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A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF MOTIVATION, ETHNICITY, GENDER, AND ACHIEVEMENT IN KISWAHILI AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN A COLLEGE SETTING: STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By
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The Ohio State University
2001

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This study investigated whether there was a correlation between motivation and Kiswahili language learning achievement with a focus on gender, ethnicity, age, prior foreign language experience, and college class rank. Another objective was to describe the motivations for the student enrollment in the college Kiswahili program. A secondary objective was to solicit student perspectives on Kiswahili program, instructors, teaching methods, instructional materials, in-and-out of class assignments and oral examinations.

The study found that a majority of the students enrolled in the Kiswahili program out of curiosity or to fulfill a foreign language requirement. The study found a weak positive correlation between motivation and academic achievement in Kiswahili. Ethnicity was not found to be a major factor in determining Kiswahili GPA. Ethnicity had a correlation of .03. Gender was found to be a factor in explaining the variance in Kiswahili GPA. Gender had a correlation of .30. Females had a higher Kiswahili GPA than males. The correlation between age and achievement was negative. There was a positive correlation between prior foreign language experience and Kiswahili academic achievement. The correlation between college ranking and Kiswahili academic achievement was negative.

The average rating of the Kiswahili program, instructors, teaching methods, instructional materials, in-and-out of class assignments and oral examinations were good.
Overall, the ratings of the Kiswahili program, instructors, teaching methods, instructional materials, in-and-out of class assignments and oral examinations by White-Americans were higher than those by African-Americans. By gender, the ratings of the Kiswahili program, instructors, teaching methods, instructional materials, in-and-out of class assignments and oral examinations by male students were higher than those by female students. A majority of the respondents reported that their needs were being met, although there was need for improvement in the Kiswahili program.

The study concludes with a description of pedagogical implications, recommendations for further research, and limitations. The study ends with a bibliography of relevant literature and the instrument used in the study.
Dedicated to my family:
My parents: Geoffrey Njogu Kariuki and Martha Njeri Njogu
My brothers and sisters: Peninnah Muthoni, Kimani Njogu,
Chrispus Karanja, Amos Kibe, Jemimah Nyaguthie, Ruth Wangare
and Tabitha Wanjiru
My wife: Mary W. Kiarie
Our children: Martha Njeri Kiarie and Geoffrey Njogu Kiarie
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The Kiswahili students of the winter quarter 1999 need to be thanked for sacrificing their valuable time to respond to the questionnaire.
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The sacrifice that my family made during the entire period of this project could not go unmentioned. I deeply acknowledge the understanding of my dear wife Mary W. Kiarie for bearing with me during the hard times and for taking care of the family in my absence. I thank her for being strong and firm. A lot of thanks go to our children Martha N. Kiarie and Geoffrey N. Kiarie for understanding that my absence was for the good of us all. My hope is that this dissertation will be an inspiration for them. To our kids I say: "panapo nia pana njia" (where there is will, there is way).
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

College students enroll in foreign language programs for different reasons. One of the reasons is to fulfill a foreign language requirement. Another reason is to be able to function in the target language speaking environment, for example, as preparation to carry out specialized fieldwork. Some students study foreign languages to broaden their cultural and ethnic awareness (Newman, R. et al 1985). Curiosity is another reason that motivates some college students to enroll in foreign language programs. Finally, other college students enroll in foreign language programs because of the intrinsic value of foreign languages and feelings of attachment to the culture and the people who speak them.

Regardless of what the reasons are, research has shown that there is a particular type of impulse or desire that makes a college student enroll in a foreign language program. This drive, impulse, or desire is what has been referred to as motivation.

Motivation is the most frequently used general term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any task (Brown, 1994). As Ellis (1995) noted, motivation is with a student even before he/she enters a foreign language classroom. According to Gardner (1985), motivation involves four aspects: a goal, effortful behavior, a desire to attain the
goal, and favorable attitudes towards a particular activity or task. The goal stimulates to the other three aspects. Ausubel (quoted by Brown, 1994) identified six needs underlying the construct of motivation:

(i) The need for exploration (probing the unknown).
(ii) The need for manipulation (operating on the environment and causing change).
(iii) The need for activity (movement and exercise, both physical and mental).
(iv) The need for stimulation (by environment, other people, ideas, thoughts, and feelings)
(v) The need for knowledge (to process and internalize the results of exploration, manipulation, activity, and stimulation, to resolve contradictions, to quest for solutions to problems and for self-consistent systems of knowledge).
(vi) The need for ego enrichment (for the self to be known, accepted, and approved by others).

Other needs associated with motivation are achievement, autonomy, affiliation, order, change, endurance, and aggression. This study sought to identify the motives behind student enrollment in Kiswahili as a foreign language at the college level, and how motivation correlates with student achievement.

Research has shown that motivation is not static. It is dynamic and can be global, situational, or task-oriented. Motivation can be created, maintained, fostered, or decreased and may be affected by various factors. Some of the factors that may affect motivation include the instructor, teaching materials, content, teaching method, classroom activities, and assessment among others. In second/foreign language
acquisition all these factors come into play because it is a product of highly complex
networks of relationships between linguistic items, and it can be learned or acquired if the
language is experienced sufficiently for those networks to be built up in the learners
(DeCosta, 1987).

The last three decades have seen research on the nature and the role of motivation
in the second language learning process. This is not surprising because motivation has
been said to be one of the main determinants of second/foreign language learning
achievement (Dörnyei, 1994). The different motives prompting student enrollment in
foreign language programs have been broadly categorized into two aspects: integrative
and instrumental motives (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Integrative motivation
characterizes learners who wish to identify with the culture of the target language group.
Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, refers to functional benefits in the desire to
study the target language.

Research (Dörnyei 1990, 1990b, 1994, and Gardner & Lambert, 1972) has shown
that there exists a correlation between motivation and academic achievement. What
remains unclear is which of these two types of motivation, all other factors held constant,
has the highest correlation with academic achievement. Lack of clarity as to which type
of motivation (integrative or instrumental) is more effective than the other, has resulted
from inconsistencies in the research findings that address motivation in second and
According to Dulay and Burt (1982), integrative motivation seemed to have a greater impact on second language acquisition than instrumental motivation. An earlier study by Gardner (1972) had pointed out that integrative motivation was important for the development of communication skills. However, later investigations demonstrated that in situations where the practical benefit of the second language is high, instrumental motivation might be a powerful incentive towards second/foreign language proficiency. Even though both types of motivation can positively influence the rate and quality of second/foreign language acquisition, each type of motivation has been found to be as effective as the other under certain conditions. However, researchers do not seem to agree on what constitutes integrative motivation and what constitutes instrumental motivation. Factors that had been categorized as integrative in some studies have also been categorized as instrumental in other studies, resulting in some confusion about interpreting these two constructs of motivation. Motivation is not dichotomous, but rather multifaceted. Due to the complex nature of motivation, this study did not categorize motivation for student enrollment in Kiswahili classes as either instrumental or integrative. Instead, a definition of motivation as incentive for action was assumed.

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The establishment of African languages in American schools and colleges can be traced back to two historical moments. First, there was the enactment of the 1958 National Defense Education Act. Secondly, are the pressures that characterized the Black Power Movement of the late sixties, and early seventies (Smitherman, 1996 and Temu,
Initially, there were very few universities and colleges that offered African languages, but in the early 70s there was an increase of African language instruction in American colleges. Kiswahili was, and still is, the most widely sought African language due to its role and regional status in Africa.

Given the circumstances under which African languages were introduced in American colleges and universities, one could safely conclude that most of the people of African descent who enrolled in African language courses were driven by the feeling that taking these languages would lead them to a more sustained contact with the native speakers of these languages (Smitherman, 1996). At the same time, this was one of the ways of symbolically reconnecting and associating with Africa itself and its cultures (Temu, 1992). As Temu went on to say, the teaching of African languages and cultures in institutions of higher learning was one way of recapturing some African-Americans’ heritage. Therefore, African languages were studied because of the pride in one’s heritage as well as for personal, psychological, and political reasons having to do with enhancing one’s self-awareness as well as promoting one’s self-identity.

The sudden demand for African language teachers and the shortage of qualified instructors, led to employment of underqualified instructors. There was also a shortage of materials for the teaching of Kiswahili as a foreign language. Given these circumstances then, achievement levels of students studying Kiswahili in particular, and other African languages in general, were probably low. The fact that underqualified instructors taught Kiswahili at that earlier period, coupled with the shortage of teaching materials, must have had a negative impact on the achievement of Kiswahili students.
Over time, however, African languages developed into reputable academic disciplines in their own right. Their standards and proficiency levels also rose, and in many cases the student composition changed to reflect the ethnic composition of the learning institutions. Instructors in African languages were also hired on the basis of their professional and academic qualifications. Impressionistically, it appears that currently most of African language instructors are either linguists or professionals in second/foreign language pedagogy.

One of the questions that is yet to be addressed is whether changes in the American political scene, the declining influence of Black nationalism and the rise and fall of the Cold War culminating in the collapse of the former Soviet Union, have also led to a change in expectations and motivation among American college students studying Kiswahili as a foreign language. Is there, proportionately speaking, more or less a desire among African-American students in the USA today to study African languages for the motive of "Africanization" or symbolic association with the continent of Africa? What is the current direction of motivation among Kiswahili students at the college level in the US? How does the motive to study Kiswahili as a foreign language relate to academic achievement? Some of these questions were addressed in the present study, while the others will be addressed in a more extensive and elaborate research in the future.

