International Journal of Arts Humanities and Social Sciences
Volume 2 Issue 5 ǁ June 2017.
www.ijahss.com

Effects of First Language on Performance in Kiswahili in Public Secondary Schools in Kericho West Sub-County

SimiyuMubuya Peter

ABSTRACT : Language is an important way for us to make sense out of our past experience, to learn from it, and to make it comprehensible. There is no simple way to explain why some students are successful at second-language learning and some are not. In Kericho West Sub-County, students' performance in Kiswahili has not been satisfactory. This is evidenced from the release of KCSE examination results for the past three years. The purpose of this study was to assess the influence of first language on learning Kiswahili in public secondary schools in Kericho West Sub-County. Specifically, the study sought to identify various programmes which have been put in place for promoting the use of Kiswahili; to examine the school policies and regulations on the use of first language in public secondary schools; to establish how the use of first language affects performance in Kiswahili in public secondary schools in Kericho West Sub-County, and to identify the challenges facing the use of Kiswahili in secondary schools. The study used Krashen's theory of Second Language Acquisition in order to determine the effect that the first language has on performance of Kiswahili. The study adopted descriptive survey design in order to achieve its objectives. The target population for the study included 34 secondary schools, 99 teachers, 1575 studentsand 34 heads of department of Kiswahili. However, 30% of the schools were used. Stratified and simple random sampling procedures were used to select a sample of 210 students, 24 teachers and 10 HODs. The study used questionnaire as the main instrument of collecting data from respondents. Data was analyzed descriptively with the help of a statistical package for social science (SPSS) software. It was then summarized into tables, figures and graphs for easy interpretation and understanding. The study found that majority of teachers (61%) and of students (62%) said that teaching and learning materials for Kiswahili were not adequate. According to 54% of students who participated in the study, the school management does not fully support various functions like symposia and seminars which are aimed at promoting Kiswahili.It was further established that 52% of teachers and 57% of students said that teachers of Kiswahili in most cases arenot rewarded for their good performance. Second, it was established that 64% of teachers and 72% of students stated that having policies that guard against students' using the first language in the school was vital. The study further found that 96% of teachers and 82% of students said that school rules prohibiting the use of first language among students were in place. Third, it was established that 66% of teachers and 58% of students agreed that students register poor results in Kiswahili; 58% of teachersagreed that students experience difficulties in speaking fluent Kiswahili even though most students denied the statement, and students experiencing difficulties in writing essays in Kiswahili which was revealed from the essay they were given during data collection were found to be the effects of using first language. Finally, 87% of teachers and 92% of students agreed that lack of enough reading and learning materials, poor management support (71%,) the use of first language (76%), lack of effective policies in acknowledging Kiswahili as a national language (56%) and negative attitudes towards Kiswahili (83%) were identified as challenges affecting performance in Kiswahili. The study recommends that the school management as well as teachers to cooperate in ensuring that the rules are reinforced and implemented. Secondly, school management to ensure that they provide adequate support in order to improve performance of the subject.

I. Introduction

This chapter provides a general overview to the study. It discusses the background information of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study as well as research questions. The chapter also highlights justification of the study, significance of the study, scope and limitation of the study, theoretical and conceptual framework.

Language is part and parcel of human life as it is the most effective means of human communication. Language also necessitates national and international interaction between people. It is common for people to identify with those who speak the same language as themselves (Gathumbi&Masemde, 2005). Apart from being a means of communication, it is also a means of getting education, a career and participating in national building. From the

proliferation of new technology worldwide, the world seems to be getting smaller and smaller (what is popularly known as the global village). This technological knowledge is passed on through language.

Language is an important way for us to make sense out of our past experience, to learn from it, and to make it comprehensible. At the initial stage, children's language growth comes from their direct experience with the social environment. As their language understanding grows, children can relate to ever more expanding situations. This early language experience is necessary to use language symbols apart from actual situations. Children use language metaphorically, providing evidence that for children language is creative as well as imitative (Ekene, 2000). For children, language is a powerful tool for understanding the world around them. By questioning, children become active in their attempt to comprehend and learn (Lindfors, 1991; Winner, McCarthy, Kleinman, & Gardner, 1979).

Acquisition of a second language is often viewed as a process that differs from first language acquisition (Bley-Vroman, 1990), and it is frequently assumed that factors influencing one's ability to acquire a second language (such as motivation) do not play a role in first language development (Dörnyei, 2001). However, it is also well-established that knowledge of a second language impacts the ability to manage information in the first language (Marian & Spivey, 2003), and current cognitive and psycholinguistic models of bilingualism explicitly posit that the two languages interact, even during language-specific processing (Dijkstra& Van Heuven, 2002).

Variability in second-language acquisition has been linked to a number of factors, including Age of L2 acquisition (Hyltenstam&Abramsson, 2003), modes of L2 acquisition (immersion vs. classroom) (Carroll, 1967), length of L2 immersion (Flege, Frieda, &Nozawa, 1997), and extent of daily L2 vs. L1 usage (Jia, Aaronson & Wu, 2002). For instance, Birdsong (2005a) found a robust relationship between the age at which a learner was exposed to L2 and the ultimate L2 attainment level. Certainly, for phonological (Flege, Yeni-Komishian, & Liu, 1999) and morphosyntactic domains, earlier exposure to the L2 yields higher L2 proficiency. While other environmental factors in L2 acquisition have received less attention than age-of-acquisition, there is clear evidence that the degree to which a learner is immersed in L2 (Flege, Yeni-Komishian& Liu, 1999), the extent of L2 exposure (Birdsong, 2005), and extent of on-going L2 use (Flege, MacKay, &Piske, 2002) all influence attained L2 proficiency. These factors may therefore influence performance of Kiswahili which is a second language in the study area.

