Silozi kanti manzwi ao borrow ni lending atalusani?* In Silozi,  
what does borrow and lending mean?  
[‘In Silozi what does the word borrow and lending mean? In  
Silozi what does borrow and lending mean?’]

The above-transcribed lesson shows how the educator used educational code-switching by reiterating the same utterance in two different languages. Reiteration implies stressing and “reinforcing a

message that has been transmitted firstly in the target language and then duplicating the message in the first language” to ensure that it is understood by students (Eldridge, 1996:303). In Line 28, the educator asked, “*Mwa Silozi kanti manzwi ao borrow ni lending atalusani?* [‘In Silozi what does the word borrow and lending mean?’].

The educator asked the question in Silozi in the beginning and then repeated the original statement in English. The function of the reiteration was to clarify what is said to the students or to emphasise a message. Notably, the educator does not translate the words borrow or lending, which are the topic of the question. The findings in Line 28 correspond with Eldridge (1996:304) who identified that the motives for such code-switching in “teaching and learning by educators are as follows: to “emphasize, ensure understanding of what has been presented, confirm as well as to build terminology”. In this case, the educator reiterated the question but did not translate the key terminology.

The following excerpt on the other hand shows one of the educators employing translation for educational purposes. A translation is rendering of the same ideas in a different language from the original: a translation from English into Silozi. Below is an illustration of translations.

#### Excerpt 8: English

##### Topic: The Lifestyle of the Himba people

Line 29. Educator A: Do you know that our region Zambezi, we have *mazulu* and then *malundu* are found in the Kunene region. Can you differentiate between the two words?

[‘Do you know that in our region the Zambezi we have hills and then mountains are found in the Kunene region. Can you differentiate between the two words?’].

Line 30. Educator A: The Himba people have livestock, *kanti* livestock *kiñi* in Silozi?

[‘The Himba people have livestock, what is livestock in Silozi?’].

Line 31. Student 1: *Ki lico* teacher.

[‘It’s food teacher’]

Line 32. Student 2: Its *lifolofolo* teacher.

[‘Its animal’s teacher’]

Line 33. Educator A: Thanks for the answers, although the first student to give the answer was a bit lost in meaning and the second was partly correct.

Line 34. Educator A: Students, we call it livestock in English, *zimunantu* in Subiya, *zimunanu* in Mbalangwe, *ezimunantu* in Sifwe and *limunanu* in Silozi do you understand?

The above excerpt shows that the educator employed translations for educational purposes. The translations were from English to Silozi and local languages spoken and understood by students. Marawu (1997) explains that the adjustment can happen in a sentence, expressing that the communicator can “change back and forth comfortably between the terminologies”. In line 29, the educator used code-switching mainly to show the distinction between two concepts “*mazulu*” [‘hills’] and “*malundu*” [‘mountains’] as students tended to confuse the two concepts due to them being beginners in English. However, here these switches can be seen primarily as translations for educational or pedagogical clarification. The findings relate with Peires (1994:14) who states that an educational switch served to channel the message which could be easily understood and to fill any lexical gaps. The researcher observed that the educator's code-switching serves an academic role and strengthens her teaching and learning by making doubly sure linguistically that the subject matter is understood.

Then in Line 30, the educator asked the student to translate the word [‘livestock’] in Silozi. This motivated the students to participate in the lesson despite them not knowing the word, and this helped the students to build some knowledge. As can be observed in Line 31, the first student said, “*Ki lico* teacher” [‘It’s food teacher’]. The second student in Line 32, added, “It’s *lifolofolo* teacher” [‘It’s animals teacher’]. The educator acknowledged the students’ answers and thanked the first student for his effort, even though it was wrong. She also complimented the second student for almost giving the right answer. The findings link with Moodley (2007:107) who emphasised that educational code-switching helps to (1) support teaching and learning so that learners can understand the topic, (2) help students build knowledge, and (3) help to support the development of new concepts. This helped to maintain good classroom relations and also helped to advance conceptual growth in verbal communication in both English and Silozi. On an individual level, it could hence be concluded that “being fluent in two languages demonstrated and magnified through code-switching, could help reinforce complexity and redefine the formation and elaboration of new concepts” as the educator made use of all the linguistic repertoires to explain two words (Blom & Gumperz, 1972:75).

The excerpt above shows code-switching or translanguaging as an operative transmission tool (Schreiber, 2015:69) in which the speaker makes every exertion that the information is addressed, interpreted and realized by the receiver. Garcia (2009:140) defines the term translanguaging as the utilisation of different linguistic repertoires by the speaker to deliver meaning. This implies that translanguaging can be a pedagogical tool to support learning within the bilingual classrooms. The emphasis here is on how an individual may utilise all the different languages at their disposal as a resource to enhance learning. In Line 33, the educator simplified the term 'livestock' by using different linguistic repertoires upon realising that students had difficulties with this English word as can be seen in Lines 31 & 32 of the students' responses. The educator translated to the students that the term livestock refers to *limunanu* in Silozi, in Sisubiya the term 'livestock' is referred to as *zimunantu*, in Sifwe the term livestock is referred to as *ezimunantu* and in Mbalangwe it is referred to as *zimunanu*. The pedagogical benefit of translanguaging above was significant because the educator linked the difficult word with different students' home languages spoken in the Zambezi Region for them to comprehend the word.

The researcher thought that this word was inserted purposely by the educator because she desired to provide students with language forms that they are all acquainted with, and in this situation the educator can be acknowledged as an individual who is knowledgeable in different languages. Thus, translating to Silozi, Sifwe, Sisubiya, Mbalangwe and English seems to have been met positively by the students during this lesson as it helped to open doors for students who were struggling with key concepts in the lesson. It must be noted that an educator can gradually remove the scaffolding that are put in place once the student becomes a self-regulated and an independent student. But in this case an educator did not remove assistance because students did not demonstrate task mastery of new or difficult terms, they are given and more assistance or support from an educator or more knowledgeable other is need during this stage of the transition. Lastly, as the students moves towards mastery, the help is gradually lessened in order to move an accountability of scholarship from the educator to the student.

It was observed that the educators used code-switching from English to Silozi the first language to pedagogically enhance classroom participation, and for further explanations and clarifications. Below is an example of how CS is used to enhance classroom participation.

Excerpt 9: English

Topic: The lifestyle of the Himba people

- Line 35. Educator A: Who is going to translate the topic which I wrote on the board in Silozi? *Banana kimani yata lutolokela toho yataba yeñozwi falitapa, mwa Silozi?*  
['Who is going to translate the topic on the chalkboard in Silozi? Who is going to explain the topic on the chalkboard in Silozi']
- Line 36. Student 1: *Ki likande la maHimba.*  
['The story of Himba']
- Line 37. Educator A: You, didn't finish *kutoloka toho ya taba.*  
['You, didn't finish explaining the topic']
- Line 38. Student 2: Teacher it's the life *bwa maHimba.*  
['Teacher it's the life of Himba']
- Line 39. Educator A: *Nibata kuli mutoloke kakutala, nikafa alimunwi abulele,* I want you to explain in full, please.  
['I want you to explain in full please, I will only give a chance to one learner to speak, I want you to explain in full please']
- Line 40. Student 3: *Ki likande la bupilo bwa mushobo wa maHimba.*  
['It's the lifestyle of the Himba people']
- Line 41. Educator: You are correct, *mumufe mazoho banana.*  
['You are correct, give her a hand of applause students']

In this excerpt, the educator and the students employed both codes interchangeably. After writing the topic on the board, the educator started with a question in English and then switched from English to Silozi in Line 35. The reason behind the switch was to open communication networks i.e. to permit the learners to participate in the lesson. Hymes (1974) maintains that for instruction and scholarship to take place, educators and students have to take part as both listeners and speakers. The educator as the facilitator asked the students some questions and gave them spontaneous translation exercises to promote participation. Then, in Line 36, the first student translated the topic and the utterance is, “*Ki likande la maHimba*” [‘It’s a story of the Himba’]. The educator in Line 37 was not satisfied with the student's response, and as such she asserted that something was missing in the translations. Although the educator was very much in control and students very much “respondents”, there is evidence of dialogue and some bilingual activities in this example.