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study aimed at addressing certain objectives. One of the objectives was to describe the motivation of students in Kiswahili as a foreign language program at a large
Mid-western university in the U.S. Another objective was to describe the relationships between motivation and Kiswahili learning achievement on the one hand, as they relate to gender, age, previous foreign language experience, ethnicity, and college ranking on the other. It was also the objective of this study to evaluate student assessment of the Kiswahili program, instructors, Kiswahili instructors' teaching methods, Kiswahili instructional materials, both in-class and out-of-class assignments, oral and written examinations. Another objective was to set pace for the study various aspects of foreign language acquisition (FLA) with a focus on Kiswahili as a foreign language instruction. Based on the data collected, the final objective was to develop a comprehensive framework for the teaching of Kiswahili as a foreign language at the college level.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

At the time of this study, there was no available scientific research addressing the issue of motivation and achievement in Kiswahili as a foreign language. In addition, although earlier studies that addressed the issue of motivation had ethnicity as a variable, they did not have minority students among their subjects. If minority groups were included there may have been different findings in those studies. Given these shortfalls, a study such as this one has certain implications for Kiswahili as a foreign language instruction and pedagogy in the U.S. If Kiswahili program planners and implementers know what motivates students to enroll in Kiswahili classes, then they could use the data to accommodate and sustain student motivation. The researcher's observation suggests that currently, many Kiswahili programs at the college level are based on available
instructional materials instead of being driven by the needs of the learners as research suggests. Such an approach falls short of addressing student needs as a basis for planning a foreign language program. This study could, therefore, serve as a base for future research and planning of Kiswahili instruction, and possibly for other African and foreign language programs.

This study also provides student perspectives about Kiswahili programs, the materials used as well as their instructors and their teaching methods, classroom activities and assignments, and methods of assessment. These perspectives are useful for future research and planning. Getting student perspectives is an important step especially with the current focus on student-centered programs.

It was important also to conduct this study so as to have a chance to present the importance of Kiswahili as an intranational and international language, as well as an academic subject. It is obvious that people do not question the presence of traditional foreign languages in American academia, but it will not be surprising for the same people to question the significance of Kiswahili in the American academic field. This is normally the trend because of the lack of literature demonstrating the functional importance of this language. One can safely claim that the only academic field that makes reference to Kiswahili (as it does to other languages) is linguistics. However, such references are normally made with regard to the structure of the language. The global role of Kiswahili is generally ignored. A brief discussion of the practical importance of Kiswahili might suffice to emphasize this point.
1.3.1 Importance of Kiswahili Language

The importance of Kiswahili language is based on several factors. First, Kiswahili’s importance lies in the fact that regionally, it is one of the most widely spread and spoken languages in Africa. As a lingua franca, the Kiswahili language in Africa assumes great importance due to the critical role Africa plays in world affairs. Africa is the richest continent in terms of resources and, continues to play a vital role in terms of meeting the resource needs of the world. Before the breakup of the Soviet Union and the emergence of USA as the sole superpower, Africa used to be a continent defined by conflict and struggle between superpowers to establish and maintain spheres of influence, bases and alliances. Thus this language spoken in a vast region became of critical importance to those seeking relationships with Africa.

Another factor in the importance of Kiswahili is the fact that the American government has designated it as a critical language that is vital to the USA interests and thus meriting subsidization for its study. After the Second World War and especially after sub-Saharan African countries began to attain their independence, beginning with Ghana in 1957, the US government discovered that it was in its interests to invest politically and economically in Africa. Such an investment was compelled by both the Cold War and superpower rivalry, and the perceived need to support Western allies who had colonies in Africa. The designation of Kiswahili as a critical language is based not only on the fact of its importance as a language in Africa, but also on the fact that it is the national language of two important countries in Africa, Tanzania and Kenya, which are also friendly to the USA and the West.
Kiswahili took an added importance to the US in the 1960's when it became the chosen language of Black Studies programs. Individuals involved in the Black Power Movement were dissatisfied with the fact that the US education was not global enough and thus demanded that the continent of Africa be part of a more inclusive curriculum. Kiswahili was seen as an important aspect in that curriculum because:

1. African-Americans regarded it as an instrument of re-identification with Africa for purposes of cultural and political revitalization. This meant re-establishing African customs, taking African names, and studying and speaking African languages. This position was also based on the fact that Kiswahili was seen as a lingua franca of Africa.

2. Another reason for the choice of Kiswahili is the fact that it transcended ethnic boundaries. This meant that Kiswahili, which is often seen as not belonging to a particular ethnic group in Africa, served the pan-African interests of Black Studies scholars. As a result of the choice of Kiswahili, students demanded it in most Black Studies departments and programs. Alternative community schools also instituted Kiswahili as a fundamental part of their curricula.

3. The language has its own intrinsic worth with an expansive body of literature. In addition to centuries of traditions of prose and poetry, Kiswahili publishing currently includes technical, scholarly and scientific works, newspapers, and an increasing number of novels and plays. These texts make knowledge of Kiswahili language even more necessary for an understanding of African thought and culture.
In the United States, Kiswahili falls among what are referred to as “less commonly taught” languages. The financing for its study and teaching largely comes from federal funding. From the government point of view, reasons for the study of Kiswahili are humanistic, economic (developing trade), and political (developing positive and productive foreign policy). However, in spite of the recognition of the importance of Africa to the United States, the African continent has not been assigned the importance it deserves in the United States foreign policy (Wiley and Dwyer, 1980). Similarly, Kiswahili instruction is not sufficiently supported in spite of vital energy, mineral interests, the historic ties to African-Americans, and the increasing importance of African government policies for the United States’ global, commercial, and political interests. The historic failure to develop instructional materials for Kiswahili reflects the general neglect of Africa by the United States in the 1950s and 1960s and not the newly understood strategic importance of Africa for the 1980s and 1990s. It was partly with this historical background that this study was conceived.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This study addresses the following research questions:
1. What motivates American college students to study Kiswahili as a foreign language?
2. Is there a correlation between motivation and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
3. Is there a correlation between ethnicity and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
4. Is there a correlation between gender and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

5. Is there a correlation between age and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

6. Is there a correlation between prior foreign language study experience and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

7. Is there a correlation between college class rank and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

8. What is Kiswahili students' assessment of the program, instructors, instructors' teaching methods, materials used, in-class and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams?

9. To what extent does the Kiswahili program satisfy student goals and expectations?

10. What framework can be established to improve Kiswahili as a foreign language program in the future?

1.5 ASSUMPTIONS

In this study the researcher made the following basic assumptions. First, the researcher assumed that before any learner enrolls in any foreign language program, some type of motivation drives him/her. Another assumption is that motivation could be maintained, enhanced or reduced by the interaction between the student, teacher, teaching methods, teaching materials, classroom activities, assignments, and types and methods of assessment among other factors. The researcher also assumed that motivation is not
dichotomous, but multifaceted in nature and thus avoided classification of motivation into only two categories (integrative and instrumental) as previous researchers have done. This study also assumed that students would be candid enough to provide feedback about their study in a college setting. As consumers of the program, the researcher assumed that students were better suited to give an evaluation of the program, the instructors, and teaching materials. This study assumed that motivation is a key factor in student success or failure in completion of a college foreign language program. As far as achievement is concerned, the researcher assumed that student grade point average (GPA) is a reliable measure in representing student attainment level. Finally, the researcher asked the subjects to rank various items on a scale of “A” (excellent) to “D” (poor). The researcher assumed that the interval between the ranks was the same.

1.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is informed by Motivational Systems Theory (MST) -a theoretical framework developed by D. Ford and M. Ford (1987). MST is an integrative theory that attempts to organize the various motivational constructs from different theories into one model. This theory is based on the living systems framework that represents an organismic-contextual model of human development. The factors represented in the model are summarized in the following mathematical formula:

\[
\text{Achievement/Competence} = \frac{(\text{Motivation} \times \text{Skill})}{\text{Biology} \times \text{Responsive Environment}}
\]
The formula above proposes that actual achievement and competence are the result of a motivated, skillful, and biologically capable person interacting with a responsive environment. In this formula, skill represents the various cognitive and information-processing functions as well as the actual behaviors necessary for competent action. Biology in this formula is defined in terms of the person's physical and biological capabilities that can enhance or constrain performance. Responsive environment includes the various contexts (home, school, community, etc.) that individuals move through that must provide positive opportunities for development (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). This model attempts to provide a comprehensive theory of motivation. It proposes that motivation is a psychological, future-oriented and evaluative phenomenon. This means that motivation provides the energy and direction for behavior as well as the evaluation of behavior in terms of whether to continue or to stop. This formula seems to support the interactionist theory in SLA, which postulates that intake is a result of mental capabilities and environment that provides the input.

The MST model seems to be in agreement with SLA theories. According to SLA theories, learning and acquiring a foreign language is a very complex process. Various theories have been advanced in an attempt to understand this process. Theories found in the field of Second/Foreign language have been broadly categorized into three types: (a) nativist theories, (b) environmentalist theories, and (c) interactionist theories (Ellis, 1995). The nativists posit that the ability to learn or acquire a second/foreign language is innate to all human beings. The environmentalists, on the other hand, claim that the environment shapes one's knowledge. Interactionists attempt to bring the nativists and
the environmentalists together by claiming that both internal and environmental forces interact to constitute one’s knowledge base. Since the current researcher acknowledges that learning is collectively constructed through interaction of the learner, content, and setting, this study is based primarily on an interactionist theoretical perspective. The researcher argues that the interaction between the Kiswahili learner, the teaching material, and the classroom setting may increase or decrease the student’s motivational level, and hence determine the student’s success or failure in the program, satisfaction or lack of it.

1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS

In this study, the following terms will be used as defined below:

Academic achievement: This phrase is used in this study to refer to a level of attainment in Kiswahili proficiency as reflected by students’ grades received at the end of the course. In this study, a student’s Kiswahili GPA (grade point average) is used to assess his/her achievement level.

Authentic material: This phrase will be used in this study to refer to materials originally prepared by native speakers for native speakers.

Classroom practices: This refers to any classroom activity in which Kiswahili students and their instructor engage.

College rank: This refers to the standing that students are placed in their respective colleges. The common ranks are freshmen, sophomore, junior, senior, and graduate student.
Ethnicity: This term will be used to mean one's socio-cultural background as defined by his/her 'racial' affiliation or identity.