Regardless of the learning environment, the learner's goal is mastery of the target language. The learner begins the task of learning a second language from point zero (or close to it) and, through the steady accumulation of the mastered entities of the target language, eventually amasses them in quantities sufficient to constitute a particular level of proficiency (Dulay, Burt &Krashen, 1982 and Ellis, 1984). This characterisation of language learning entails the successful mastery of steadily accumulating structural entities and organising this knowledge into coherent structures which lead to effective communication in the target language (Rutherford, 1987).

Kiswahili has admirable value within economic markets. Much trade in the East African region is conducted in Kiswahili. Small-scale enterprises often require lingua francas like Kiswahili to flourish (Webb, 1998). Kiswahili is the social lingua franca of a large part of the Kenyan society at all socio-economic levels (Kimemia, 2001:12). However, for a long time now in Kenya, language policy has come to mean nothing more than political pronouncements, government statements, and recommendations made by Educational Commissions which are rarely implemented.

Kiswahili is the national language and the official language alongside English in Kenya and the most common medium of communication. Both English and Kiswahili languages are taught as compulsory and examinable subjects in primary and secondary schools in Kenya. Unlike English, Kiswahili is not a medium of instruction in the learning institutions in Kenya except in Kiswahili lessons. This makes it have limited time for practice by learners. Kiswahili is the most international of all indigenous languages of Africa (Mazrui&Mazrui, 1995). It is the national language in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania. It is one of the four national languages in Zaire and it is extensively used in Rwanda, Burundi, Zambia, Mozambique and Somalia. More importantly, Kiswahili is one of the working languages of the African Union.

According to Kenya Institute of Education (2007), the objectives of secondary school Kiswahili curriculum in Kenya are to enhance what was learnt at primary level; enable the learners achieve a lasting ability to listen, speak, read and write in Kiswahili; enable them to be creative, analytical and can express themselves in Kiswahili. It is also to identify and take part in seeking for solutions in emerging issues that affect the society such as health, HIV/AIDS, gender, technological development, children's rights and labour issues. Language

learning is closely related to the attitudes of the students towards the language (Starks and Paltridge, 1996). The secondary students are the consumers of Kiswahili curriculum because they are the target audience for the curriculum. Their attitudes towards Kiswahili directly affect their performance and achievement in the subject which ultimately affects the implementation of the curriculum. The Government of Kenya is putting a lot of effort to ensure that there are qualified teachers of Kiswahili to implement the curriculum in secondary schools. In addition, it has also been organizing workshops and seminars for teachers of Kiswahili in conjunction with various textbook publishers. Time allocation for Kiswahili in secondary level has been revised and increased by one to make five in Form 1 and 2 and six in Form 3 and 4 (KIE, 2007). Despite the effort made by the Government of Kenya to improve Kiswahili, the students' performance in Kiswahili has been deteriorating over the years.

Inconsistent Kiswahili language policies have continued to prevail in post-independent Kenya. These inconsistencies have accentuated and contributed to negative attitudes towards teaching and learning of Kiswahili in educational institutions. In the education sector, for example, the Ominde Commission of 1965 first advocated the use of Kiswahili as a compulsory subject in primary schools. Since this Report was compiled, subsequent reports such as National Kiswahili Council-BAKITA (1967) have continued to recommend the teaching of Kiswahili for national integration. In Kericho West Sub-County performance in Kiswahili language in Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCSE) has been unsatisfactory for the past three years as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: KCSE Performance in Kiswahili from the Year 2010-2012

Year	Mean score for Kiswahili (%)
2010	47.6
2011	47.1
2012	46.3

Source: DEO's Office, Kericho (2013)

From Table 1.1, findings show that performance in Kiswahili has been declining from 2010-2012. It is against this backdrop that this study sought to investigate the influence of first language on learning Kiswahili in Kericho West Sub-County.

11 StudyObjective

The main objective of the study was to assess the effects of first language on performance in Kiswahili in public secondary schools in Kericho West Sub-County.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature review is very critical in the current study because it enabled the researcher to identify what other scholars have done in relation to the study topic. This helped in identifying the research gap that the study sought to fill. Review has been done systematically according to the objectives. The first section deals with significance of Kiswahili in national development. The second section looks at the programmes adopted in teaching Kiswahili. The third section looks at the language policy. The fourth section analyses effects of first language on performance of second language while the last section deals with the impact of first language on learning of the second language.

Kiswahili has admirable value within economic markets. Much trade in the East African region is conducted in Kiswahili. Small-scale enterprises often require lingua francas like Kiswahili to flourish (Webb, 1998). Kiswahili is the social lingua franca of a large part of the Kenyan society at all socio-economic levels (Kimemia, 2001:12). However, for a long time now in Kenya, language policy has come to mean nothing more than political pronouncements, government statements, and recommendations made by Educational Commissions which are rarely implemented.

In 1969 for example, the then ruling party, KANU (Kenya African National Union), gave Kiswahili a formal recognition as the national language, therefore taking cognizance of its role in nation building. Yet it was not until 1971 when the language was officially declared the national language of Kenya. The decision of Kenya to use Kiswahili as the national language immediately after independence came as a need to foster human development. This is because Kiswahili is the language of interethnic communication in Kenya where it bridges the linguistic gap between communities. Kiswahili has the oldest uninterrupted history as an African written

language compared to other African languages used in the country. Its written literary history is over a span of almost three centuries. It therefore has a significant role to play in higher education for purposes of equipping trainees and future professionals with communicative skills needed to foster national development (Henson, 2004).

The ideal role of a language in any society is to be able to serve as many of its speakers as possible. Kiswahili can adequately perform this role because it is non-ethnic. This means that as per now, there is no particular community that can claim ownership of this language. Because of this neutrality, Kiswahili has enjoyed the support of the East African governments, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), and is spoken in many countries in the world. The East African region, for example, is part of the global village, which is currently undergoing fundamental transformations on the basis of intensive competition.