Then she opened the floor again for other students to express their opinions on the subject. The third student uttered in Line 38, “Teacher it’s, the life *bwa ma Himba*” [‘Teacher its, the life of the Himba’]. This student started the sentence in English and completed it in Silozi in the same utterance (intra-sentential switching). In Line 39, the educator's utterance is “*Nibata kuli mutoloke kakutala, nikafa alimuñwi abulele*, I want you to explain in full” [‘I want you to explain in full please, I will only give a chance to one learner to speak, I want you to explain in full’]. This was the educator's way of facilitating interactive learning by linking Silozi and English together and by reiteration so as to assist students in the transition phase.

Lastly, in Line 40, the student uttered, “A lifestyle *bwa bantu ba maHimba* teacher” [‘A lifestyle of the Himba people, teacher’]. The student gave the right translation and in Line 41, the educator asked the class to applaud by handclapping. Mokgwathi (2010) acknowledges that through code-switching, educators can efficiently acquaint students with the required knowledge. Arthur (1996:12) proffers that a change to the mother tongue is from time to time applied by educators, “not as a device for checking understanding, but every bit a ritualistic pseudo checking with the concomitant convention that the only potential answer is affirmative.” This implies that educators can resort to uttering a phrase or a word in the mother tongue which is contrived to elicit students' contributions.

#### Excerpt 10: English

##### Topic: Reading excerpt about Beverly and Rosemary fighting

Line 42. Educator A: *Mwa Silozi kanti manzwi ao borrow ni lending atalusani?* In Silozi,

what does borrow and lending mean?

[‘In Silozi what does the word borrow and lending mean? In Silozi

what does borrow and lending mean’]

Line 43. Student 1: Teacher, borrow and lending means *kukupa*.

[‘Teacher borrow, and lending means to request’]

Line 44. Educator A: Class is she right, *manzwi a swana onafa?*

[‘Class is she right, are these words the same in meaning?’]

Line 45. All students: Yes teacher.

Line 46. Educator A: *Manzwi a haswani nikamita, borrow italusa kukalima mi lending*

*kikukalimisa*. These words are not the same at all, borrow means to use and take it back while lending means to give something to someone and get it back later, *mu utwile*?

['These words are not the same at all, borrow means to use and take it back while lending means to give something to someone and get it back later, do you understand?']

This example (discussed earlier in relation to reiteration) shows the usage of code-switching for further explanations and clarifications when the educator changes from English the language of instruction to Silozi first language. In Line 42, the educator asked the students to differentiate between two terms 'borrow' and 'lending' first in Silozi and again in English. The educator resorted to code-switching as she wanted students to explain those two words in Silozi as they were incomprehensible to them in English. Canagarajah (1995:173) also acknowledges that "code-switching is a resource for effective teaching and learning" and this can assist students to understand difficult words. In Line 43, a student responded, "Teacher, borrow and lending *atalusa kukupa*" ['Teacher, borrow and lending means to request']. In Line 44, the educator asks, "Class is she right, *manzwi a swana onafa*?" ['Class is she right that these words mean the same'] and all students responded positively "Yes teacher" in Line 45. The educator decided to explain and clarify the words 'lending' and 'borrow' in Line 46. She explained the words because she was aware of the students' lack of English vocabulary as they just transitioned from the foundation phase to the intermediate phase. The educator was building competence as it was a new vocabulary and in a new language. My observations resonate with Uys (2010), who explains that "code-switching is used for academic motives by educators when they desire to clarify, explain and reinforce explanatory talk in their classrooms." This implies that code-switching serves some essential purpose which may be useful for bilingual classrooms as it is one of the strategies that educators resort to when they want to extend the explanation of the concepts to students.

In fact, the educator's explanations are neither clear nor accurate. *Borrow* does not quite mean 'to use and take it back' in Standard English. One can borrow something and not actually use it or (more commonly) not return it. A better meaning would have been 'to take something with the owner's permission with the intention of giving it back after use'. 'Take it back' in the teacher's definition is confusing and it is little wonder that L2 users of English in Southern Africa and worldwide experience difficulties with the pair *borrow/lend*, if the explanation by educators is unclear.

#### **4.4 SUMMARY OF CODE-SWITCHING ANALYSIS**

This section analysed data collected through classroom observations at the school under investigation. The data concentrated on the types, structures and roles of code-switching used during the transitional phase in Grade 4 by educators and students. Three types of switching occurred. One might be termed pedagogical or educational switching and this often falls into the “translanguaging” mode of enhanced communication in the classroom via bilingualism and switching. Repetition and translation via switching is a practical and important way of building language competence. The other type of switching is more situational code-switching, where something in the “situation” changes, viz. students becoming unruly and needing to be censured. This entails switches from the language of instruction to the vernacular, which is more appropriate for interpersonal interaction and criticising or disciplining others. In some cases, a switch was made to English as it was felt that it carried “school authority” which carried more weight than “vernacular disciplining”.

The last type of switching is called interpersonal code-switching, it was utilised by the educator and students for social reasons such as showing solidarity or group affiliation. The study followed Canagarajah’s (1995:173) two functions of code-switching which are micro and macro function. This entails that switches were mainly used by educators for communicative, social and teaching purposes such as to enhance classroom participation, for explanations and clarifications, classroom management and to show solidarity. This indicates that code-switching prevails in these bilingual classrooms to achieve various teaching and learning goals.

#### **4.5 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS OF INTERVIEWS WITH THE EDUCATORS**

The researcher used interviews as a data-gathering technique. It must be noted that the same educators who were observed during classroom observations allowed the researcher to interview them individually. Interviews responded to the sub-research questions 2 & 3: what challenges are faced by educators in teaching English as the language of learning and teaching in Grade 4 classrooms, and what challenges does the Namibian language in education policy have regarding the transition in Grade 4. To provide relevant information, open-ended questions were used. Interviews are presented in response grids for clarity and to allow comparison. The name of the school is presented as Gabriel Mubita Primary School (pseudonym) and educators are indicated as Educator A and Educator B so as to protect their identity. It must be noted that the *linguistic profile* of the

educators was described in Chapter 3 of the research methodology (see 3.5). Therefore, this section starts with the language preferences.

#### 4.5.1 Language preferences

This section intends to identify the languages used, the purpose, and circumstances that account for code-switching that occurs in the classrooms.

Question 1: *Which language do you prefer using for LoLT and why do you code-switch in the classroom?*

Educator A	I prefer English and Silozi sometimes. It's challenging teaching Grade 4 in English alone, as there are a lot of communication barriers. Then, I change all the time. When I come across a difficult concept for students to interpret it in the first language or mother tongue, translate and capture learner's attention when they're are inattentive during the lesson.
Educator B	I choose English because it is the official language, but occasionally, I utilise Silozi. I do switch, because these students were educated in their first language tongue from Grade 0-3 and Grade 4 that's where the transition phase takes place. I switch to explain, elaborate clarify things.

The responses to question 1 above show that both educators preferred English as the language of scholarship and instruction, and they use Silozi the first language where it is necessary. The responses show that educators use code-switching for translations, capturing students' attention, elaboration and clarifications. Educators attributed their switching to communication barriers as the students lack vocabulary because they received less exposure to English in previous Grades (0-3).

Question 2: *What is the purpose of using Silozi in the English medium of instruction classes?*

Educator A	English is the second or even third language for these students. My students have a limited vocabulary of concepts as you have noticed during your classroom observation. It's my responsibility as an educator to be certain that they comprehend.
Educator B	Like I stated earlier, students in government schools have limited English background compared to students in private schools because they are taught in English from lower grades. So, to bridge the lexical gap we use Silozi in English classes.