Foreign language: This phrase is used to refer to language(s) taught and restricted to academic settings and are foreign to the learners. Examples are the teaching of African languages in Europe and in the US. The same would be the case for African languages taught in countries away from where those languages are regionally spoken; for example teaching Kiswahili in Ghana or Nigeria, teaching Yoruba or Zulu or Hausa in Kenya, etc.

Motivation: This term is used in this study to refer to an incentive, desire, force, or stimulus that drives students to enroll in Kiswahili as a foreign language. There is usually a distinction between motivation and motive. Motive refers to a need or desire that causes a person to act. In this study these two terms will be used interchangeably in this study.

Level of study: This means the stage in which a learner is in the Kiswahili program. The major levels are elementary, intermediate, and advanced.

Second language: This phrase is used to refer to any language that one can learn or acquire in a natural setting in addition to his/her first language. In a second language environment, the language being learned has a wider usage outside school. For example, English, French, and Portuguese in former British, French, and Portuguese colonies respectively.
CONCLUSION

In this chapter a brief historical background of the teaching of Kiswahili in the US was provided. In addition the importance of Kiswahili both as an intranational and international language was also presented and discussed. The statement of the problem, objectives of the study, significance of the study, research questions, assumptions, theoretical framework underlying the construct of motivation, and definition of terms are also provided in this chapter.

ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes the statement of the problem investigated, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, assumptions, theoretical framework, and research questions. Definition of terms is also presented.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter includes the background of the study, studies directly related to the current study, and studies tangentially related to this study.

CHAPTER 3
METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This chapter includes description of research design, description of variables and subjects, description of the development and implementation of the instrument,
description of scoring procedures, explanation of procedures followed, discussion of validity and various types of research errors, description and justification of various statistical techniques, and methods of analyses used.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter includes a description of demographic information of the respondents and a description of the findings pertinent to each of the research questions. A discussion of each research question is also presented.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter includes a summary of the research questions investigated, the procedures employed and results obtained, discussion of the implication of the findings, issues facing Kiswahili as a foreign language program, the researcher’s perspectives of the program, suggestions for further research, and limitations. Some of the challenges facing the teaching of Kiswahili as a foreign language are presented. A model for assessing Kiswahili language programs is also presented.

REFERENCES

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Copy of the cover letter explaining the study to the subjects

Appendix B: Copy of the instrument (survey questionnaire)

Appendix C: Kiswahili 101 – 104 syllabi
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents an extensive review of relevant literature to the study of motivation in second/foreign language settings. It includes the description of the following areas of motivation: integrative versus instrumental motivation, criticism against integrative-instrumental motivation dichotomy, other components of motivation, social dimension of motivation, motivation and ethnicity, motivation and classroom activities, motivation and the instructor, motivation and teaching material, motivation and assessment, motivation and gender, motivation and achievement, motivation and age, and motivation and prior foreign language study experience. Other topics discussed here include second versus foreign language contexts and language vitality.

2.1 INTEGRATIVE VERSUS INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION

In any learning situation, students bring different goals, aspirations, backgrounds, attitudes and motivations. Pre-conceived beliefs may limit language acquisition and thus may affect students' success. Most of the early studies regarding motivation indicated that some type of motivation was necessary for success in second/foreign language acquisition.
In fact, motivation contributed more to language learning than did teaching methodology, materials and technology (Gardner, 1985). Most of these early studies were inspired by the work of Canadian psychologists, Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert, who, together with their colleagues and students, grounded motivation research in a social psychological framework (Dörnyei, 1994). According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), an instrumentally oriented learner can be as intensively motivated as an integrative oriented one. They hypothesized, however, that the latter orientation would be better in the long run for sustaining the drive necessary to master the second language. Gardner and Lambert (1972) conducted their studies in a variety of second language contexts and populations. They found that French second language learners who held negative attitudes towards French-Americans also held negative views of themselves and conversely, those who held positive attitude towards the target language and culture also held positive views about themselves. It might be important to note that minorities like African-Americans and Hispanics were not involved in these studies (Bellinger, 1999). Such groups could have presented a unique sociopolitical and, more important, linguistic background and perhaps this group could have produced a difference in the findings.

Clowney and Legge (1979) undertook a comprehensive study of second language learners in 60 Black colleges and universities. They assessed the learners’ attitude toward foreign language learning. They found that 50% of respondents indicated that the ability to converse in the second language was the most important skill they wanted to acquire. Twenty-three percent of respondents believed that reading classical literature was least important. Thirty-one percent responded that writing in the second language was least
important. In addition, students indicated that including information on the interactions and influence of African culture on the target language could increase the level of satisfaction with classroom activities. These findings shed some light on the perspectives of African-Americans who had been ignored by the previous studies.

Clowney and Legge’s study also explored the influence of foreign language study on the student’s cultural identity. Fifty-four percent of the respondents agreed that the commitment to study a second language challenged one’s cultural identity. According to Clowney and Legge, the desire to know more about one’s own culture overrode that of subject’s knowledge of cultures exclusively presented as non-African. Presentation of non-African culture was the reason learners felt their cultural identity was threatened. The researchers concluded that this is a natural feeling in the process of becoming bilingual.

In a related study, Davis and Murkham (1991) aimed at assessing student attitudes toward foreign language study, examining specific foreign language programs and the cultural content of foreign language courses. Davis and Murkham found that African-American students held positive attitudes toward second language study. Eighty-four percent agreed they would like to converse with native speakers. Forty-three percent stated they would like to work in a foreign county. Eighty percent felt that foreign language was relevant to their career goal. Only 6% of the respondents expressed the view that second language study might endanger their own cultural identity. These findings were contrary to the findings by Clowney and Legge 11 years earlier. Davis and Murkham attributed this contrast to the possibility that African-American students were becoming more global in their orientation as a result of their increased opportunity for
awareness and contact with other cultures. As in Clowney and Legge's study, subjects felt displeasure with the lack of representation of African cultural contributions in second language instructional material. It was interesting then to find out how the African language program met or failed to meet student goals and expectations in the setting of the current study.

Gardner and Lambert's approach to the study of motivation did not go unchallenged. It was claimed that this approach was too influential and dominant, that alternative concepts were not seriously considered. As already noted, most of the early studies subdivided motivation into only two categories: integrative and instrumental motivation, but what really constituted these two types of motivation?

Integrative motivation is employed when learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group, and to identify themselves with and become a part of that society (Brown 1994). Integrative motivation is associated with a positive disposition toward the second language group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community (Dörnyei, 1994). According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), a learner is said to be integratively motivated when he/she wishes to identify with another ethnolinguistic group. Gardner and Lambert (1972) defined integrative motivation as one that reflects a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the target language. In this case, a student wishes to learn more about the other cultural community because he/she is interested in it to a point of eventually being accepted as a member of that other group. Gardner and Lambert
added that the learner's ethnocentric tendencies and his/her attitude towards the members of the target group are believed to determine how successful he/she will be in the new language.

DeCosta (1987) simply defined integrative motivation as a general desire to communicate with speakers of the target language. Integrative motivation to acquire a second/foreign language for purposes of integrating with the target language community requires a particular combination of attitudinal-motivational components to facilitate linguistic exchange, in which the focus is on linguistic production (DeCosta, 1987). DeCosta further noted that integrative motivation has been associated with superior attainment in language acquisition. Gardner (1985) had suggested this view earlier when he claimed that the weight of evidence supported the generalization that an integrative motive did facilitate second language acquisition.

In an expansion of the construct of integrative motivation, Graham (1994) made a distinction between integrative motivation and assimilative motivation. According to Graham, integrative motivation is the desire on the part of the language learner to learn the second language in order to communicate with, or find out about members of the second/foreign language culture. This does not necessarily imply direct contact with the target language group. Integrative motivation, therefore, takes on a less pervading affective character. One could be integratively oriented or motivated without desiring to lose oneself in the target culture (Brown, 1994). This balance is important especially where learners see the target language as a threat to their L1. Such a threat would be very
unlikely among Kiswahili learners. It is more likely that the Kiswahili student will acquire additional cultural behavior and possibly identities rather than surrender their native culture.

Assimilative motivation, on the other hand, is the drive to become an indistinguishable member of the speech community. Assimilation usually requires prolonged contact with the second language culture. Assimilative motivation is characteristic of persons who learn a second/foreign language and culture in order to identify almost exclusively with that culture. However, for assimilation to take place, the target language has to be regarded in high esteem by the learner. Learners must see learning a foreign language as constituting adding to their own cultural knowledge and not subtracting.

According to Dörnyei (1990), integrative motivation in foreign language learning (FLL) context is a multi-faceted dimension of motivation, comprised of four related components:

(i) Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people. For example, active sociocultural, language use and interest in foreign languages and cultures.
(ii) Desire to broaden one's view and avoid provincialism. For example, reading for non-professional purposes, desire for knowledge and values associated with foreign language.
(iii) Desire for new stimuli and challenges. For example, communicative sociocultural language use and language learning.
(iv) Desire to integrate into a new community, and therefore, spend sometime abroad.

In developing proficiency and integrative motivation toward communicative competence, additional issues emerge: the functional context of the communicative task and the attitudinal-motivational situation of the learner. It is a commonly shared view by researchers that learners will only learn what falls within their experience. It is, therefore, essential that students become actively involved in the practical application of the target language and somewhat familiar with the people that it represents so that interest will not wane and a positive experience will result (DeCosta, 1996).

Spolsky's study, (cited in Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991) showed that the student's greater desire to be like speakers of English than like speakers of their own language was significantly correlated with the students' English proficiency. Spolsky concluded that learning a second language was a key to possible membership of a secondary society, and that the desire to join that group is a major factor in learning a second language. However, the perspective, which held that integrative motivation was better than instrumental motivation, was challenged (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991). A notable example of this challenge came in Gardner and Lambert's study among Philippine students. In this study, students learning English as a foreign language were highly successful despite having instrumental motivation orientation. In another study, Gardner and Lambert found that instrumental motivation to learn English worked very well for French-speaking children living in Maine and attending an American high school. These findings led Gardner and Lambert to qualify their original statement about the superiority of having integrative motivation. In this regard, Larsen-Freeman and Long
(1991:174) noted: It seemed that in settings where there is urgency about mastering a second/foreign language, the instrumental approach to language study was extremely effective.