Indeed, regional groupings have reinforced themselves for purposes of strengthening their competitiveness in the global market. Kiswahili is the language of cross-border trade within the East African region, and plays a significant role in fostering socio-economic relationships within the region. It is the language of the East African Community (EAC) and has been proposed to be the language of the African Union (AU). This means that it has to be developed to meet the global challenges ahead. Any country that values the development of its people must incorporate them in all development processes. This can be realized through a language that they can comprehend and can competently use it to evaluate themselves and to implement development projects within their area. Kenyans are therefore lucky to have a language that is spoken and is understood by over 80% of the population. Kiswahili has been used by politicians to woe votes during political campaigns.

Through Kiswahili literary genres especially lyrics, politicians gain popularity among the masses, hence improving their chances of winning in an election. Activities such as Civic Education, HIV/AIDS awareness campaigns, Human Rights advocacy and Constitutional Review process have become successful partly because the majority of Kenyans share a common language – Kiswahili. Professionals like engineers, agricultural extension officers, doctors and technicians use Kiswahili mostly to communicate to the public while discharging their duties. There is, therefore, an urgent need to equip these professionals with Kiswahili communication skills needed for them to competently discharge their duties. In this age of globalization, imported technology continues to bombard most of the African countries including Kenya. Industrial production, which involves imported technologies, is tied to foreign languages. This means that the latter dominates industry and commerce. Yet at the grassroots level where the peasant farmer, the housewife, the kiosk operator, the street vendor or the Jua Kali artisan operates, this official foreign language is rarely used. Instead, the indigenous languages including Kiswahili are the media through which this technology is interpreted and applied. It is therefore imperative for our professionals to learn Kiswahili, to be able to impart the right knowledge and to communicate to the general public.

Inconsistent Kiswahili language policies have continued to prevail in post-independent Kenya. These inconsistencies have accentuated and contributed to negative attitudes towards teaching and learning of Kiswahili in educational institutions. In the education sector, for example, the Ominde Commission of 1965 first advocated the use of Kiswahili as a compulsory subject in primary schools. Since this Report was compiled, subsequent reports have continued to recommend the teaching of Kiswahili for national integration. For example, following the Mackay Commission of 1984, Kiswahili became a compulsory and examinable subject in primary and secondary schools throughout the country. This culminated in the launching of the 8-4-4 system of education in 1985. The move boosted the image of Kiswahili in the country since the government had realized the crucial role that Kiswahili plays in educational and socio-economic development of the country.

Moreover, the Mackay Commission was reinforced by the Koech Commission of 1999, which proposed that Kiswahili should be one of the 5 compulsory subjects to be examined at the end of primary education. The language was also to be one of the 3 core subjects to be examined at the end of secondary education. This move has had positive effects for Kiswahili in higher education because not only does Kenya have a Kiswahili National Association (CHAKITA-Kenya) but more Kiswahili departments have since been established in all public universities and their respective constituent colleges. Kiswahili is, however, not taught in some private universities and there has been little effort to adopt the subject. It should also be understood that the bulk of professionals who graduate from these institutions serve the general public. They are employed in various sectors where, in most cases, they interact with the general public through using Kiswahili language. It is therefore imperative that they know the language well.

On the other hand, literature transmits language, history, traditions and customs of a people. For example, it is through written or oral literature that the heroes and heroines of the nation are idolized (Were &Amutabi, 2000:35). It is through orature that the country's great leaders are known and their deeds pass on from generation to generation. Kiswahili being the common medium of expression in Kenya can best serve these roles, hence the need to develop and teach it in the school curriculum. Various literary scholars have underscored the importance of teaching and appreciating African literatures.
Most children in the world learn to speak two languages. Bilingualism is present in just about every country around the world, in all classes of society, and in all age groups (Grosjean, 1982; McLaughlin, 1984). In the United States monolingualism traditionally has been the norm. Language represents culture, and the bilingual person is often a member of a minority group whose way of thinking and whose values are unfamiliar to the majority. Language is something we can identify and try to eradicate without showing our distrust and fear of others (McLaughlin, 1984). Even strong supporters of bilingual education such as Cummins (1981, 1996) do not claim that bilingual education is the most important element in a child's education. In the view of Cummins, it is more about good programmes and about the status of the language group in their community that will determine success (Cummins, 1981, 1996).

There are no negative effects for children who are bilingual. Their language development follows the same pattern as that of monolingual children (Goodz, 1994). Children who develop proficiency in using their native language to communicate, to gain information, to solve problems, and to think can easily learn to use a second language in similar ways. (Pérez & Torres-Guzmán, 1996, p. 96). Even young children who are learning a second language bring all of the knowledge about language learning they have acquired through developing their first language.

There is, however, much more variation in how well and how quickly individuals acquire a second language. There is no evidence that there are any biological limits to second-language learning or that children necessarily have an advantage over adults. Even those who begin to learn a second language in childhood may always have difficulty with pronunciation, rules of grammar, and vocabulary, and they may never completely master the forms or uses of the language. There is no simple way to explain why some people are successful at second-language learning and some are not. Social and educational variables, experiential factors, and individual differences in attitude, personality, age, and motivation all affect language learning (Bialystok &Hakuta, 1994; McLaughlin, 1984; Wong Fillmore, 1991a; Tabors, 1997).

McLaughlin notes that ultimate retention of two languages depends on a large number of factors, such as the prestige of the languages, cultural pressures, motivation, opportunities of use but not on age of acquisition (McLaughlin, 1984, p. 73). It should not be surprising that bilingual children often have one area of language learning that is not equal between the two languages. It does not happen very often that both languages will be equally balanced. The society that children find themselves in and how important each language is viewed within that society are very important. Children will only continue to use two languages if doing so is perceived to be valuable. As children go through school, they usually lose much of their ability in their native language. Children bring their attitudes toward a second language and those who speak it as well as their attitude toward their first language. These attitudes are important to the success of the child learning a second language and retaining his or her language (Collier, 1995b; Lindfors, 1991).