The responses to question 2 show that educators were using Silozi in English medium classrooms. They said that English was not the students' native language, but it was their second or rather third language. Moreover, the response shows that the Natural Science educator B made a comparison between a government school's limited vocabulary compared to private school students who are taught in English from lower grades and have a more extensive English vocabulary.

It must be noted that students at private schools are predominantly white students, with few black students from the upper and middle working classes. These students from private schools speak English as their home language but there are a few students from different ethnic groups that are found in Namibia who attend school there too. The majority of Silozi students do not make it to private schools due to the following reasons: (1) Silozi is only offered in government schools since private schools are English medium schools, (2) Entry to private schools is restricted as students are conditionally required to pass an English oral and writing proficiency test before admission.

Question 3: *What are the circumstances of such a switch in the classroom?*

Educator A	Certain topics force you as an educator to switch for example cultures and traditional food of the Zambezi region.
Educator B	I will state that a switch can be triggered by a situation beyond your control, for instance, classroom management.

The above suggests that educators' switches were topic-related, for instance, if you are teaching about cultures and traditional food of the Zambezi region, it's imperative to switch because sometimes the vocabulary is not present in English. The responses from the interviews also indicated that the switch was situation-related, with classroom management being specifically mentioned. The present researcher agrees with the educators on this point because code switching was present in relation to the topic (See Excerpt 1) and in relation to classroom management (See Excerpt 2 & 3) in classroom observations. The educators switched codes based on topics which they were teaching and the situations which they had to overcome during teaching and learning.

#### 4.5.2 Challenges during the transition

This section of the interviews responds to key research question 2 of the study.

Question 4: *Do you think communication challenges are holding back students from participating in your class? Why?*

Educator A	Yes, I think so, these children have ideas, but language barriers are hindering them participating in the class, merely if you permit them to use Silozi you will see that everyone recognizes the answer in the first language.
Educator B	Yes, there are, most of these learners can participate well when they use the first language, not English.

The responses here suggest that English was hindering students from participating during lessons. Both educators believe that when you allow students to use Silozi in their first language, almost all students participate because they understand and know the language. However, it may not be as simple as they mentioned in the interviews. Students during the classroom observations were finding it difficult to differentiate between hill and mountain (See Excerpt 8).

In fact, the difference between mountain and hill in many languages is indistinct and mainly subjective. The term ‘hill’ in everyday usage means a pile or an incline particularly in a road. While in academic terms, a “hill” is a landform that is elevated compared to the surrounding land and it has a distinct summit and it exceeds 2000 feet above sea level. The term ‘mountain’ in everyday usage refers to anything of great quality or size or a huge heap. While in academic terms “mountain” would have been a large landform that stretches above the surrounding land in a limited area usually in the form of a peak. These landforms may just depend on local usage, as a mountain can be referred to locally as a hill or vice-versa. This aspect of language can cause confusion for students as it creates uncertainty between academic senses of a word and those used beyond in everyday life. This can also suggest that code-switching is only effective depending on the skills and abilities of teachers to use it effectively. Perhaps training in the use of code-switching to facilitate learning would be useful.

Question 5: *What is the development of the student's first language Silozi?*

Educator A	I don't consider the student's first language Silozi as well developed. The intriguing thing about the Zambezi Region is the fact that scholars are not instructed in their mother tongue like other regions of Namibia. They encounter the language once they enter the school grounds and live it again once the school is out. Although they are taught in Silozi from
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	Grade 0-3, I don't think it is enough time for them to grow and become eloquent in the terminology.
Educator B	I don't think so, most of these learners are not Silozi speakers. There is 20 percent of the population who speak this language since it's of Zambian origin.

The responses to question 5 show that the students' first language, Silozi (L1), was not well developed because it was not the native language for most of the students. Silozi was given the status of mother tongue at independence in 1990 and it has become a useful medium of instruction. The usage of Silozi was limited to classroom education and scholarship only, and outside the school, students preferred using their home language (alongside Silozi). The linguistic background of the Zambezi region was discussed in detail (Section 1.2.1) that in fact Silozi was a lingua Franca of Zambian origin, spoken by a few people in the Zambezi region. Educators used Silozi predominately because it is considered as the first language of students and where it lacks some terms, educators code switch with either English or other local languages.

As a former educator from the Zambezi Region, I can attest with the educators on this situation. It must be emphasised that the language situation of the Zambezi region is complex and hard to understand. My home language is Sitotela, but I was taught in Silozi as my first language at school. It's worth noting that even today I am still struggling with the language as I am not fully conversant in it. The reason for this choice was that it had an accepted orthography and written books, while other languages did not have an accepted orthography, such as Sifwe, Subiya, Sitotela, Setswana, Siyeyi, Mbalangwe and Thimbukushu spoken in the region.

#### **4.5.3 Language policy development**

This section of the interviews responds to key research question 3 of the study and the results are discussed below.

Question 6: *Are you acquainted with the Namibian language in education policy and what is the medium of instruction in Grade 4?*

Educator A	Yes, madam the medium of education is English
Educator B	No, English is the medium of instruction, but I never read it.

The responses to question 6 of the interviews indicate that both educators were acquainted with the Namibian language in education policy for schools. Furthermore, both educators were aware that English was the medium of teaching at Grade 4. The researcher believes that educators need to know the policy because the transition from the mother tongue to English as the medium of instruction takes place only in Grade 4 and this is the most crucial phase in primary school. In addition, educators have to follow the required directives on the transition and implementation of the policy. It is important for educators to be familiar with the language policy because lack of a focused specific policy on the transition can lead to inadequacies in effective transitions. Arguably, lack of knowledge of the policy on the transition affects the smooth transitioning of students.

*Question 7: If there were to be changes to the Namibian language in education policy for schools, what suggestion can you suggest for policymakers to prepare a suitable policy?*

Educator A	Regarding the transition, I think Grade 5 will be ideal for the transition because Grade 4 is too early in transition since they haven't mastered the vocabulary.
Educator B	Students must be taught in English in the foundation stage (0-3), there must be uniformity in government and private schools.

The responses to question 7 were not in unison as Educator A suggested that the transition should be made at Grade 5 and not Grade 4 as it is too early for the switch, while educator B suggested that students must be taught in English during the immersion programme from Grade 0-3 so that they won't struggle in upper grades. Lastly, educator B stated that there is no consistency when it comes to mother tongue as private schools start with English in Grade 0-3 while public schools have to transition in Grade 4.

Teaching students in English in the foundation phase is currently impossible based on the following reasons: (1) Research on the language policy must be carried out by the Ministry to see its shortfalls, (2) Funds will be needed to train all lower primary educators countrywide on early transition, (3) Teaching and learning material such as textbooks will be needed, and (4) Highly qualified English educators will be required. Changing a policy cannot happen instantly if the future success of the students is at stake. However, this does not imply any conclusions regarding the need for change in the language policy but rather reflects the Namibian school system that we currently do have.

Educators will be faced with immense difficulties dealing with students as they lack the CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) and BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills)

two terms which originated from Cummins’ work in Canada. Cummins (2000) mentions that it takes a minimum of two years to obtain “BICS in an additional language, although perhaps less when there is more exposure to the target language, while it takes seven years to master CALP”. This implies that students develop proficiency in BICS well before they acquire a strong grasp of academic language. For that reason, students may initially appear fully proficient and fluent, while struggling with the significant language gaps. Academic language does not rely “on test scores as support for either its construct validity or relevance to education” (Cummins, 2000). In light of the above mentioned dilemmas, even if English is really boosted in the early grades, the transition must come later in Grade 4. Namibian students’ CALP in their L1 is also not highly developed, thus creating a problem in developing the CALP in an additional language, which is the language of education.