According to Spolsky one of the most important factors in second language development is the attitude of the learner towards the language and its speakers. Spolsky’s emphasis was on exploring learners’ attitudes towards target language, target language group, motivation, and second language proficiency. Spolsky found a significant correlation between proficiency in English and integrative motivation. Spolsky concluded that a person learns a language better when he wants to be a member of the group speaking that language. The current study attempted to establish whether similar conclusion could be reached about American students studying Kiswahili in a foreign language setting.

In a study conducted by Bjorg (1987) among students studying Norwegian, European and American students were found to be more integratively motivated than the Middle-Eastern, African, and Asian students who were instrumentally motivated. European students had the best grades and the Asian students had the poorest grades. In this study, a weak positive correlation between integrative motivation and language proficiency was found. A negative correlation between instrumental motivation and grades was found. No positive correlation between grades and integrative motivation was found. Motivation variables explained very little of the variance in language proficiency. In Bjorg’s study, cultural distance was the best predictor of variance in the groups of students with various language and cultural background.
Svanes (1988) argued that the more one has in common with the target language group, the easier it will be to learn the language. Svanes added that if the target language belonged to the same type of language as the mother tongue, this would facilitate language learning, and that if one were familiar with the culture of the host country, the easier it would be to communicate, thus promoting language learning. Closeness in cultural background could imply that one’s culture is respected and that one is in a way a member of a cultural majority. Learning a second language would then be felt as an “additive” as opposed to “subtracting” something valuable from one’s culture. Closeness in culture would promote an integrative orientation towards the target language culture and people, thereby developing an integrative motivation to study the target language. When one belongs to the same cultural majority as the target group, interest in the target language culture and the people is not felt as a threat to one’s identity.

Social distance (cultural, technical, economic, and political) between the second/foreign language learning group and the target language group is an important factor in language learning (Schumann, 1976, 1978). If there are great differences between the cultures of the target language group and the second language-learning group, the latter group may find the language more difficult and language learning might be impeded. However, research has shown that similarity might lead to difficulty and differences might not necessarily translate to difficulty (Odlin, 1989). One of the problems with similarities is overgeneralization. Second/foreign language learners might assume that words that sound or look similar with words in their L1 mean the same. However, this might not be the case.
The feeling of belonging to a cultural majority may also make the development of an integrative motivation more difficult. A member of a cultural minority group may feel it necessary to cling to his or her own culture and limit interest in the target language culture or contact with the target language people because it may be viewed as a threat to the individual's ethnic identity (Bellinger, 1999). This feeling may lead to strong in-group identification by the second/foreign language group who may feel reluctant to learn the language of the host country.

According to the Hermeneutic principles, some pre-understanding about the language may facilitate communication thus leading to high proficiency in second/foreign language acquisition. Would the same principle hold for some American students studying Kiswahili as a foreign language? One factor that might create a difference in pre-conceived ideas about Kiswahili and African language in general is the negative way in which Africa, its people and consequently their languages have been portrayed by the media outside of Africa. Such a negative image is likely to have an effect on student motivation.

Learner characteristics also affect the degree of integration. In any group of learners, there are differences in intelligence, degree and type of previous educational experience, language learning experience, phonetic ability, attitude, social background, and age. Therefore, as DeCosta concluded, the teaching of foreign languages must have a degree of flexibility regarding the learners preferred cognitive style and addressing the learners communicative intentions and the type and degree of motivational factors which
will bring the learner to achieve the maximum of his/her potential. The factors enumerated here play a significant role in determining the degree of integration.

Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, refers to motivation to acquire a foreign language as a means of attaining instrumental goals, for example: furthering a career, reading technical material, desire to spend time abroad, or translation (Brown 1994). Instrumental motivation is one that reflects a desire to gain social recognition, the practical value and advantage of learning a new language (Lambert, 1972). Dörnyei (1990) added that instrumental motivation is a set of motives involving individual's striving for better career prospects. A second/foreign language learner is said to be instrumentally motivated when he/she learns a language for utilitarian purposes, such as furthering a career, improving social status or meeting an educational requirement (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991). Instrumental motivation is an orientation associated with a desire to learn a second language for pragmatic gains (Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1994).

Gardner found instrumental motivation to be positively correlated to language learning in a foreign language setting.

Instrumental motivation has been found to be a weak predictor of foreign language achievement in several studies (Garner and Lambert, 1972). However, it appears to be much more powerful in other contexts where learners have little or no interest in the target language culture and few or no opportunities to interact with its members (Gardner and Lambert, 1972 and Lukmani, as cited by Ellis, 1994).

Gardner and Lambert found that a measure of instrumental motivation accounted for a significant proportion of variance in Tagalog learners of second language English in
the Philippines. In a similar study, Lukmani (1972) found that instrumental motivation was more important than integrative motivation in non-westernized female learners of second language English in Bombay. These studies suggested that social situation could help to determine what kind of motivation learners have and what kind is most important for language learning. According to Ellis (1994), in some second (as opposed to foreign) language settings instrumental motivation may be more important than integrative motivation. Laine (1984) found a strong instrumental motivation in learning English as a foreign language among secondary school students in Finland, but also found that integrative motivation was correlated with high achievement.

Oller (1977) investigated the attitudes of Chinese students learning English as a second language in the USA. Oller employed Spolsky’s measurement method, and the Gardner and Lambert Orientation Index included in the Attitude Motivation Battery Test. Results supported integrative-instrumental distinctions. Oller suggested that integrative orientation could be redefined in reference to affective personality traits such as kindness, friendliness, sincerity, and helpfulness. Regarding instrumental orientation, Oller suggested that it might be more usefully defined in relation to such cognitive and impersonal traits as intelligence, efficiency, material success, and power. Oller found an instrumental motivation to be the best predictor of language proficiency in a second language setting. She also found a negative correlation between integrative motivation and language proficiency. Positive attitudinal factors were the best predictors of attained levels of English as a second language proficiency. Due to the simplistic nature of the
integrative-instrumental motivation dichotomy, a number of criticisms have been raised against it. A few of those criticisms are presented below to illustrate the weaknesses of this dichotomy.

2.2 CRITICISM AGAINST INTEGRATIVE-INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION DICHOTOMY

While motivation is considered an important factor in language acquisition, results from various studies are not clear. Spolsky (1969), Laine (1984), and Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that integrative motivation was positively related to achievement in language proficiency. Many of these early findings of the integrative-instrumental motivation dichotomy (Lambert 1972 and Spolky 1969) indicated that integrative motivation generally accompanied higher scores on proficiency in a foreign language. These findings led to the conclusion that integrative motivation was an important requirement for successful foreign language learning. However, evidence soon began to accumulate that challenged these early findings. Lukmani (1977) demonstrated that among the Marathi-speaking Indian students learning English in India, those with higher instrumental motivation scored higher in tests of English proficiency. Results of Lukmani's study suggested that learners who showed best second language performance, as measured by Second Language Achievement Test, were those that were motivated to learn English for instrumental reasons, and not those who wanted to interact with or become a part of the target language group. English proficiency arose from a desire to use English as a tool with which to understand and cope with demands of modern life. In
a similar study Kachru (1977 and 1992) noted that Indian English was one example of a
described variety that could be acquired very successfully for instrumental reasons alone (cited in
Brown 1994).

Au (1994) reviewed different studies of the integrative-instrumental construct and
concluded that both its theoretical underpinnings and the instruments used to measure
motivation were suspect. The dichotomy of integrative-instrumental motivation was
based on notions about cultural beliefs and therefore numerous ambiguities have crept into
the construct, making it difficult to associate foreign language success to certain
presumably integrative or instrumental causes. However, such variable findings in
empirical investigations do not necessarily invalidate the integrative-instrumental
construct, but rather help to strengthen the claim that there is no single means of learning
a second/foreign language: some learners in some contexts are more successful in learning
a language if they are integratively oriented, and others in different contexts
benefit from an instrumental orientation. These varied findings also suggest that the two
types of motivation are not mutually exclusive. Most situations involve a mixture of each
type of motivation (Brown 1994), and sometimes other forms of motivation that cannot be
categorized as either integrative or instrumental.

The instrumental-integrative construct has also helped to put some of the recent
interest in affective variables into perspective. It may be easy to conclude that second
language learning is an emotional activity involving many affective variables, and to assert
that learning a second language involves taking on a new identity. However, some studies
(example Kachru 1992) have shown that while some contexts of foreign language learning

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involve an identity crisis, there are a good many legitimate language learning contexts in
which that identity crisis may be minimized, or seen as less of a personal affective crisis
and more of a cognitive crisis (Brown 1994).

While acknowledging the importance of the Gardnerian socio-psychological
model, researchers were also calling for a more pragmatic, education-centered approach
to motivation research, which would be consistent with the perceptions of practicing
teachers, and which would be in line with the current results of mainstream educational
psychological research (Dörnyei, 1994). Dörnyei added that although Gardner's
motivation theory does include a motivation dimension, the main emphasis of his model is
on general motivational components grounded on social milieu rather than in second
language classroom. In addition, Gardner’s motivation construct does not include details
on the cognitive aspect of motivation to learn.