Learning of a second language is subject to the influence of the learner's history with the first language (Ho, 1986). Ho asserts that second language learning strategies are basically similar to those of the first language and there is no need for the establishment of a special set of procedures for the second language training. However, Ho (1986) acknowledges the direct role which the first language plays in the initial stages of second language acquisition. Therefore, this perspective takes into account the participation of the individual's history of the first language in the acquisition of the second language and thereafter (such as thinking in first language while speaking in second language). That is to say, the first and second languages are interrelated and the history of the first language is a participatory factor in the acquisition of the second language and its maintenance.

Given the long history of first language and its interrelation with second language, the bilingual repertoire may be such that the first language occurs under conditions of ambiguous contextual control. This phenomenon may be called "dominance" of the first language over the second language. Experimentally speaking, such dominance may be determined by eliminating the contextual cues and observing equivalence patterns with regard to common elements. Kohlenberg, Hayes, and Hayes (1991) showed that an element of a class of arbitrarily related stimuli could acquire contextual control over equivalence relations, and that control would transfer without direct training, to other members of the class.

In one experiment, they demonstrated the establishment of conditional equivalence classes under the control of contextual stimuli (three male and three female names) and when these equivalence classes were tested using new names not used in training (another set of three male and three female), contextual control remained intact (common element being gender-identified names). Another type of procedure consisted of testing for what is called second-order conditional control. More specifically, emergence of conditional discriminations among novel stimuli (or stimuli with no training history) without the contextual cue(s) may suggest that the contextual cue(s) have not entered into compounds with the visual stimuli, but instead have exerted second-order contextual control over the emergent equivalence relations (Steel & Hayes, 1991).

Bush, Sidman and de Rose (1989) stated that apparent second-order conditional stimuli (high and low tones) may have entered into a compound with the sample and thereby exerted control over conditional discriminations. In the study of second language, the demonstration of contextual control in relational responding has implications for the selection by the speaker of one language form over another.

The second language learning environment encompasses everything the language learner hears and sees in the new language. It may include a wide variety of situations such as exchanges in restaurants and stores, conversations with friends, reading street signs and newspapers, as well as classroom activities, or it may be very sparse, including only language classroom activities and a few books. Regardless of the learning environment, the learner's goal is mastery of the target language. The learner begins the task of learning a second language from point zero (or close to it) and, through the steady accumulation of the mastered entities of the target language, eventually amasses them in quantities sufficient to constitute a particular level of proficiency (Dulay, Burt &Krashen, 1982 & Ellis, 1984).

This characterisation of language learning entails the successful mastery of steadily accumulating structural entities and organizing this knowledge into coherent structures which lead to effective communication in the target language (Rutherford, 1987). If this is the case, then we would expect that well-formed accurate and complete target language structures would, one after another, emerge on the learner's path towards eventual mastery of the language. If the learner went on to master the language, we could, in principle, tabulate the expansion of his/her repertoire up to the point where all of the well-formed structures of the target language had been accounted for (Beardsmore, 1982 & Hoffman, 1991).

In reality this is not the case. Second language learners appear to accumulate structural entities of the target language but demonstrate difficulty in organizing this knowledge into appropriate, coherent structures. There appears to be a significant gap between the accumulation and the organization of the knowledge. This then raises a critical question - what kinds of language do second language learners produce in speaking and writing? When writing or speaking the target language (L2), second language learners tend to rely on their native language (L1) structures to produce a response. If the structures of the two languages are distinctly different, then one could expect a relatively high frequency of errors to occur in L2, thus indicating an interference of L1 on L2 (Dechert, 1983 & Ellis, 1997). The current study was conducted in Kericho West Sub County where Kipsigis is the major language among the residents. Relying on the native language or first language which is Kipsigis may have affected learning and performance of Kiswahili in the study area.

Extensive research has already been done in the area of native language interference on the target language. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) define interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. Lott (1983) defines interference as 'errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue'. Ellis (1997) refers to interference as 'transfer', which he says is 'the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2'. He argues that transfer is governed by learners' perceptions about what is transferable and by their stage of development in L2 learning. In learning a target language, learners construct their own interim rules (Selinker, 1971, Seligar, 1988 & Ellis, 1997) with the use of their L1 knowledge, but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task or when they have become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible.

Ellis (1997) raises the need to distinguish between errors and mistakes and makes an important distinction between the two. He says that errors reflect gaps in the learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance; they occur because, in a particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows. It appears to be much more difficult for an adult to learn a second language system that is as well learned as the first language. Typically, a person learns a second language partly in terms of the kinds of meanings already learned in the first language (Carroll, 1964;

Albert &Obler, 1978 and Larson-Freeman & Long, 1991). Beebe (1988) suggests that in learning a second language, L1 responses are grafted on to L2 responses, and both are made to a common set of meaning responses. Other things being equal, the learner is less fluent in L2, and the kinds of expressions he/she uses in L2 bear telltale traces of the structure of L1.

Carroll (1964) argues that the circumstances of learning a second language are like those of a mother tongue. Sometimes there are interferences and occasionally responses from one language system will intrude into speech in the other language. It appears that learning is most successful when the situations in which the two languages (L1 & L2) are learned, are kept as distinct as possible (Faerch& Kasper, 1983). To successfully learn L2 requires the L2 learner to often preclude the L1 structures from the L2 learning process, if the structures of the two languages are distinctly different. Beardsmore (1982) suggests that many of the difficulties a second language learner has with the phonology, vocabulary and grammar of L2 are due to the interference of habits from L1. The formal elements of L1 are used within the context of L2, resulting in errors in L2, as the structures of the languages, L1 and L2 are different.

The relationship between the two languages must then be considered. Albert and Obler (1978) claim that people show more lexical interference on similar items. So it may follow that languages with more similar structures (for example, English and French) are more susceptible to mutual interference than languages with fewer similar features (eg English and Japanese). On the other hand, we might also expect more learning difficulties, and thus more likelihood of performance interference at those points in L2 which are more distant from L1, as the learner would find it difficult to learn and understand a completely new and different usage. Hence the learner would resort to L1 structures for help (Selinker, 1979; Dulay et al, 1982; Blum-Kulka&Levenston, 1983; Faerch& Kasper, 1983, Bialystok, 1990 and Dordick, 1996).