*Question 8: Are there enough teaching and learning materials supplied by the Ministry of Education for LoLT during the transition?*

Educator A	No, I have a few English textbooks for my students. I depend mostly on copies and sometimes I wait for days since the school does not have enough ink and copy papers. It was time-consuming as we had other administrative duties. Did you observe that students were fighting for the textbooks in their group during the classroom observation? It was hard to control them as classes are overcrowded.
Educator B	I will say no, I have only ten textbooks for my four classes which consist of 55 students per class. This impedes us from completing the syllabus on time. To add to that, students in government schools have limited resources, compared to private schools that have resources and facilities.

The response to question 8 shows that the Ministry of Education was not providing enough teaching and learning resources in schools. Educators had only a few textbooks and relied largely on making copies, and sometimes they have to wait for copies due to lack of ink and paper. This hampers the completion of the syllabuses. The researcher noted that more than six students shared one textbook in these overcrowded classes. Moreover, the Natural Science educator made a contrast between state schools and private schools, regretting the huge gap in resources.

I believe that it is feasible to improve the resources though it comes with challenges such as logistics and cost, and it needs proper planning by the stakeholders involved. The provision of teaching and learning materials can be possible if the members of the public are involved in creating these resources locally so as to reduce the cost involved. For example, parents from the local community

can assist the school by producing craft and artwork which can be used by students and educators in the classroom. In addition, it would be beneficial if educators at the school can be trained in material development by the Ministry of Education. The basic shortage of teaching and learning materials has obvious pedagogical implications for students as they will not be able to complete their writing tasks in the given time. This disparity is not easily manageable because educators haven't come up with initiatives on how to manage the situation which they were dealing with, but instead they wait for the government to provide materials. Educators could make copies of the textbook and bind them so that they can have many textbooks in place. However, this cannot be done in schools but at regional offices where they have bigger printing capacity.

Question 9: *While I was observing you during your lessons you were employing two and more languages interchangeably. How should the policymakers include your practice in emerging appropriate language policy?*

Educator A	Policymakers need to make a policy that integrates English at least from Grade 0-3.
Educator B	I think policymakers should include all two languages early in children's learning and teaching so that we don't face problems in the transition.

The responses to question 9 indicate that both educators want policymakers to introduce English early on in students' education so that they won't struggle once they transition in Grade 4. This is feasible if policy makers design a policy that includes English, at least the basics, in the foundation phase. It has to be reflected in the curriculum and textbooks, as well as the educators' training programme to make sure that educators are re-trained on how to teach English in the foundation phase. For this to work out, policymakers must design a policy for students at least to learn English or to allow for code-switching in classrooms, rather than mandate English as the language of instruction from Grade 0-3.

Heugh (2002) has always argued strongly against the over-hasty introduction of English, where it is not known to the community. Heugh (2002:182) cautions that any "educational policy which deprives children of their mother tongue during education particularly in an environment characterised by social marginalisation, cultural alienation and economic stress as is true for many communities in Africa, will produce an unnecessary high rate of emotional and socio-cultural cripples who are retarded in their cognitive development and deficient in terms of psychological stability". The researcher agrees with Heugh's findings, as it is hard to introduce a not-well known

language in the system based on the following reasons: (1) Students will find second language acquisition challenging when they are more proficient in their home language, and (2) This will put students at a disadvantage as it will reduce the students' learning period in a language, they are able to fully understand. Since many students' home language is not Silozi, they are already deprived of home language instruction regardless of English.

Question 10: *What challenges does the Namibian language in education policy have regarding the transition phase in Grade 4?*

Educator A	We are not trained on how to deal with students during the transition. English is a difficult subject for me.
Educator B	No policy awareness from the Ministry of Education. I went through the old education system, before independence when the medium of instruction was Afrikaans.

The response in question 10 shows that the two educators are not adequately prepared to deal with the transition in Grade 4. Not only do students face challenges of English proficiency, educators themselves feel inadequate in their knowledge of this language as there were no workshops that were conducted by policy makers or officials from the Ministry of Education to sensitise them on the transition phase. One educator indicated that this contrasted with the practice under the old system concerning Afrikaans as LoLT.

#### **4.6 CHALLENGES FACED BY EDUCATORS AND STUDENTS DURING THE TRANSITION PHASE**

The findings of the responses of the interviews are deliberated with regards to what has already been deliberated in Chapter 2 in the literature review and topics that arise. The interviews responded to sub-research question 2 and 3 and this correlates with code-switching data in sub-research question 1. The discussions are divided into themes and subthemes.

##### **4.6.1 Students' linguistic underpreparedness**

The research findings show that students were educated in their first language, which is Silozi from Grade 0-3 and English was instructed as a subject. For this reason, students transition to Grade 4 with less than basic knowledge of English, entailing a critically underdeveloped CALP. The sudden change to a new LOLT impacts teaching and learning. As a former educator, we used to introduce English in the Foundation phase by means of simple songs, reciting poems and less writing

without purposeful progress. Less English was introduced and more mother tongue as it was the medium of teaching. Therefore, the researcher is not blaming students or making excuses for their underpreparedness. However, they currently have to fit into a policy that doesn't seem viable considering the country's language context.

Classroom observations and interviews confirmed that students' limited vocabulary prompted educators to revert to Silozi their first language in Grade 4 for explanations when a need arose. Students could not comfortably give well-constructed responses in English and they struggled to provide coherent answers, but they could do so when they code-switched to Silozi. I observed that few students could give answers in English immediately, sometimes the whole class would keep quiet when called upon (see Excerpt 1). Students' self-esteem faded visibly whenever they struggled to express themselves. They kept quiet but responded eagerly once teachers rephrased the same question in Silozi. It's possible to improve students' underpreparedness if educators can use code-switching as a coping mechanism in their classrooms. By this I mean that students can be helped to comprehend the content thus endorsing the continued use of Silozi after transitioning. Once the students transition to Grade 4, the educators must first teach the basic terminology to help students cope with the transition. Although this is time consuming, this strategy can help them with students' challenges.

#### **4.6.2 Shortage of teaching and scholarship materials**

There was a lack of textbooks in the school under investigation. Educators and students relied on copies from the textbooks for them to impart and acquire knowledge. This was an additional burden for educators who have other administrative duties besides teaching. Article 20 of the Namibian Constitution states that all Namibians should have the opportunity for schooling and the government shall deliver reasonable services to render operative teaching (MEC, 1993). The researcher believes that Article 20 is contravened as the Ministry of Education does not provide for this necessity as it was observed that the student textbook ratio was 1:6 in the classrooms observed.

The educator reminded the researcher during interviews of students picking fights with others during textbooks distribution (see Excerpt 4) and this was often disruptive at times. It must be noted that these classrooms were overcrowded, as the situation was 1:50 which is above the stipulated teacher-learner ratio of 1:35. This made the teaching and learning environment difficult as students had to share textbooks under these circumstances. The findings replicate the studies of other scholars such

as Wolfaardt (2001) and Holmarsdottir (2000) who emphasised the scarcity of textbooks in schools in Namibia during their investigation. The lack of resources has a detrimental consequence on the student's performance during the transition phase.

Gacheche (2010:44) points out that the challenge of lack of instructional materials hampers education because student performance is poor in government schools compared to their peers in private schools. Gacheche's finding is echoed by the Natural Science educator, who highlighted the fact that government schools had a shortfall of teaching and learning facilities while the private schools had good well-resourced facilities. When the students transition from the foundation phase to the intermediate phase, they require adequate and appropriate resources such as textbooks, teaching aids, and support materials to make it a success.