Different studies show that there are conditions under which instrumental
motivation leads to more successful learning, than does integrative motivation
(McLaghlin, 1985). There are also other instances when high achievement is associated
with both instrumental and integrative motivation. Why does research on integrative and
instrumental motivation produce discrepant findings? Clement and Kruidenier (1983)
have offered explanations. They argue that one of the causes is ambiguity in the definition
of integrative and instrumental motivation. This means that a factor could be categorized
as integrative in one study and as instrumental in another study, thus producing conflicting
results regarding the same element. A second cause advanced for discrepancy in findings
has to do with contextual factors. Clement and Kruidenier argued that someone studying
a target language as a foreign language would less likely aspire to integrate with the target-language community than someone for whom the target language was a second language. Thus the type of motivation and its strength are likely to be determined less by generalizable principles and more by 'who learns what in what milieu' (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991).

According to Clement and Kruidenier then, Americans cannot claim to get integratively motivated through the study of Kiswahili since Kiswahili is offered as a foreign language. This claim cannot be true because there are different degrees of integration. For example, a mere interest in knowing about another people's language and culture may constitute integration in its lesser sense. In addition, the demand during the Black Power Movement for the introduction of African languages and culture in the curriculum did not necessarily mean that African-Americans wanted to be regarded as Africans per se, but it was a way of understanding their roots and identifying with Africa and its people. The inclusion of Black history and experiences in the curriculum was crucial for the sake of coming generations.

A study by Strong (1984) found that the students' intensity of integrative motivation increased relative to their English language proficiency. The explanation that Strong gave for this finding was that motivation does not necessarily promote acquisition: those who meet with success in SLA become more motivated to study. This factor may explain why the number of students reduces as one moves to higher levels in foreign language classes. However, academic success is an interplay of many factors. Some of these factors are examined in the later part of this chapter.
According to Dulay and Burt (1982), between the two types of motivation, integrative motivation seemed to have a greater impact on second language acquisition than instrumental motivation. Gardner (1985) further pointed out that integrative motivation was especially important for the development of communication skills. However, later investigations demonstrated that in situations where the practical value of the second/foreign language was high, instrumental motivation might be a powerful spur towards second language proficiency. Even though both types of motivation could positively influence the rate and quality of second language acquisition, each type of motivation was as effective as the other under appropriate conditions.

A study conducted by Dörnyei (1990) found that course achievement had a significant positive correlation only with need achievement. In Dörnyei's study two factors seemed to affect course achievement negatively: desire to spend time abroad and communicative sociocultural language use. Dörnyei's study implied that people who merely wished to be able to communicate in the foreign language in order to make themselves understood when going abroad tended not to be conscientious language learners unless these motives were accompanied by other factors. In Dörnyei's study, course attendance did not have any significant positive correlation with any motivation factors. Dörnyei argued that low correlation confirmed that it was mainly the teacher's personality and the atmosphere in the classroom that determined the attendance rate, regardless of the students' original motivation. However, this conclusion could be said to be too general. The context where the study took place may differ. For example, at the research site, the African Language Program gives students 20% of the total final grade.
for attendance and participation. These points serve as an incentive to urge students to attend. Many students may take advantage of it for they realize all they have to work for is 80% of their final grade. However, these points could be contested due to the difference they could make for academically strong students who could end up with a lower grade for absenteeism, and vice versa.

All of the above studies support the idea of the importance of motivation in foreign language learning. However, it is important to note that these studies were conducted with commonly taught foreign languages, that is, languages with a long tradition in American curriculum. There is no such study currently available that has been done with African languages or any other less commonly taught language.

As already seen above, motivation is a multifarious construct and there are many factors that have been ignored by the instrumental-integrative dichotomy in the acquisition of a second/foreign language. According to Oxford, Shearin, Butler, and Young (1993) some of the motivational factors often ignored include clarity of goals, relevance of goals to the learner, personal beliefs about success or failure and about the origins of success or failure, beliefs about the worth of language learning compared to the costs, the nature of the teacher’s feedback and assistance to the learner, the ability of the learner to provide self-reward and self-evaluation, the diversity of learning styles, developmental changes in motivation over time, instructional features, richness or poverty of the language environment, and the learner’s age and gender.

Given the multiplicity of factors that influence motivation, it was not safe for this study to tie itself into an integrative-instrumental dichotomy. Instead, this study examined
different dimensions that, in view of the researcher, may affect motivation and academic achievement of Kiswahili students. Earlier studies examined mainly the psychological dimension of motivation. In this study, the researcher examined briefly the social dimension of motivation. In order to make a better understanding of motivation and academic achievement, the researcher also examined motivation and the teacher factors, teaching methods, teaching materials, in-class and out-of-class activities, and the learners' ethnic backgrounds.

2.3 OTHER MOTIVATION COMPONENTS

2.3.1 Intrinsic-Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsically motivated behaviors are the ones that an individual performs to receive internal rewards (for example the joy or satisfaction of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity). Extrinsically motivated behaviors, on the other hand, are the ones that an individual performs to receive some extrinsic rewards (for example good grades) or to avoid punishment (Dörnyei, 1994). Intrinsic motivation is potentially a central motivator of the educational process. Extrinsic motivation has traditionally been seen as something that can undermine intrinsic motivation in that students lose their natural intrinsic interest in an activity if they have to do it to satisfy some extrinsic requirement (for example compulsory readings in classes).

Traditional school settings with their teacher domination, grades, tests, and a host of institutional constraints that glorify content, correctness, product, and competitiveness tend to cultivate extrinsic motivation and fail to bring the learner into a collaborative
process of competence building (Dörnyei 1994). Research on intrinsic/extrinsic motivation has shown that under certain circumstances, extrinsic rewards can be combined with, or even leads to intrinsic motivation (if they are sufficiently self-determined and internalized). Self-determination (that is, autonomy) is seen as a prerequisite for any behavior to be intrinsically rewarding. Rewards play a significant role in an attempt to sustain learner motivation. Depending on the level of instruction, and age of learners, rewards could range from tangible objects to a word of recognition for student effort in the learning process.

2.3.2 Cognitive Components of motivation

Cognitive theories of motivation view motivation to be a function of a person’s thought rather than of some instinct, need, drive or state. Information encoded and transformed into belief is the source of action. Regarding cognitive components of motivation, Weiner (1992) identified three major systems: attribution theory, learned helplessness, and self-efficacy theory. All these three concern the individuals self appraisal of what he or she can or cannot do, which will in turn affect how he or she strives for achievement in the future. Attribution theory is the study of how causal ascription of past failures and successes affect future goal expectancy. Learned helplessness refers to a designed, pessimistic, helpless state that develops when the person wants to succeed, but feels that success is impossible or beyond him or her for some reasons. In this case the possibility of a desired goal does not appear to be increased by any action or effort. Self-efficacy refers to an individual’s judgment of his or her ability to perform a specific task.
2.3.3 Self-confidence

Self-confidence is the belief that one has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals or perform tasks competently. According to Clement (1980), self-confidence has two components: (a) language use anxiety (the affective aspect), and (b) self-evaluation of second language proficiency (the cognitive aspect). Self-confidence is a major motivational subsystem in foreign language learning situation (Clement, Dörnyei, and Noel 1994).

2.3.4 Need for achievement

Individuals with high need for achievement are interested in excellence for its own sake, tend to initiate achievement activities, work with heightened intensity at these tasks, and persist in the face of failure. In institutional or academic contexts, where academic achievement situations are very salient, need for achievement plays a particularly important role (Dörnyei, 1994).

2.4 THE SOCIAL DIMENSION OF SECOND LANGUAGE MOTIVATION

According to research, motivational psychologists have been looking for the motors of human behavior in the individual rather than in the social being, focusing traditionally on concepts such as instinct, drive, arousal, need, and on personality traits like anxiety and need for achievement, and more recently on cognitive appraisal of success and failure, ability, and self-esteem (Dörnyei, 1994). Second language setting presents a
unique situation due to multifaceted nature and role of language. Second language learning setting is also: (i) a communication coding system that can be taught as a school subject, (ii) an integral part of an individual's identity involved in almost all mental activities, and (iii) a channel of social organization embedded in the culture of the community where it is used. Therefore, second language learning is a more complex process than simply mastering new information and knowledge. In addition to the environmental and cognitive factors associated with learning in educational psychology, it involves various personality traits and social components. When considering motivation in second language learning, all these psychological fields need to be brought together.

Schumann (1976) addressed these factors by the social dimension of motivation model he developed. In this model, social distance was a sub-component of social dimension of motivation. According to Schumann, social distance pertains to the individual in a social group in contact with a social group whose members speak a different language. The greater the social distance between the two groups, the more difficult it would be for the members of the second language learning group to acquire the target language.

According to Schumann, social distance is composed of eight parameters:

1. Is the second language learning group politically, culturally, technically, economically dominant, non-dominant, or subordinate?

2. Is the integration pattern of the second language learning group assimilation, acculturation, or preservation?

3. What is the second language-learning group’s degree of closure?
4. Is the second language-learning group cohesive?

5. What is the size of the second language-learning group?

6. Are the cultures of the two groups congruent?

7. What are the attitudes of the two groups toward each other?

8. What is the second language-learning group's intended length of residence in the target language area?

Any or all of the above factors could have an effect on the success of language learning. If the status of the second language group is roughly equal to that of the target language group, then the former is considered non-dominant in relation to the latter and social distance becomes minimal. Such a situation should facilitate intergroup contact and thus promote the acquisition of the target language.

Schumann postulated that there are three strategies that a second language learning group might adopt:

1. Assimilation: This requires giving up one's lifestyle and values and adopting those of the target language group.

2. Acculturation: This is adapting to the lifestyle and values of the target group while maintaining one's cultural patterns for use in intragroup relations. This approach promotes a level of learning that falls in the middle on a maximum-minimum second language-learning continuum.

3. Preservation: This is an integration strategy where the second language-learning group completely rejects the lifestyle and values of the target language group.
This approach is at the minimum end of the integration scale. It promotes and maintains maximum social distance. Given that this study was conducted in a foreign language setting, social distance might not affect learners’ achievement in Kiswahili as it would be the case if the study was conducted in a second language setting.