Dechert (1983) suggests that the further apart the two languages are structurally, the higher the instances of errors made in L2 which bear traces of L1 structures. In both cases the interference may result from a strategy on the part of the learner which assumes or predicts equivalence, both formally and functionally, of two items or rules sharing either function or form. More advanced learning of L2 may involve a greater number of rules or marking features for distinguishing between the two languages. This then raises a pertinent question - does the L2 text have to be syntactically correct for its meaning to be understood? Do the identified errors in the written text reduce semantic and syntactic acceptability? The answer lies in several domains: the L2 learner's purpose in learning the target language, the learner's L2 proficiency level of the target language and the knowledge state of the learner in L1 and L2.

Adults who learn a second language differ from children learning their first language in at least three ways: children are still developing their brains whereas adults have conscious minds, and adults have at least a first language that orients their thinking and speaking. Although some adult second-language learners reach very high levels of proficiency, pronunciation tends to be non-native. This lack of native pronunciation in adult learners is explained by the critical period hypothesis. When a learner's speech plateaus, it is known as fossilization.

Some errors that second-language learners make in their speech originate in their first language. For example, Spanish speakers learning English may say; "Is raining" rather than "It is raining", leaving out the subject of the sentence. This kind of influence of the first language on the second is known as negative language transfer. French speakers learning English, however, do not usually make the same mistake of leaving out "it" in "It is raining." This is because pronominal and impersonal sentence subjects can be omitted (or as in this case, are not used in the first place) in Spanish but not in French (Cook, 2008). The French speaker knowing to use a pronominal sentence subject when speaking English is an example of positive language transfer.

Also, when people learn a second language, the way they speak their first language changes in subtle ways. These changes can be with any aspect of language, from pronunciation and syntax to gestures the learner makes and the language features they tend to notice (Cook, 2008). For example, French speakers who spoke English as a second language pronounced the /t/ sound in French differently from monolingual French speakers (Flege, 1987). This kind of change in pronunciation has been found even at the onset of second-language acquisition; for example, English speakers pronounced the English /p t k/ sounds, as well as English vowels, differently after they began to learn Korean (Chang, 2012). These effects of the second language on the first led Vivian Cook to propose the idea of multi-competence, which sees the different languages a person speaks not as separate systems, but as related systems in their mind (Cook, 2008).

III. DATA PRESENTATION ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results and discussion as organized based on the study objectives. More specifically, this chapter analyzed the teachers and students' opinions on the effects of first language on performance of Kiswahili in public secondary schools in Kericho West Sub-County. Questionnaire, interview guide and essay guide were used to collect data. Analysis was based on four objectives of the study:

1. To establish how the use of first language affects performance in Kiswahili in public secondary schools in Kericho West Sub-County

All the students and teachers who were selected to participate in the study were cooperative and the return rate was 100%.

In relation to the scoring in the Likert Tables a five scale variables were adopted with SA as strongly agree, A as agree, UD as undecided, SD as strongly disagree and D as disagree. However, during data analysis, presentation and discussion, a three scale approach was adopted with A as agree, UD as undecided and D as disagree. This was due to the fact that strong agree and agree all refer to an agreement to the variable while strongly disagree and disagree all refer to the disagreement to the variable.

In the study to establish demographic information of the respondents, highest level of education of teachers as well as their teaching experience were determined. In addition, gender of the students was also identified as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 1: Respondents' Background Information

Item	Frequency	Percentage
Highest level of Education of Teachers		
Diploma	3	12.5
Undergraduate Degree	17	70.8
Postgraduate degree	4	16.7
Total	**24**	**100.0**
Teaching Experience		
Less than one year	2	8.3
1-5 years	6	25.0
6-10 years	12	50.0
Above 10 years	4	16.7
Total	**24**	**100.0**

In relation to the demographic characteristics of the respondents, majority (70.8%) of teachers had undergraduate degree, 16.7% had postgraduate degree while 12.5% had diploma certificates. This thus implies that teachers had adequate training considering the fact that 87.5% of teachers had at least university training and are holders of degrees. Therefore, it can be argued that teachers have adequate training to enable them handle teaching of Kiswahili effectively.

Findings further revealed that half of teachers who were interviewed had 6-10 years of teaching experiencing, 25% had a teaching experience of 1-5 years while 16.7% had a teaching experience of more than 10 years. This indicate therefore that majority (66.7%) had been teaching Kiswahili for six years and more. Thus, this indicate the high level of experience that majority of teachers have accumulated with years which is crucial in promoting performance of the subject. In addition, since most teachers have been in their profession for long, the policies and regulations aimed at preventing students from using first language, effects of first language use on performance of Kiswahili as well as the challenges affecting performance of Kiswahili.

Gender of the Students

In relation to the gender of the students, majority were found to be male as shown in Figure 4.2.