However, the implementation of the language policy was carried out despite insufficient supply of both trained educators and materials which makes it challenging to reach the objectives and purposes the programme intended. The similarities of this situation are found in the Töttemeyer's (2009:10) report, which says that the "adoption of English as LOLT was not well-thought-out because the Namibian government introduced it in schools from grade 4-12" without giving adequate time to give appropriate and relevant instruction and scholarship resources. This disparity was hindering teaching and scholarship, hence should be attended to by stakeholders in education. Furthermore, Makoni & Pennycook (1993) state that the language policy can be carried out if the state is capable of delivering essential stock that educators can access in schools. This implies that the MoE should deliver appropriate instructional resources for learners to acquire the language.

#### **4.6.3 Limited exposure to the target language**

The findings indicate that the level of English proficiency of both educators and students was problematic, not in themselves, but for the expected level of English to carry through the transition to a monolingual English medium. The educators said that students lack proficiency in English because it was their second or third language. However, having a language as a second and third language doesn't necessarily mean that one lacks proficiency in the language. It depends on the language's availability in the "environment". The educators reminded the researcher of the students' limited vocabulary during classroom observations because it hindered participation and prompted educators to use Silozi their first language. The researcher agrees with the educator on the use of the L1

because the transition takes place too early, therefore it is expected that students would still need scaffolding and to make errors as the transition won't happen instantly or overnight.

Brock-Utne (2001) highlights the fact that less inhabitants of the country were English L1 speakers when the language was given the official status. This implies that most of the population were second or third language speakers of English and this was the source of educators' and students' problems with English. The finding corresponds with the NSA (2016) which mentioned that teachers performed unsatisfactorily in the English language proficiency test, which was written nationwide, and the study hoped to predict how students were going to perform in the future under these educators. This implies that the proficiency of the educators has a heavy impact on the readiness of students for a challenging transition in Grade 4. The outcomes were similar with those of Wolfaardt (2001) and ELTDP (2000) who recognised the fact that the educator's ability for language usage was of a low standard, making them to switch to the first language to elucidate the terms to students as they don't comprehend in English.

#### **4.7 CHALLENGES OF THE NAMIBIAN LANGUAGE POLICY ABOUT THE TRANSITION PHASE IN GRADE 4**

In this section I will concentrate on the challenges of the Language in Education Policy that emerged during the interviews with the educators and these are discussed in connection with the literature review in Chapter 2.

##### **4.7.1 Shortage of educator training during the transition**

The problem of educator preparation was noted by Holmarsdottir (2000) who insists that without training, the effective "implementation of the language policy" is impeded. This suggests that educators should be taught and trained on how to employ code-switching effectively during the transition. The findings show that one educator went through the old education system before Namibia became a self-governing country and Afrikaans was the medium of education. The educator needed guidance in all aspects of the interviews as she lacked proficiency in English. Pretorius & Machet (2004) believe that educators are the main "actors in the development and application of education policies and as such they must be empowered for them to play that role".

#### **4.7.2 Insufficient policy awareness**

The research findings show that the Natural Science educator was not well aware of the Namibian Language in Education Policy, and although she knew that the medium of instruction is English, she has never read the policy before. The other educator was acquainted with the policy but she not sure if she had read it. This is an indication that stakeholders in education such as Subject advisors and Head of Departments were not executing their job fully as it was their responsibility to conduct workshops and training to familiarise educators with the policy content once they are appointed. These are the right people who should work closely with the educator at the school and regional level when it comes to that particular subject. The researcher realised that the educators were not aware of the provisions given to them during the transition, that the L1 was used for clarifications, translations and comprehension.

The researcher realised that educators at times were not utilising the provisions afforded to them by the language policy because they are less knowledgeable with the document and as such, they were using the L1 minimally. Article 3.2 of the Namibian Constitution states that “nothing encompassed in this constitution shall forbid the usage of any other as a medium of education in private schools or schools financed by the State, subject to compliance with such requirements as may be imposed by law, to confirm proficiency in the official language, or for educational motives”. This was echoed by the MEC (1993) who adds that learners should be educated in their first language in their early years of education from Grade 1-3 in order for them to attain the basic skills of reading, writing and concept formation; Grade 4 is the transitional year in which the first language plays a supportive role in teaching. When educators are cognizant with the policy, it can be effectively realised as they are policy implementers in schools. Uys (2010) observed that the situation can be tackled through the successful transmission to be undertaken by the Education Ministry to raise awareness of Language in policy in all 14 directorates of education in Namibia.

#### **4.7.3 Time and age to transition to English as the medium of instruction**

The findings indicate that educators had different opinions when it comes to the time and age to transition from the foundation phase to the intermediate phase. Educator A suggested that the transition should be transferred to Grade 5 and not Grade 4. The suggestion contrasts with the present Namibian educational system which follows an early-exit language programme, but during the actual application, it was supposed to follow a late-exit language programme (MEC, 1993). This implies that students were supposed to transition to English medium of instruction in Grade 5 and not Grade 4. Cummins (2000) argues that early departure to English has led to students “performing

poorly as they would not have had adequately mastered English nor the central concepts that they should grasp” in their first language. The findings concur with the MEC (1993) and Cummins (2000), who suggest that students’ first language Silozi was not well developed as it was not their home language. Students employ the local language as an "aid" (or language learning tool) to help them communicate in the language they're still learning. In Excerpt 1, a student used Silozi when she didn’t know the names of traditional foods in English during the classroom observations. In addition, educators employ "scaffolding" (or language teaching tools via repetition, paraphrasing etc) to help the students to learn, for example in Excerpt 7 and 8 for educational purposes which implied that code-switching was employed to build up vocabulary for students.

Nevertheless, worldwide the tendency is to depart from first “language-based education prematurely and to fast track change to English or another additional dominant language” (Broom, 2004:506). This phenomenon is not different in Namibia where students make the transition first to Silozi (where Silozi is not their home language) and then to English as LoLT in Grade 4 (8-9 years of age). In excerpt 9, this was the educator's way of facilitating interactive learning by linking Silozi and English together and by reiteration to assist students in the transition phase.

#### **4.8 Conclusion**

This section analysed and discussed the data emanating from classroom observation and interviews of the school under investigation. The findings link with the literature review in Chapter 2. The chapter discussed the types, structures and functions of code-switching, the challenges that educators and students faced in using English as the language of teaching and learning in the transition phase and lastly the challenges of the Namibian language in education policy regarding the transition decision. The next chapter summarises, make some recommendations, further studies and concludes.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, recommendations and conclusions with reference to the data presented in Chapter 4. The summary highlights the three research questions that directed the present investigation. The recommendations build on the results that emanate from the classroom observations and interviews. Before the conclusion, the study indicates avenues for further study.

#### 5.2 Summary of the study

The summary of the study is deliberated in relation to the subsequent research questions of the study:

In reference to the **first research question** which sought to find out the types, structures and roles of code-switching in Grade 4 bilingual classrooms. The data collected showed that educators employed three different types of code-switching which are situational, educational and interpersonal code-switching, for pedagogical, teaching and social reasons during classroom interaction. The study further revealed that when situational code-switching was used, the circumstances didn't change, but the language changed due to the situations the educators were dealing with such as classroom management. Secondly, it was revealed that educators employed educational code-switching during the study in order to explain the subject content to students as they were beginners and could not comprehend or grasp the content. Thirdly, interpersonal code-switching was employed for social reasons such as to show solidarity or group affiliation with students. Therefore, code-switching was utilised as a communication strategy or pedagogic tool.

In addition, it was revealed that three structures of code-switching were employed during classroom observation by educators and students. The first structure was intra-sentential code-switching, and this entails that the switch happens at the clause, phrase or even word level within the same utterance. The second structure was inter-sentential code-switching, which involved switches by educators and students at the clause level or boundary. This implies that a switch happens after a sentence in the language has been finished and the next sentence commence with the new language. These sorts of interjections are common in classrooms and the educator needed to address it directly as it takes place as can be seen in Chapter 4. The last structure of code-switching was tag-switching, where it was revealed that educators introduced a tag at the end of the sentences to communicate a

specific meaning, prove a point, to show repetition or to direct hearers' attention. This type of switching was rarely used.