2.5 MOTIVATION AND ETHNICITY

According to W. C. McCready (1983) ethnicity is a cultural attachment of group members to their own background, history, or heritage. Ethnicity is a bond (self-perceived and/or ascribed by others, with or without objective justification) to a historically continuous authenticity collectively.

Sociolinguistic theories of language learning and group identification have attempted to explain the motivation of minority students who might resist becoming proficient in a second language because it might interfere with their ethnic group identification. Clowney and Legge (1978) found that a high percentage (57%) of college students they studied felt that foreign language learning would interfere with their own cultural identity. These researchers theorized that students would rather study languages and literatures that were more closely related to the African-American experience. However, a later study by Davis and Markham (1991) seemed to contradict Clowney and Legge’s study. Davis and Markham found a much lower percentage (6%) of students they surveyed who felt that studying a foreign language would interfere with their own sense of cultural identity. The researchers suggested that this variance was perhaps due to the global content of foreign languages. According to Davis and Markham, students
currently feel less intimidated by studying foreign languages. In addition, lack of interference with cultural identity and foreign language learning is due to recent influx of multicultural materials that are presented in foreign language classes.

A student’s ethnic origin may affect their foreign language learning expectations. According to Pintrich and Schunk (1996), much of the research on ethnic differences has been theoretical in terms of conceptualizing motivation and has often relied on deficit models and compared different ethnic groups on constructs that allow for simple dichotomies between those low and high in certain characteristics. However, some research findings showed that one’s cultural background (coupled with other variables like socio-economic status) correlated with one’s motivation and achievement.

A few studies that have focused on African-American students in foreign language classes have indicated that they (African-Americans) wanted content concerning their ethnic heritage to be integrated into instruction of commonly taught languages (CTLs). African-Americans also wanted language instruction to be more sensitive to people of their race who speak that particular language elsewhere in the world. For African-Americans studying an African language provided a window of understanding to a continent from which their forefathers came, a potential ethnic connection that may improve self-esteem (Temu, 1992).

Another element that has emerged from studies focusing on African-American foreign language learners is a change in perspective. Given the socio-economic conditions of majority of African-Americans, attainment of higher education has come to be viewed as a stepping-stone toward economic improvement. This view then seems to lean more on
instrumental than integrative orientation. This view was expressed in studies conducted by Leblac (1972) and Lassiter (1989). Instrumental orientation among African Americans is strengthened by the fact that there are very limited opportunities to integrate with Kiswahili speakers. The situation is made even worse by limited travel opportunities for people majoring in African languages.

Another major hindrance to the attraction of African languages is negative portrayal of Africa, its people and culture by the mass media and near total omission of Africa in American educational curricula. If students have an opportunity to hear, read about, and have contact with the people that are in the target language community, their motivation may become more integrative without necessarily having a physical contact. The degree of awareness could constitute an element of integrative motivation.

Although there are no solid numbers documenting the number of African-American students taking foreign language classes, it is evident in most high school or university classes that Africa-Americans make a small proportion. In predominantly white institutions, these proportions would reflect the small numbers in attendance. National figures indicate that very few African-American college students major in foreign language studies (Wilberschield and Dessier, 1995). Lack of foreign language majors produces a small number of foreign language teachers. A small number of teachers provide few African-American role models for students who would be impressed seeing an instructor who is a minority.

There is a general consensus that ethnic identity can exert a profound influence on second language learning. This influence can take three possible forms: corresponding to
normative, socio-psychological, and socio-structural (Ellis, 1995). Research based on a normative view of the relationship between ethnic identity and second language learning seeks to establish to what extent membership of a particular ethnic group affects second language achievement. The idea here is that of cultural distance between the native and the target language. It has been claimed that the more distant the two cultures are, the more difficult second language learning is and, therefore, the lower the achievement levels. In a study by Svanes (1988) and reported by Ellis (1995), cultural distance was found to have an effect on student achievement. Svanes investigated the acquisition of second language Norwegian by three ethnic groups in Norway. One of the groups consisted of learners from Europe and America who shared a common Western culture. The second group consisted of learners from the Middle East and Africa, all of whom had contact with Western culture. The third group contained students from Asian countries. The findings indicated that the Western students had the best grades, the Middle Eastern and African students had the next best grades, and the Asians had the poorest grades. Following these findings, one could argue that students whose culture is ‘near’ the target language culture are likely to perform better than those whose culture is ‘distant’ from the target culture. However, the above study could only explain why Western students had the best grades, but couldn’t explain why Arabs and Africans had the second best and Asians the poorest. In the case of the present study people of African descent are expected to perform better in Kiswahili (and possibly other African languages) than those whose cultural origin is distant from Africa.
A socio-psychological view of the relationship between ethnic identity and second language proficiency emphasizes the role of attitudes. As Ellis (1995) noted, the attitudes that learners hold toward the learning of a particular second/foreign language reflect the intersection of their views about their own ethnic identity and those about the target-language culture. These views influence second language learning. Failure to acquire a second/foreign language is associated with a strong ethnic identity and negative attitudes towards the target language culture.

A socio-structural view of the relationship between attitudes and second language learning has been explored within the general theoretical framework of interpersonal accommodation. According to ethnolinguistic identity theory, members of an in-group may or may not adopt positive linguistic distinctiveness strategies when communicating with members of an out-group. Speakers evaluate a situation and then decide whether to adopt status or solidarity, and person-centered or group-centered strategies (Giles and Ryan, 1982). In situations where people emphasize solidarity with their own in-group, linguistic divergence from the out-group is likely, whereas in situations where they are more concerned with status and are person-centered, convergence is likely (Ellis, 1995). Successful second/foreign language learning is held to occur when learners engage in frequent and long-term convergence.

Cultural identity has been shown to be a negative factor in foreign language acquisition. According to Shropshire (1999), perception of cultural identity has been shown to have negative effect on academic performance of some African-American students. One question that lingers in one's mind is whether cultural identity interferes
with students’ motivation in learning a foreign language or does it affect how they view themselves as students? Results of a few studies regarding this subject indicate that foreign language does not relate to the students’ perception of cultural identity. In addition, description of cultural identity does not impede student motivation to study and learn a foreign language.

2.6 MOTIVATION AND CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

Classrooms are active places where teachers and students interact constantly with one another. In classrooms teachers ask questions, provide feedback, praise and criticize, respond to students’ questions and offer assistance when students experience difficulty. Before a teacher can assign any activity in the classroom, s/he must decide (in the planning stage) how students are going to be grouped. Pintrich and Schunk (1996) identified three types of structures or groups: competitive, cooperative, and individualistic. Competitive situations are those in which the goals of individuals are negatively linked such that if one person attains his/her goal, the chances of the rest attaining theirs are lessened. Cooperative situations are those in which the goals of the group members are positively linked such that one individual can attain his/her goal only if others attain theirs. In individualistic situations, there is no link between the goals of individuals; accomplishment or non-accomplishment of one’s personal goal has no effect on goal attainment of others. The way students are assigned or assign themselves to a group has an effect on the ultimate attainment of student goals. Attainment of goals determines the development and maintenance of motivation level.
There are about six dimensions of classrooms that affect motivation: task design, distribution of authority, recognition of students, grouping arrangement, evaluation practices, and time allocation. The task dimension concerns the design of learning activities and assignments. Various motivational strategies involve ways to structure tasks to develop a mastery goal orientation in students. These strategies include: making learning interesting, using variety and personal challenges, helping students set realistic goals, and developing in students organizational and management skills and effective task strategies. The authority dimension involves the degree of opportunity that students have to take leadership roles and develop a sense of independence and control over learning activities. Allowing students to participate in decisions, giving students choices and leadership roles, and teaching them skills that allow them to take responsibility for learning and foster authority. Recognition relates to the formal and informal use of rewards, incentives, and praise, which have important consequences for students' motivation to learn. Grouping dimension focuses on students' ability to work effectively with others. Evaluation involves methods used to monitor and assess student learning. Some evaluation strategies that enhance motivation are: evaluating students for individual progress and mastery, giving students opportunity to improve their work, and varying methods of evaluation. This dimension is addressed at length in the section on motivation and assessment. The last dimension is time. Time encompasses the appropriateness of the workload, the pace of instruction, and the time allotted for completing work. Effective strategies for enhancing mastery goal orientation are to adjust time or task requirements for students having trouble completing work. Structures affect student motivation by the
cues they provide which inform them about their capabilities. Competitive structures accentuate the importance of ability and social comparisons of one person's work with that of others. Motivation is enhanced when students believe they are performing better than others. On the other hand, motivation is weakened for those students who perceive their work as inferior to that of others. In competitive situations, it commonly happens that a few students receive rewards most of the time. These situations may not motivate most of the students in class. In individualistic structures, rewards are based on self-improvement. In this structure, students compare their present outcomes with their prior performance, rather than comparing personal performance with that of others. Students who notice that they are improving are likely to feel a sense of self-efficacy for learning and be motivated to continue to improve. In cooperative structures, students share in the successes or failures as a function of their collective performance. However, it is important to note that failure in competitive structures has more deleterious effects on self-perceptions than does failure in noncompetitive ones. In cooperative groups low-achievers share in the group success as much as high achievers. At the same time, however, when cooperative groups fail, dissatisfaction can run high regardless of one's individual performance (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). For low achievers, successful cooperative groups can help to build efficacy, but unsuccessful ones can have the same type of negative effect on self-efficacy.

Peers as models also impact student motivation. Observing a similar peer performing a task well instates a sense of self-efficacy. Students believe that if peers can succeed, they can as well (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). This sense of efficacy motivates
students to work on the task productively and is validated as students experience success. It is therefore important for teachers to give students opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned by performing. Observing similar others succeed raises observers' self-efficacy and motivates them to persevere in the task. Once students become engaged in the task and experience success, this initial sense of efficacy is substantiated and motivation improves.

According to DeCosta (1996), what goes on in the classroom can have a tremendous impact on learner's views of the communication process. He added that the classroom arena could provide students with practice in using the language, and the skills of understanding how to use it. Some types of classroom activities may promote language anxiety, particularly those that expose the students to negative evaluations by the teacher or by the peers (Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1994). Situation-specific factors significantly also contribute to second language motivation in a foreign language classroom context.