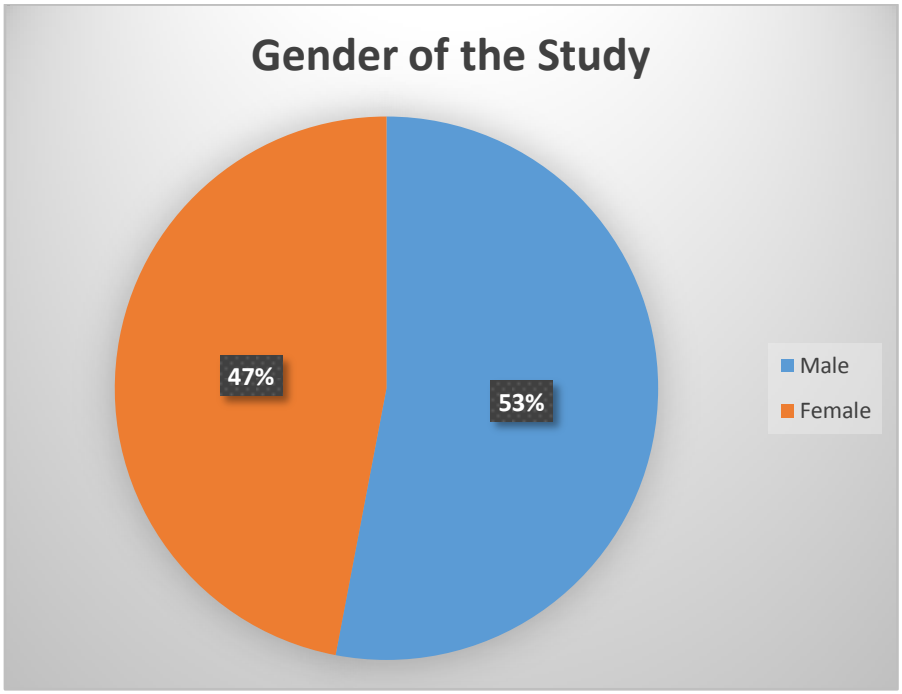

Figure 1 Gender of the Students

In relation to gender of the students, the study found that female students were slightly higher than their counterparts. Female students were 53.3% while their counterparts were 46.7%. This also suggests that more female students are embracing education due to intensive campaigns and awareness from various stakeholders and women activists. Despite the fact that the study was not gender based, it was however prudent for the study to collect gender balanced information from students regarding effects of first language on performance of Kiswahili.

`

Teachers and Students' Responses on the Use of First language

In order to obtain information on the use of the first language in selected schools six variables were developed. Findings indicate that first language is being used by students and little is being done to eliminate the habit.

Table 4.2 has a summary of the findings.

Table 2 Responses on the Use of First language

Statements on the Use of First language	**Teachers' Responses**			**Students' Responses**		
	A	**NS**	**D**	**A**	**U**	**D**
Students use the first language in the school	84.0%	2.0%	14.0%	78.0%	12.0%	10.0%
Students are given manual work if found speaking in their first language	17.0%	18.0%	65.0%	23.0%	19.0%	58.0%
Students who speak in their first language in school are sent home for their parents	9.0%	22.0%	69.0%	13.0%	32.0%	55.0%
Students who speak in their first language are required to buy story books	11.0%	2.0%	78.0%	9.0%	15.0%	76.0%
No punishment is administered to those who speak in their first language in school	62.0%	12.0%	26.0%	50.0%	10.0%	40.0%
There are difficulties in controlling the use of first language in my school	53.0%	11.0%	36.0%	33.0%	55.0%	12.0%

In relation to the teachers; responses on the use of first language by their students, majority (84%) agreed that students use the first language in the school. Implying that apart from English and Kiswahili which are the official languages, students further communicate using their mother tongue. In Kenyan according to the new constitution (2010), Kiswahili and English have been recognized as official communication languages. Thus, it is expected that in Kenyan public secondary schools students are expected to use English and Kiswahili as their official language of communication. The use of first language by students may compromise the effectiveness of using and communicating from the official languages.

The study further revealed that majority (65%) of teachers denied the statement that students are given manual work if found speaking in their first language. This therefore implies that in most schools in the study area the use of first language is condoned by the management that is why students who use their mother tongue go unpunished. This also may motivate the use of first language.

The study also established that majority of the teachers denied the statements that: students who speak in their first language in school are sent home for their parents (69%) and students who speak in their first language are required to buy story books (78%). Thus, according to 62% of teachers who were interviewed, stated that no punishment is administered to those who speak in their first language in school. The findings therefore imply that first language speaking among students in various schools in the study area is common.

Social learning theory states that an actor will repeat certain behaviour in future if it is rewarded. On the other hand, an actor will desist from the behaviour if it is punished in order to avoid pain and discomfort in future. Similarly, if the use of first language is condoned, then it is like an action being reward and therefore it will continue. This may affect performance in Kiswahili.

In relation to the students responses on the use of first language, findings reveal that just like teachers, majority (78%) of students also agreed that they use the first language in school, 58% of students disagreed the statement that they are given manual work if found speaking in their first language. In addition, 55% denied the statement that; they are sent home if found speaking in their first language. Just like it was with teachers' responses, majority of the students who participated in the study revealed that punishment was ineffective particularly towards guarding those using first language within school compound.
A close scrutiny of the findings reveal that there is a discrepancy between findings from teachers and students in controlling the use of first language in school. This is due to the fact that students fear that they might implicate their teachers.

In summary, in relation to teachers and students' responses on the use of first language findings indicate that students use the first language in the school, there is no punishment administered to those who speak in their first language in school, there are difficulties in controlling the use of first language in my school, students are not given manual work if found speaking in their first language, students who speak in their first language in school are not sent home for their parents and students who speak in their first language are not required to buy story books.

IV. Conclusion

The objective of the study was to establish how the use of first language affects performance in Kiswahili in public secondary schools in Kericho West Sub-County. Findings indicate that students registering poor results in Kiswahili; students experiencing difficulties in speaking fluent Kiswahili even though most students denied the statement, and students experiencing difficulties in writing essays in Kiswahili which was revealed from the essay they were given during data collection were found to be the effects of using first language.

V. Recommendations

Findings indicate that students are using first language in school, there is inadequate reading and learning materials for Kiswahili, there is inadequate management support particularly towards the use of Kiswahili. In addition, negative attitudes hamper the use of Kiswahili in school especially among students. From the study findings it was established that majority (78%) of the participants acknowledged that students are using first language in school. There are possibilities that using first language may affect negatively performance of Kiswahili. Furthermore, since school rules and regulations on the use of first language are available. Based on the study findings, it was established that the programmes that have been put in place to improve the use of Kiswahili are inadequate. Inadequate teaching and learning materials, poor management support among others are affecting performance in Kiswahili. The study findings also revealed that policies and

regulations regarding the use of Kiswahili are in place but the problem is reinforcement. Based on these and other findings in chapter four, the study makes the following recommendations;

a. There is need for the school management as well as teachers to cooperate in ensuring that the rules are reinforced and implemented.
b. There is need therefore for the school management to ensure that they provide adequate support in order to improve performance of the subject. At this point, the school management need to provide adequate support in terms of reading and learning materials, facilitation of symposiums and seminars as well as ensuring that teachers of Kiswahili are motivated in order to teach with satisfaction.
c. There is need for the school management as well as teachers to strictly reinforce the policies and regulations regarding Kiswahili in order to improve performance.