The study further revealed that educators employed code-switching in their classrooms for roles such as to encourage students to participate in the classroom. A similar finding was arrived at by Hymes ((2006) who maintains that for teaching and learning to take place both educators and students have to take part either by being the hearer or the speaker. This means that both participants have to engage fully in lessons. Apart from participation, the study revealed that educators used code-switching for explanation, clarification and for translation purposes as they wanted students to understand and comprehend unfamiliar words. Canagarajah (1995) also acknowledges the significance of "code-switching as a resource for effective teaching and learning" concepts that were hard or unfamiliar to the students. Furthermore, the findings showed that educators employed code-switching to maintain discipline in the classroom. The switch to the mutual language was to draw the student's attention. Adendorff (1993) states that educators utilise "code-switching" as a resource to get students' immediate attention and to exercise classroom management. Lastly, the study revealed that the educators employed code-switching to show solidarity. This implies that rapport was created when an educator switched to the different languages of the students as this made them feel free to participate and they felt a sense of belonging or group affiliation. Probyn (2004:50) suggests that "where educators and students share a common home language, educators tend to switch to the students' home language" for solidarity.

The **second research question** that this study sought to answer was the challenges faced by educators and students regarding English as the medium of instruction during the transition phase in Grade 4. The study revealed that the transition from mother tongue to English as LoLT can be challenging for students as they were underprepared and had less knowledge of English as they were still beginners. It was expected that all students would have some command of English when they transition. This prompted educators to use code-switching in their classroom in different circumstances such as for the explanation of concepts, clarifications and translations. The findings in the current study indicate that both educators and students lack proficiency in English the second language. During classroom observations and interviews it became clear to the researcher that both educators and students had challenges which stemmed from sentence construction and vocabulary. It must be noted in this study that English is not the learner's first or home language, but it is the second or third language respectively. The educators also revealed that they went through the

previous schooling system when Afrikaans was the medium of instructions; therefore, they are struggling with English as well. The study further revealed that students transition to English as the medium of instruction too early, and this has resulted in students underperforming as they had not sufficiently mastered English or the central concepts that they should grasp in their mother tongue. It is contended that Namibian students' CALP in their L1 is "also not highly developed, thus creating a problem in developing" the CALP in an additional language which is the language of education (MEC, 2003).

The **third research question** sought to find out the challenges educators face in implementing the Namibian language in education policy during the transition phase. The study revealed that educators in this study had insufficient training from the Ministry of Education regarding the language policy used in schools. The topic of educator training as also noted by Holmarsdottir (2000) is still challenging as it affects the effective execution of the language policy. The other findings revealed that educators had inadequate policy cognizance. Policy awareness helps to make educators aware of the nature of the language policy and its role in teaching and scholarship. The research results show that the educators were not well cognizant with the Namibian language in Education Policy and although they knew that the medium of instruction was English, they had never read it before or did not remember it well. It is the obligation of the Ministry to lead workshops and training to familiarise educators with the policy content.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

The following recommendations emanate from the findings of this study:

- Policymakers must take note of the following statement: their function is to draw the policies and educators are the implementers of the language policy drawn by them on behalf of the government. This means that policymakers must involve educators when developing the policies and ensure that educators are trained in policy.
- The study revealed that most students in the Zambezi Region are not instructed in their mother tongue but rather in Silozi, the lingua Franca of the Zambian origin. Educators in this study suggested that the orthography of two common languages such as Subiya and Sifwe must be developed.

- Educators must be given a pre-service and in-service training by the Ministry of Education on how to deal with code-switching or formulate a language policy that includes code-switching since it is considered a powerful teaching tool during the transition phase.
- Teaching and learning material resource shortages within schools should be addressed by the Ministry of Education.
- The current language in education or implementation should be examined to establish if it follows the early or late exit language as this can cause a problem/confusion.

#### **5.4 Possible direction for future research.**

- Research is needed to investigate whether the usage of L1 by both educators and students is preventing students' development of L2 proficiency.
- Furthermore, research is needed to determine the effect of CS use on the learner's educational performance.
- A similar study can be conducted nation-wide, extending to other region to gain a wider perspective of the code-switching phenomenon in the transition phase.

#### **5.5 Conclusion**

The present study investigated the way the Namibian language policy for teaching is used during the intermediate phase and the function that code-switching has in realizing it. The first research question of the study identified the types, structures and roles of code-switching in Grade 4 bilingual classrooms. In order to answer the research question, the researcher used the literature review in Chapter 2 (See 2.2-2.5.2) on the code-switching phenomenon from different scholars and it was aligned with the selected theoretical framework that guided the study (See 2.8). Data was collected with the help of classroom observations which data was later translated and transcribed. Lastly, data was analysed and discussed linguistically into themes and sub-themes in Chapter 4 of the study (See 4.2-4.4). The research questions were fully answered as all the chapters were linked together from the introduction, literature review, research methods, discussion and conclusion of the study.

The second research question sought to establish the challenges faced by educators and students regarding English as the medium of instruction during the transition phase in Grade 4 and the third research question sought to find out the challenges educators face in implementing the Namibian language in education policy during the transition phase. These two questions required the researcher

to do follow-up interviews with the two educators she had observed during classroom observations. The researcher used triangulation of different policy documents (see 1.2.4-1.2.5) and linked it with the literature review (see 2.6-2.7) to complement the findings of the interviews. The research question was fully answered.

This research is significant as the problem investigated was researchable, achievable and evidently addressed relevant issue of code-switching in the Zambezi region of Namibia. Furthermore, this study developed the researchers' own learning and research skills both in her academic life and beyond. Moreover, the findings of the study confirmed the existing theory of Vygotsky (Scaffolding) as this theory allowed the educators to know the students' ZPD, encouraged group work, and student took an active role in their own learning. In addition, Myers-Scotton's Markedness Model assumes a high level of bilingualism which educators and students don't hold, but still the Markedness Model was confirmed with the existing theory as it was used to categorise and clarify the diverse structures of code-switching that are utilised in school situations.

However, code-switching is predominant in schools in spite of being frowned against it: so, the question is that why don't we take advantage of this practice to benefit our students in schools? In the future, the researcher hopes this study will lead to a platform for researchers to further investigate this transitional phase, including educators from other regions of the country.

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## Appendix A: UCT Approval to Conduct Research



### **LINGUISTICS SECTION SCHOOL OF AFRICAN & GENDER STUDIES, ANTHROPOLOGY & LINGUISTICS (AXL)**

**Mr Sean Bowerman**

Room 13 AC Jordan Building, University of Cape Town, Private Bag X3, Rondebosch,  
7701, South Africa

Tel: 021 650 3137/2847 Email: [Sean.Bowerman@uct.ac.za](mailto:Sean.Bowerman@uct.ac.za)

Fax: 086 512 8036 Website: [www.uct.ac.za](http://www.uct.ac.za)

22 April 2019

To whom it may concern

**Ethics Clearance for Judith Namubi Kela (KLXNAM001)**

**Working title: Language Development in the Namibian Classroom:  
a study of the use of Silozi and English**

This is to confirm that Judith Kela is a Masters student in the Linguistics Section, under the supervision of Prof. Rajend Mesthrie and Dr Ellen Hurst. Her research meets the ethics requirements laid down by the Faculty of Humanities at the University of Cape Town.

Please contact me if you need any further information.

Regards

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'SB', with a horizontal line extending to the right.