Group dynamics have been a core area of social psychology for a number of years and it is concerned with the scientific analysis of the dynamics of small group behavior, focusing on issues like formation and development, group structure and group processes (Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1994). Although group dynamics have considerable implications for education in general, it has particular relevance to second language instruction. Current language teaching methodologies aim at developing the learner's communicative competence by promoting classroom interaction between learners as they participate in communicative events. The quality and quantity of such interaction is a
function of the social structure and milieu of the class. One concept central to the explanation of many group-related phenomena is group cohesion. Evans and Dion's meta-analysis of studies addressing the relationship between group cohesion and group performance (as reported by Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1994) found a significance positive relationship between the two variables. Most foreign language instructors, including Kiswahili instructors, are known to utilize groups in their classes. What criteria do instructors use to assign groups? Does the criteria ensure cohesion and ultimate success of the assigned activity? Foreign language instructors need to ask themselves these questions before they resort in assigning group activities.

Research has confirmed that situation-specific factors significantly contribute to second language motivation in a foreign language classroom context (Julkunen, 1989, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels 1994). Research has also shown that certain types of classroom activities may promote language anxiety, particularly those that expose students to negative assessment by the teacher or by peers, and thus lowering student motivation (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986). Other factors that may affect motivation in the classroom are group dynamics. Group dynamics involve the scientific analysis of small group behavior, focusing on group formation and development, group structure, and group processes (Clement, et al 1994). Group dynamics have considerable implications in education in general and it has particular relevance to second language instruction.

One concept central to the explanation of many group-related phenomena is group cohesion, or the strength of the relationship linking the members to one another and to the
group itself. Evans and Dion's (1991) meta-analysis of studies addressing the relationship between group cohesion and group performance found a significant positive relationship between the two variables, indicating that cohesive groups, on average, tend to be more productive than non-cohesive groups. The current study examined whether the same results could be found among Kiswahili students at college level.

2.7 MOTIVATIONS AND THE INSTRUCTOR

The atmosphere that instructors create in the classroom can have an effect on the motivation of the students. Classroom climate usually is established through teacher-student interaction. According to Pintrich and Schunk, (1996) classroom atmosphere is normally described using terms like warm, cold, permissive, democratic, autocratic, and learner-centered. An autocratic (or authoritarian) teacher is usually harsh, takes control, tells students what to do, assumes full responsibility, and does not allow students to make contributions. A democratic (or collaborative) teacher, on the other hand, works with students cooperatively, stimulating them to complete their projects, poses questions, and have them share their ideas. Although a democratic teacher assumes ultimate responsibility for the outcomes, s/he encourages problem-solving and decision-making by the students. A permissive (laissez-faire) teacher uses a hands-off approach and lets students work on tasks with minimal supervision. S/he does not take responsibility for the tasks and does not provide structure, suggestions, or assistance in completing the projects.

Research has shown that group productivity is highest with authoritarian and democratic styles. Under authoritarian teachers, students follow the instructions and
complete tasks. Although effective, this group is characterized by anxiety, tension, submission, and rebellion. When the teacher (authoritarian) is around, production is high, but when s/he is absent productivity drops, and aggressive and destructive behavior results. Students under permissive teachers show the lowest productivity because it is essentially leaderless (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). Students under a permissive teacher do not achieve consensus on their goals and work individually without being organized. Even though students under such a teacher seem to enjoy their work, there is hostility and scapegoating and little is accomplished.

Students prefer a democratic type of a teacher. A democratic type of leadership in the classroom produces students that are task oriented, cooperative, and friendly. Students in a democratic classroom display a high degree of independence and initiative, continue to work productively even in the teacher's absence, and endure frustrations well. Democratic classrooms have the added advantage of teaching students to collaborate on projects.

In the planning of instruction and interaction with students, teachers can structure classroom events to have different effects on student motivation. Almost everything an instructor does has potential motivational impact on students. This includes the obvious ways that teachers attempt to influence student motivation like setting goals and objectives, rewarding good performances, and attempting classroom management and minimizing and dealing with disciplinary problems. Teachers' planning and instructional activities affect student cognition and learning and, in turn, teachers' thoughts and behaviors are influenced by how students react to classroom activities.
Many models of teacher planning are prescriptive and spell out what teachers should do to foster student learning. They include such steps as specifying learning objectives, selecting teacher and student activities, organizing activities, and delineating evaluation methods (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). These methods are linear and rational in the sense that they assume that planning requires orderly thinking concerning ways to attain objectives. A second planning model (according to Pintrich and Schunk) conceives of planning as beginning with teacher decisions about the types of learning activities to be used. Within this context objectives arise and are integrated with activities. This means that the end of teaching and its means become integrated. It is important to note that current advances in learning theory have led some researchers away from these two types of models and towards exploring teachers' thought processes prior to, during and after teaching. In this approach, planning and decision-making occur during all phases of teaching. This approach is based on information-processing and cognitive theories, which stress the reception, organization, and encoding of information in memory. Teachers' planning is influenced by the characteristics of their students, such as needs, abilities and motivation (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). In addition, teachers are always concerned with fostering attainment of objectives given the abilities and competencies of students, and how much instruction and activities will appeal to students' interests. In addition to other factors that may influence teachers' decision-making, motivation is the most important (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). Although this is not the focus of this study, it may be important to note that there exists a reciprocal influence between teachers and students. Teachers affect students motivation and learning through their planning, but
student reactions to instruction cause teachers to take stock of the situation and implement strategies that they believe would have a better effect on motivation and learning.

Teacher feedback is another source of efficacy information. Teachers who tell students that they are performing well or give corrective information help substantiate students’ initial sense of efficacy for learning (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). Periodic reviews in which students perform well convey that students have learned and retained the information, which enhances motivation for further learning because it validates students’ belief about their competence. Feedback informing students that answers are correct motivates them because it indicates that the students are becoming more competent and are capable of further learning (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). Pintrich and Schunk added that feedback indicating an error also could build motivation and efficacy if followed by corrective information showing the students how to perform better. The belief of individuals that they are capable of learning raises motivation and leads to better skill acquisition. Positive persuasive feedback creates feelings of efficacy. Students experience high efficacy when told they are capable of learning by a trustworthy source such as a teacher. On the other hand, students may discount otherwise trustworthy sources if they believe the sources do not fully understand the task demands or contextual factors.

Teachers as models are a vicarious source of self-efficacy information to students. Students who observe teachers explain and demonstrate concepts and skills are apt to believe that they are capable of learning. Teachers also enhance motivation through the use of interesting displays and presentations that capture and hold student attention.
Attention is a critical component of learning and the interest generated is motivational. Teachers often provide information about why learning a particular subject is important and how it will help students in different tasks. By providing this information, teachers motivate students to attend to the material, organize and rehearse information to be remembered, and use the material as needed (Pintrich and Schunk, 1996). In this respect, it is expected that Kiswahili instructors inform their students about the importance of studying Kiswahili and how Kiswahili as a subject connects with other disciplines. This can be made possible by integrating content from other subjects in the teaching of Kiswahili and integrating student needs in the program. Another option would be to give students an opportunity to present in the foreign language to the rest of the class about projects from other classes. Making this connection can be highly motivating to the students. According to Olabode (1995) foreign language instructors can be grouped into four major categories:

(a) Qualified teachers who share a common language (in this case English) with students. Here qualified is by nativity, training, and/or by area of study.

(b) Qualified (native speaker), with a common language with students of varying degree without training in second/foreign language pedagogy.

(c) Qualified non-native speakers with a common language with the learners. These are teachers who have studied the foreign language to a level that they feel competent to teach beginning students.

(d) Unqualified native speakers who do not have a common language with the learners. The only consideration for the teacher in this category is based on the
wrong assumption that native speakers of a language should be able to teach that language. How do Kiswahili instructors fit in this classification?

Kiswahili instructors in the institution where data for this study was collected were all native speakers of the language but differed in their areas of training and expertise.

The type of instructor envisaged would determine the nature of the course. Important factors include student-instructor ratio, instructor's qualifications, and his/her role. According to Bennett et al. (1982) the student-teacher ratio should not exceed 20:1 in most cases, otherwise feedback to the student will be limited. Teachers should also be trained professionals ideally with both awareness of theoretical considerations and competence in the twin areas of language and culture. Instructors should be actively involved in the learning process. Instructors' role as supervisors or consultants to the students is not effective, given the need for careful structuring of the language experience.

Success of any academic program depends on the quality of instruction and that of instructors among other factors, and the study of Kiswahili as a foreign language is not an exception to this requirement. Kiswahili instructors range from tenured faculty members to non-academic personnel working on a temporary, short-term basis. Regarding African language instructors, Newman, R. and others (1985) noted that in early 1960s, African languages were typically team-taught by a linguist and a native speaker. The linguist was not usually fluent in the language, but had a good grasp of the structure of the language or of the languages closely related to it. The role of the native speakers was confined to modeling as frequently as necessary only those linguistic structures systematically
introduced by the linguist. The native speaker was seldom allowed to participate in life-like or free conversation with students, particularly in beginning classes.