VI. Suggestions for Further Research

The study was conducted on the effects of first language on performance in Kiswahili in public secondary schools in Kericho West Sub-county. Teachers of Kiswahili, Heads of departments for Kiswahili and Form Three students were the target population for the study.

The study recommends that other researchers:

a. To conduct similar studies in other regions of the country for comparison purposes as well as creating a pool of information and literature to act as a point of reference
b. Other studies be conducted on the effect of Sheng' on performance of Kiswahili
c. Other studies be conducted effects of student attitude on performance of Kiswahili

REFERENCES

[1.] Ahmad, F. & Aziz, J. (2009). Students' Perceptions of the Teachers' Teaching of Literature Communicating and Understanding Through the Eyes of the Audience. European Journal of social sciences, 7 (3), 17.Retrieved from www.eurojournals.com/ ejss7_3 02.pdf on 10/04/2013.

[2.] Anorue, C. (2004). Patterns of Teacher Student Interaction in Social Studies in Imo State Secondary School.A Ph.D Dissertation, University of Port Harcourt.

[3.] Beardsmore, H.B. (1982). Bilingualism: Basic Principles. Tieto, Avon.

[4.] Bett, J., Indoshi, F. C. &Odera, F. Y. (2008).The Nature of Interaction in English Language Classrooms. International Journal of Learning, 16 (7), 217-228.

[5.] Bialystok, E., &Hakuta, K. (1994).In other words. New York: Basic Books.

[6.] Birdsong, D. (2005). Interpreting age effects in second language acquisition" In J. Kroll & A. DeGroot (eds.), Handbook of Bilingualism: *Psycholinguistic Perspectives* (pp. 109-127). Oxford: Oxford U. Press.

[7.] Bley-Vroman, R. (1990).The logical problem of foreign language learning: *Linguistic Analysis* 20, 3-49.

[8.] Bowling, A. (2002). Research Methods in Health: Investigating health and health services. Buckingham: Open University Press.

[9.] Brad, H. (2000). Teacher-Centered Instruction versus Student–Centered Instruction. Am. Sch. Board J, P. 1-5.

[10.] Bush K. M, Sidman M, de Rose T. (1989).Contextual control of emergent equivalence relations. *Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior*: 51:29–45.

[11.] Bush, G. (2006). Learning about learning: From theories to trends. Teacher Librarian, 34 (2), 14-19.

[12.] Callahan, R. M. (2005). English Language Proficiency and Track Placement: Variable Effects on Academic Achievement. Somerville: Cascadilla Press.

[13.] Carroll, J. (1967). *The foreign language attainments of language majors in the senior year*: A survey conducted in U.S. colleges and universities. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

[14.] Chang, W. (2002, April).The impact of constructivist teaching on students' perceptions of teaching and learning. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching, New Orleans, LA.

[15.] Chang, Y. (2010). Students' Perceptions of Teaching Styles and Use of Learning Strategies.Retrieved from http://trace.tennessee.edu/utk_gradthes/782 on 27/4/2013.

[16.] Chang, Charles B. (2012). "Rapid and multifaceted effects of second-language learning on first-language speech production". *Journal of Phonetics* 40 (2): 249–268. doi:10.1016/j.wocn.2011.10.007.

[17.] Chika, P. O. (2012). The Extent of Students' Responses in the Classroom. International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 2 (1).Retrieved from www.hrmars.com/journals on 23/4/2013.

[18.] Cohen, L., Manion, L. &Morrizon, K. P. B. (2000).Research Methods in Education. London: Croomhelm.

[19.] Collier, V. P. (1995a). Acquiring a second language for school: Vol. 1, No. 4.Directions in language and education.

[20.] Collier, V. P. (1995b). Promoting academic success for ESL students. Jersey City: New Jersey Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages-Bilingual Educators.

[21.] Cook, Vivian (2008). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*. London: Arnold. ISBN 978-0-340-95876-6.

[22.] Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In California State Department of Education (Ed.), Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework (pp. 3-49). Los Angeles: National Dissemination and Assessment Center.

[23.] Cummins, J. (1996). Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society. Ontario: California Association for Bilingual Education.

[24.] Curtin, E. (2005). Instructional styles used by regular classroom teachers while teaching recently mainstreamed ESL students: Six urban middle school teachers in Texas share their experiences and perceptions. Multicultural Education, 12 (4), 36-42.

[25.] Dijkstra, T., and Van Heuven, B. (2002). The architecture of the bilingual visual word recognition system: From identification to decision Bilingualism: *Language and Cognition*, 5, 175-197.

[26.] Doherty, R. W., &Hilberg, R. S. (2007).Standards for effective pedagogy, classroom organization, English proficiency, and student achievement. The Journal of Educational Research, 101(1), 24-34.

[27.] Dörnyei, Z. (2001). New themes and approaches in second language motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 43-59.

[28.] Dufresne, J. R., Gerace, J.W., Leonard, W. J., Mestre, J. P. &Wenk, L. (2010). Classroom talk: A classroom communication system for active learning, 7 (2), 3-27 .doi: 10:1007/ BF 02948592

[29.] Dulay, H., Burt, M. &Krashen, S. 1982, Languag Two, Oxford University Press, New York.

[30.] Durrheim, K. & Painter, D. (2006).Collecting Qualitative Data: Sampling and Measuring.In M. T. Blanche, K. Durrheim& K. Painter (Eds.).Research in Practice. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

[31.] Eken, D. K. (2000). Through the eyes of the learner: Learner observations of teaching and learning. ELT Journal, 53(4), 66-80.