Sean Bowerman

Chair: Ethics Subcommittee, Linguistics

## **Appendix B: Permission letter to the Director of Education**

P. O. Box 2367  
Ngweze  
Namibia  
7 May 2019

The Regional Director  
Zambezi Education Region  
Private Bag 5006  
Katima Mulilo  
Namibia

The Director

### **Request for permission to observe English and Natural Science lesson presentations at Gabriel Mubita Primary School (pseudonym) in the Zambezi Region (Research Study).**

I, Judith Kela, a Master's student at the University of Cape Town, South Africa, am hereby requesting for permission to conduct a research study at the above-mentioned school in June 2019.

As indicated earlier the objective of my study is to investigate or carry out a study on the **“The Namibian transitional language policy in education and the role of code switching in achieving it.”** Learners perform poorly in Grade 4 and this can be attributed to the changing of one medium of instruction to another. My research will involve conducting classroom observations and interviews with Grade 4 educators observed. I will adhere to the ethical code of conduct stipulated by University of Cape Town. All participants' privacy will be protected, no identities will be revealed, and participation is completely voluntarily. Participants may withdraw from the research at any time without any consequences. Lastly no harm will be inflicted on anybody in any way.

It is envisaged that this study might be of benefit to both schools and the Education Directorate as it will help reveal pedagogical and non-pedagogical practices that could affect Grade 4 student's successful transition from mother tongue education to English as LoLT. I will therefore share my recommendation emanating from this research with all the stakeholders involved. Your co-operation in this regard will be highly appreciated. Should you have any queries, please don't hesitate to contact me at 081338151 (Email: [judithkela52@gmail.com](mailto:judithkela52@gmail.com)) or my main supervisor Assoc. Prof Ellen Hurst (Email: [ellen.hurst@uct.ac.za](mailto:ellen.hurst@uct.ac.za)) or core supervisor Prof Rajend Mesthrie (Email: [rajend.mesthrie@uct.ac.za](mailto:rajend.mesthrie@uct.ac.za))

Yours faithfully

Judith Namubi Kela (Researcher)

**Appendix C: Letter from the Director of Education**



**REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA  
ZAMBEZI REGIONAL COUNCIL**



Tel: +26466261902 962

Fax: +26466253187

Enquiries: Robert N Mabuku

Ngoma Road

Govt Building

Our Ref: 13/2/9/1

Private Bag 5006

Katima Mulilo, Namibia

PO Box 2367  
Ngweze  
Namibia

Dear Ms Judith Namubi Kela,

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO OBSERVE ENGLISH AND NATURAL SCIENCE  
LESSON PRESENTATION AT [REDACTED] PRIMARY SCHOOL [REDACTED] IN  
THE ZAMBEZI REGION**

Your letter to the office of the Regional Director: Zambezi Region dated 07 May 2019 with the caption request for permission to observe English and Natural Science lesson presentation at [REDACTED] Primary School [REDACTED] in Zambezi Region was received.

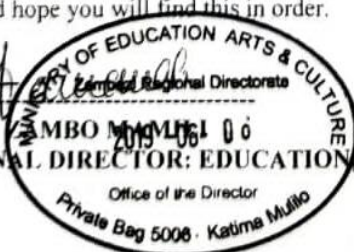
Kindly be informed that approval is granted to you to conduct a research as requested, but let me draw your attention to the following aspects: **NOTE!**

- The granted approval should not disrupt the normal teaching and learning at this school you intend visiting.
- You are therefore, requested to share your findings with the Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture.

**By copy of this letter Inspector of Education concerned is notified accordingly of your presence in this school.**

I trust and hope you will find this in order.

*[Signature]*  
MS JOY ZAMBO MAMVITSI O O  
REGIONAL DIRECTOR: EDUCATION, ARTS AND CULTURE



## **Appendix D: Letter to the School Principal**

P.O. Box 2367

Ngweze

Namibia

07 May 2019

The Principal

Dear Sir/Madam

### **Application for permission to conduct research study at your school.**

I, Judith Kela, hereby requesting permission to conduct research study at Gabriel Mubita Primary School (pseudonym) in June 2019. As a second year Masters' student in Linguistics at the University of Cape Town, South Africa, this research is conducted towards the completion of my studies. My topic of study is on **“The Namibian transitional language policy in education and the role of code switching in achieving it”**

This research site was chosen based on the following reasons: Learners at your school are taught in mother tongue from Grade 1-3 and when they reach Grade 4, they transition to English as the medium of instruction. This school is one of the oldest in Zambezi region, and I believe that your teachers have more years of teaching experience and will provide their knowledge immensely towards my study. Please be informed that this is not a commission of inquiry to make judgement on teacher's performance or teaching. I will be a passive participant who will take field notes while teachers and your learners are busy in class. The code of conduct as stipulated by University of Cape Town will be followed to protect the humans who will participate in my study. All the participants will be asked to complete a consent form and are guaranteed utmost confidentiality and anonymity. I will also strictly adhere to school rules and regulations. Where participants want to withdraw s/he will be free to do so. The research instrument will include classroom observation, audio and one video-recording of Grade 4 lessons in English and Natural Science as well as in-depth interview with the teachers observed.

Should you have any queries, please don't hesitate to contact me at 081338151 (Email: [judithkela52@gmail.com](mailto:judithkela52@gmail.com)) or my main supervisor Assoc. Prof Ellen Hurst (Email: [ellen.hurst@uct.ac.za](mailto:ellen.hurst@uct.ac.za)) or core supervisor Prof Rajend Mesthrie (Email: [rajend.mesthrie@uct.ac.za](mailto:rajend.mesthrie@uct.ac.za)).

Yours faithfully

Judith Namubi Kela (Researcher)

**Appendix E: Letter from the Principal**



PRIMARY SCHOOL  
Private Bag 1033, Katima Mulilo, Namibia  
Tele /Fax: +264 66 253291 Email: \_\_\_\_\_@gmail.com

Enquiries: \_\_\_\_\_ Cell: +264 81 388 \_\_\_\_\_ June 10, 2019

**TO:**

**Judith Namubi Kela  
Researcher**

**SUBJECT: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY.**

This letter bears reference to the subject matter above, in reference to your letter dated the 10<sup>th</sup> of May 2019 in which you wrote to request for permission to conduct a research study at this school.

This letter gives you the permission to go ahead and conduct your research study at the school, just note that your research study should not in any way disturb our normal teaching schedule.

I hope and wish your research will be of benefit to our school in the near future.

Wishing you all the best.

Your Sincerely

**Mrs. \_\_\_\_\_ [School Principal]**



## **Appendix F: Letter to the Educators**

P. O. Box 2367  
Ngweze  
Namibia  
07 May 2019

### **The Educator**

Dear Sir/ Madam

### **Invitation to Participate in a Voluntary and Confidential (Masters) Research**

I am currently a second year Masters' student in Linguistics at the University of Cape Town, South Africa. My topic of study is on **“The Namibian transitional language policy in education and the role of code switching in achieving it.”**

I have chosen you as Grade 4 teachers because you are compatible candidates and experienced and therefore you will add your expertise to my research study. Please note that this is not an evaluation of performance or competence of your teaching skills and by no means is it a commission of inquiry. I will adhere to the ethical code of conduct stipulated by University of Cape Town. Your personal identity, participation and responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality and anonymity throughout the study. Participants may withdraw from the research at any time without any consequences. Lastly no harm will be inflicted on anybody in any way.

Your co-operation in this regard will be highly appreciated. Should you have any queries, please don't hesitate to contact me at 08133815/1 (Email: [judithkela52@gmail.com](mailto:judithkela52@gmail.com)) or my main supervisor Assoc. Prof Ellen Hurst (Email: [ellen.hurst@uct.ac.za](mailto:ellen.hurst@uct.ac.za)) or core supervisor Prof Rajend Mesthrie (Email: [rajendmesthrie@uct.ac.za](mailto:rajendmesthrie@uct.ac.za)).

Yours faithfully

Judith Namubi Kela (Researcher)

**Appendix G: Letter from the Educators**



PRIMARY SCHOOL  
Private Bag , Katima Mulilo, Namibia  
Tele /Fax: +264 Email:

11 June 2019

Miss Judith Kela  
P.O Bo 2367  
Ngweze  
Namibia  
Cell: 264 813381951

Dear Madam

**RE: LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE**

Your letter backdated 7 May 2019 requesting us to be observed during our lesson presentations and interviewed in June 2019 has been approved. We are willing to participate in your study.

Thanks for the invitation.

Your faithfully,

Signed: \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_



Signed: \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix H: Informed Consent Letter for Parents/Guardians**

P. O. Box 2367  
Ngweze  
Namibia  
7 May 2019

**Dear Parent /Guardian**

I, Judith Namubi Kela a Masters’ student from the University of Cape Town seeking your permission to consent your child to be observed and videoed in a research which will be conducted in his/her Grade 4 classroom. This research forms are part of my study which aims to investigate classroom observation and video recording will only take place in June 2019.

**To make decision on whether your child will participate, there are things you should know:**

- Your child does not have to participate in the study, only if you want him/her to.
- If you decide yes, and later change your mind, you are free to withdraw your child.
- The pictures and video information gathered during the observation will be used only for study purposes.
- We cannot give you or your child material help or money; participation is voluntary. However, the result obtained from this study is expected to inform policy reform which may improve learning difficulties experienced by your child and other learners.
- Your child will not be asked any question and will not be harmed in any way during the observation.

**If you want your child to be present in Grade 4 classroom where the observation and video recording will take place, please sign and write your name below:**

I understand the research process and what will be required of my child, and I consented voluntarily for my child to be observed and videoed.

Names.....Signature.....Date: .....

## **Appendix I: Interview Schedule Questions**

### **1. Linguistic Profile of educators**

- 1.1 How old are you?
- 1.2 How long have you been teaching in the transitional phase?
- 1.3 What is your home language?
- 1.4 What qualification do you have and which subjects do you teach?

### **2. Linguistic preference**

- 2.1 Which language do you prefer using for LoLT and why do you code-switch in the classroom?
- 2.2 What is the purpose of using Silozi in the English medium of instruction classes?
- 2.3 What are the circumstances of such a switch in the classroom?

### **3. Transition challenges**

- 3.1 Do you think communication challenges are holding back students from participating in your class? Why?
- 3.2 What is the development of the student's first language Silozi?

### **4. Language policy development challenges**

- 4.1 Are you conversant with the Namibian language in education policy and what is the medium of instruction in Grade 4?
- 4.2 If there were to change the Namibian language in education policy for schools. What suggestion can you suggest for policymakers to prepare a suitable policy?
- 4.3 Is there enough teaching and learning materials supplied by the Ministry of Education for LoLT during the transition?
- 4.4 While I was observing you during your lessons you were employing two and more languages interchangeably, how should the policymakers include your practice in emerging appropriate language policy?
- 4.5 What challenges does the Namibian language in education policy have regarding the transition phase in Grade 4?

## **Appendix J: Classroom Observation Sheet**

### 1. Language utilised by educators

- For teaching, social and pedagogical reasons in general
- Asking questions and giving feedback to the students

### 2. Language utilised by students

- When responding and asking questions
- Among the students

### 3. Types of code-switches that occurred during interaction with student's e.g.

- Educational, situational or interpersonal code-switching.

### 4. Structures of code-switching observed e.g.

- Intra-sentential, tag-switching or inter-sentential code-switching

### 5. Roles of educator's code-switching during observations e.g.

- Encourage participation
- Show Solidarity
- Translate
- Classroom management purposes
- Repetition
- Scaffoldings
- Explanation and clarifying the subject matter



**FACULTY OF HUMANITIES**  
**DECLARATION FORM - MASTERS DEGREE CANDIDATES**

<b>Name</b>	JUDITH KELA		
<b>Student No:</b>	KLXNAM001		
<b>Tel numbers:</b>	+264 813381951		
<b>Email address:</b>	judithkela52@gmail.com		
<b>Word count</b>	29973 (excl. appendix and references)	<b>No. of pages</b>	110
<b>DECLARATION:</b>			
<p>1. I am presenting this dissertation in PARTIAL fulfilment of the requirements for my degree.</p> <p>2. I know the meaning of plagiarism and declare that all of the work in the dissertation, save for that which is properly acknowledged, is my own.</p> <p>3. I hereby grant the University of Cape Town free licence to reproduce for the purpose of research either the whole or any portion of the contents in any manner whatsoever of the above dissertation.</p>			
<b>Signature</b>	Signed by candidate		<b>Date:</b> 3/12/2021

**1. IMPORTANT NOTES**

- 1.1 Candidates for graduation in June and December may expect to receive notification of the outcome of the examination of the dissertation not later than 1<sup>st</sup> week in June and last week in November, respectively, provided the dissertation was submitted by the due date. The University does not, however, undertake to reach a decision by any specific date.
- 1.2 Candidates who are required to revise and re-submit for re-examination are required to register during the revision phase. Fees will be calculated according to the date of the notification of the "revise and re-submit" result and the date of re-submission. [The Faculty will advise the Fees Office of the final result.]
- 1.3 Candidates are asked to note that the University will not permit degree/diploma qualifiers to graduate if they have any outstanding fees, fines, interest or dues. **The final date for payment of outstanding amounts is 30 April for June graduation and 31 October for December graduation.**
- 1.4 Please note that should your examination process run into the following year, you will have to re-register in order to be considered for graduation.

**2 ETHICAL CLEARANCE:**

<b>Please indicate whether you have obtained ethics clearance for your thesis research by placing a tick (X) in the appropriate box and appending the required documentation.</b>	
1. I hereby declare that I obtained ethics approval for my thesis research and that the research conducted meets the appropriate ethical standards outlined by the University of Cape Town.  I attach the ethics clearance as evidence of this approval.	<b>X</b>
2. I hereby declare that ethics approval was not required for my thesis research.  I attach a signed letter of confirmation that ethics clearance was not required for my thesis research.	
<b>Signature</b>	Signed by candidate
<b>Date:</b>	3/12/2021

**3. FUNDING AND FEES:**

Candidates submitting have 2 options with regard to fees and funding if in 2<sup>nd</sup> or subsequent year of registration for minor dissertation. Please indicate your preference by placing a tick in the appropriate box:

2.1 Not applicable as <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• First year of registration for minor dissertation. No rebate applies (see Fees Rule 8.1)</li> <li>• Handing-in after last date for fee rebate (see deadline dates Fees rule 8.2)</li> </ul>			
2.2 If registered for the 2nd or subsequent year in which the thesis is being completed you can claim a fee rebate and discontinue funding (if applicable) through the PGFO. Please note that physical and library access will be cancelled. If you stay on in the department and receive payment through the payroll, such payment is taxable.	<b>X</b>		
2.3 To remain registered and engaged in the department while writing up a paper for publication with full student rights and access to facilities. You will be liable for the fees for the year and continued eligibility for funding already awarded for that academic year. Access will extend only until such time as you graduate. Should you need access beyond this, you will need to arrange for 3rd party access within your department.			
Signature	Signed by candidate	Date:	3/12/2021

**4. International Student's Declaration**

International students must please indicate whether you will be leaving South Africa after the submission of your thesis for examination by placing a tick (X) in the appropriate box and appending the required documentation.			
1. I hereby declare that I will be leaving South Africa after submitting my thesis for examination.	<b>X</b>		
2. I hereby declare that I will not be leaving South Africa after submitting my thesis for examination.			
Signature	Signed by candidate	Date:	3/12/2021

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CX

*by Judith Kela*

---

**Submission date:** 27-Nov-2021 12:15PM (UTC+0200)

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**A study of the Namibian transitional language policy in education and the role of  
code-switching in achieving it**

A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the  
degree of *Master of Arts in Linguistics*

by

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