[32.] Ellis, R. 1984, Classroom Second Language Development: a study of classroom interaction and language acquisition, Pergamon Press, Oxford.

[33.] Ellis, R. 1997, Second Language Acquisition, Oxford University Press, Oxford.

[34.] Farkas, R. D. (2003). Effects of traditional versus learning-styles instructional methods on middle school students. The Journal of Educational Research, 97(1), 42-51.

[35.] Flanders, N. A. (1963). Intent, action and feedback: A preparation for teaching. Journal of Teacher Education, 14, 251-260.

[36.] Flanders, N. A. (1970). Analyzing Teaching Behavior. New York: Addison-Wesley co.

[37.] Flege, J. E., (1987). "The production of "new" and "similar" phones in a foreign language: evidence for the effect of equivalence classification" (PDF). *Journal of Phonetics* **15**: 47–65. Retrieved2011-02-09.

[38.] Flege, J.E., Frieda, A., and Nozawa, T. (1997). Amount of native-language (L1) use affects the pronunciation in an L2. *Journal of Phonetics*, 25, 169-186.

[39.] Flege, J.E., MacKay, I.A., and Piske, T. (2002). Assessing bilingual dominance: *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 23, 567-598.

[40.] Flege, J. E., Yeni-Komishian, G. H., & Liu, S. (1999). Age constraints on secondlanguage acquisition.*Journal of Memory and Language*, 41, 78-104.

[41.] Froyd, J. E. (2007). Evidence for the efficacy of student-active learning Pedagogies. Retrieved from http://cte.tamu.edu/programmes/flc.php on 29/4/2013

[42.] Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R. & Gall, J. P. (2007). Educational research: An introduction. New York: Longman Publishers.

[43.] Gathumbi A.W. &Masende S. C. (2005).*Principles and Techniques in Language Teaching; a Text for Teachers Educator, Teachers and Pre-service Educators*. Nairobi: Jomo Kenyatta Foundation.

[44.] Gitau, E.M. (1983). A Study of Present Situation Regarding the Teaching and Learning of Kiswahili in Kikuyu Division in Primary School (Masters of Education. Nairobi) Unpublished Thesis

[45.] Goodz, N. S. (1994). Interactions between parents and children in bilingual families. In F. Genesee (Ed.), Educating second language children: The whole child, the whole curriculum, the whole community. Cambridge, England:

[46.] Henson, K. T. (2004). Constructivist methods for teaching in diverse middle-level classrooms. Boston, MA: Allyn& Bacon.

[47.] Hinton-Bayre, A. D. (2010). Calculating the Test-Retest Reliability Co-efficient from Normative Retest Data for Determining Reliable Change. Oxford Journals, 26 (1), 76-77.

[48.] Hoffman, C. (1991). An Introduction to Bilingualism. Longman, London.

[49.] Hou, C. S. (2007). A study on the relationship between teacher-student style match or mismatch and English learning achievements (Unpublished master's thesis). National Yunlin University of Science & Technology, Yunlin, Taiwan.

[50.] Hsieh, C. H., & Sun, C. T. (2006). MUD for learning: Classification and instruction. International Journal of Instructional Media, 33 (3), 289-302.

[51.] Hyltenstam, K., and Abrahamsson, N. (2003).*Maturational constraints in second 74 55-77 language acquisition*. In C. Doughty & M. Long (eds.), Handbook of second language acquisition. Malden, MA: Blackwell. 539-588.

[52.] Jia, G., Aaronson, D., & Wu, Y. (2002). Long-term language attainment of bilingual immigrants: Predictive variables and language group differences. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 23, 599-621.

[53.] Kenya Institute of Education, (2007). Report on Monitoring of the Implementation of Phase four of the Revised Secondary School Education: *Research Report Series* No. 85. Nairobi: KIE.

[54.] Kohlenberg B.S, Hayes S.C, Hayes L.J. (1991). The transfer of specific and general consequential functions through simple and conditional equivalence relations. *Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior*: 56:119–137.

[55.] Lindfors, J. W. (1991). Children.s language and learning (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. (ERIC Document No. ED394301)

[56.] Marian, V., & Spivey, M. (2003). Competing activation in bilingual language processing: Within- and between-language competition. Bilingualism: *Language and Cognition*, 6, 97-115.

[57.] Mazrui A. A. &Mazrui A. M. (1995).*Swahili State and Society: The Political Economy of African Language*. Nairobi: East African Education Publishers.

[58.] Melander, B. (2001). '*Swedish English and the European Union*'. In S. Boyd and C. Huss (eds).

[59.] Muthii, S (2002). Language Policy and Education: *A Regional conference on held in Nairobi* from 15th – 17th May 2006

[60.] Oladejo, J.A. (1993). How to Embark on a Bilingual Education Policy in Developing Country: The Case of Nigeria. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*pg 447 – 462.

[61.] Pérez, B., & Torres-Guzmán, M. (1996). Learning in two worlds (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.

[62.] Rutherford, W.E. 1987, Second Language Grammar: Learning and Teaching, Longman, London.

[63.] Starks, D., &Paltridge, B. (1996) A note on using sociolinguistic method to study non-native Attitudes towards English. *World Englishes*, 15(2), 217-224.

[64.] Tabors, P. (1997).One child, two languages. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes. (ERIC Document No. ED405987)

[65.] Winner, E., McCarthy, M., Kleinman, S., & Gardner, H. (1979).First metaphors. In D. Wolfe (Ed.), Early symbolization (New Directions for Child Development, No. 3). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

[66.] Wong Fillmore, L. (1991a). When learning a second language means losing the first. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 6(3), 323-346. (ERIC Journal No. EJ436469)

[67.] Wong Fillmore, L. (1991b). Second language learning in children: A model of language learning in social context. In E. Bialystok (Ed.), Language processing in bilingual children. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.