However, from 1980s, the teaching staff started to differ considerably. Currently, major African languages like Kiswahili are taught by full-time faculty members of a department, who are fluent in the language, do research on it, and are trained in language pedagogy. On the same category within those same programs are instructors who are African graduate students with either native or second language fluency in the language, teaching autonomously in the classroom under the general supervision of a faculty member or language coordinator. Such graduate students are pursuing higher degrees in linguistics, applied linguistics, or language education. However, in some cases, these graduate students’ language teaching experience is minimal or non-existent. Both native and non-native speaking instructors pose some drawbacks in the African language program. The biggest drawback of some non-native instructors is their inability to be spontaneous in the language and their lack of knowledge about the target culture. Some native speakers on the other hand, lack adequate linguistic and pedagogical training, are susceptible to peer pressure by their students, and create discontinuity by their graduation (Newman, R. and others 1985).
2.8 MOTIVATION AND TEACHING MATERIALS

Teachers and students dream of finding adequate materials: that is materials that are accurate and imaginative, that offer both sequence and flexibility, and that provide variety yet respond to well-defined instructional goals (Savignon, 1983). In most cases, students have no part in the selection of materials to be used in class. On the part of the teacher, the dream for ideal materials may be frustrated by lack of any real choice, budget restrictions, state or regional selection criteria, or the need to comply with the wishes of a program director or curriculum supervisor. Even where teachers have freedom to choose the materials they use, the materials themselves may look attractive but fail to withstand the classroom test. The content may seem contrived, limited in scope, or irrelevant to learner interests. Explanations and activities may be mechanical, repetitious, vague, or too infrequent. However, there is no single material that can ever meet universal standards of excellence or even adequacy.

Most of the second/foreign language materials available follow one of three basic patterns: structural, notional-functional, or situational. There are some, however, which combine two or all three of these paradigms. Structural materials follow a grammar approach, instead of immediate communicative needs of the learners. In most cases, this approach decreases student interest and motivation to learn because most of them are normally not familiar with grammatical terms even in their first language (L1).

A notional-functional paradigm, on the other hand, organizes language content by functional categories. It provides a means of developing structural categories within a general consideration of the communicative functions of the language. It begins with the
specification of the communicative needs of the learner: a description of the situations in which the learner will use the second language and the activities in which the learner will engage. This specification provides the basis for establishing categories of communicative functions for which the learner should be prepared. These functions are then considered in terms of the semantic concepts, or notions related to their performance. A consideration of notions in relation to various functions of language leads to an identification of necessary or useful second/foreign language forms (grammar and vocabulary). By focusing on the communicative needs of the learner, notional-functional approach has the virtue of highlighting the uses to which language is put rather than the grammatical categories that are used to describe it.

The last paradigm is situational approach. The situational approach presents language samples in a situation or setting. In this paradigm, vocabulary and expressions are grouped into situations that will presumably be encountered or anticipated by the learner. Situations may reflect specific learner needs, or they may simply be of presumed general interest. The main purpose may be no more than to provide a pretext, a dialogue or reading selection illustrative of the grammar points or functions being introduced or reviewed in a unit.

Second/foreign language materials, like any other academic subject, come in different formats. They come in form of textbooks, audiocassettes, videos, and compact discs (CDs). It is common to find many different forms of materials in use in teaching the same subject. An increase in the use of technology in language classroom does not necessarily suggests that they are a substitute to the instructor. Computers can be a useful
aid if grammar is to be taught or reading and writing emphasized. The tape-recorder may be essential for modeling normal speech. Both tape-recorder and computer are handy for drill and can save much tedious classroom work.

There is a general agreement on the content of foreign language materials, especially the texts, which happen to be the most widely used material in second/foreign language classroom. According to Bennett (1982), foreign language material must be based on an adequate body of linguistic description. This should include phonology, morphology, syntax, discourse, and culture. At the minimum, there should be social structure, formalized behavior, daily life-style, and general world-view. Where appropriate, dialectical differences and distinctive traditional/ritual and westernized/urban cultural patterns should be surveyed. Linguistic and cultural analyses should be so integrated as to provide an analysis of language use in social interaction. As already noted, the content of a course is grammar and vocabulary, and also intonations, proxemics, social ritual, sociolinguistics, literature, expressions, gestures, and life-styles. Both cultural content and linguistic structure need to be stressed. Behavior patterns ought to be fully integrated and practiced along with linguistic patterns. In addition, material preparers need not assume that students have much linguistic sophistication or interest in grammatical structure. Any material intended for use need to be affordable, portable and clear. Written materials should have a clearly legible typeface. Text's layout should enhance legibility. Audiovisuals and illustrations should be clearly produced and recordings should be audible. Indices, cross references, and systems of pagination and paragraph numbering need to be well thought out and ought to facilitate use. Space for
student annotation, supplements, and commentary need to be provided. Texts ought to be chosen for a maximum intelligibility to the student at the level at which they are to be used. Instructions guiding the students need to be clearly stated. Any grammatical or cultural commentaries need to be put in a language clear to the students. Materials need to satisfy some of the predictable requirements along with a varied format to try to accommodate cognitive styles. Full instructions in the appropriate use of materials are also necessary. Materials ought to cover the needs of the teachers who lack the language background to compile individual materials. Compilers of materials ought to indicate, as far as possible, areas in which modification is likely to reduce the effectiveness of the course. Course materials ought to be designed for a goal and an audience, both of which determine the type of evaluation of performance, which determine classroom practice, all of which determine sequence and form of presentation (Bennett, 1982). It is against this background that Kiswahili materials currently in use in most universities and colleges in the US have been assessed.

Many African language instructors consider lack of adequate instructional material as the most critical problem facing the field of African language instruction. The development of African language materials is normally hampered by the small number of potential users, fluctuating demands for particular languages, the time required to write good materials, and the high cost of publishing.

As far as Kiswahili is concerned, the most common books used in Kiswahili classrooms are: *Kiswahili: Misingi wa Kusema, Kusoma, na Kuandika* (Hinnebusch T. and Mirza S. 2nd Ed. 1998); *Kiswahili kwa Kitendo* (Zawawi S. 2nd Ed. 1993),
Tuimaríshe Kiswahili Chetu (Moshi Lioba, 1988), and Masomo ya Kisasa (Biersteker, A. 1990). The first two textbooks are the most commonly used for they address the needs of elementary students who form the bulk of Kiswahili as foreign language learners.

However, a critique of these books would show that most of their content is deficient, dated and surpassed in time by more reliable Kiswahili teaching materials for current Kiswahili language learners. Generally, there is lack of common ground on goals, content, and instructional techniques of these books in the study of Kiswahili as a foreign language. A brief critique of the first two textbooks might suffice to illustrate the above point.


This is one of the widely used first year Kiswahili text in American universities. It is written for an audience of American Kiswahili beginners. According to Biersteker (1982), this book presents Kiswahili language and culture accurately and appealingly. In addition this book has an attractive and easy to follow format. This text does not assume familiarity with East African life and culture, or familiarity with linguistics. Most of the cultural content is presented through brief, author-written readings, which presents a variety of aspects of life in East Africa. These readings are basic in both linguistic and cultural content, positive in perspective, and many focus on "aspects of high culture," or special occasions like weddings and holidays. The type of dialogues included are realistic in terms of both the response patterns presented and cultural content. They are also short and incorporate manageable amounts of new materials while building upon previously
introduced vocabulary and structures. In addition, the dialogues in each unit are flexible enough so that in the build-up to 'free' conversational practice, the whole dialogue or part of it in the unit can easily be combined with another dialogue or part of it from an earlier unit and gradually modified to introduce additional variation. Most of the dialogues in the final six units focus on asking for and providing information about language and culture. Topics covered include asking names of objects, explaining customs, comparing customs, asking for grammatical explanation, providing definitions by giving examples and identifying resemblances, asking about meanings, and explaining materials read. These topics are essential for students who plan to continue studying Kiswahili beyond elementary level. Another important strength in this text is the attention given to women's lives and activities. The characters in the texts are of both sexes, thus making it accessible to both. For example, dialogue roles are seldom specified as having specifically male and female roles. This means that some aspects of East African life that were neglected in earlier texts are well treated in this course book.

This text does, however, contain some weaknesses. According to Biersteker, (1982) the drills provided are simple, dull and lack variety. Their only virtue is as a script for the tapes. As such they might be useful outside of class review for students who have not grasped the main point of a lesson. In some instances the very stems, tense markers, and adjective stems are provided as cues. This presentation has a pedagogical disadvantage of presenting for comprehension items that cannot be used in the form presented. Another weakness is the noun-class system. This is presented in its entirety late in unit 14. This means that for those teachers or students who might be following this
text unit by unit, possessives, demonstratives, adjectives and other useful grammatical features are introduced much later (since they are governed by the noun class system) than most Kiswahili courses. In addition, possessives are used extensively in the text before any drill or practice involving their use is provided. Another criticism especially by students who have used it is that there are not enough examples provided in the grammatical explanations. Explanations are by themselves adequate but additional examples would clarify many points. Another weakness in this text is lack of basic scenes like a simple transaction scene, some fundamental roles, and some crucial vocabulary. The visuals are a little bit sketchy and no real picture in the entire text. These weaknesses may contribute to lower motivation among the students to read or do exercises in the text.


This text, like the Hinnebusch and Mirza text, is also used for beginning level Kiswahili course. According to Biersteker (1982), Kiswahili kwa Kitendo text has a very attractive format and includes exceptionally clear illustrations as well as photographs of varying quality. The variety of maps included is especially noteworthy. Many of the illustrations are used as the basis for activities. Another strength in this text is the variety and extent of the cultural materials included. This text includes more information on customs and daily life than the text previously examined. There are units which focus on
holidays and special occasions, hospitality and the family. Readings in the final section of the text cover education, kinship, urban and rural life, art, oral traditions, government, and economic life.

One of the weaknesses of this text is that the readings in the final section are very difficult because of the specialized vocabulary used, and most of it is now dated. Another weakness is that the drills included in this text are very long and include very little variation in structures practiced and too much variation in vocabulary. This text suggests very few interactive activities and there are a large number of translation exercises. This approach is contrary to communicative approach, which seems to gain a lot of support in current foreign language pedagogy.

A significant difficulty, which faces the instructor who uses this text, is that the pace increases dramatically starting with lesson 19. Up until lesson 19, the lessons are relatively easy. Between lessons 1 and 19 structures are introduced at a slower rate. The amount of vocabulary between lessons 1 and 19 is also quite reasonable. From lesson 19 onwards, more structures are introduced in each unit. Reading passages have high concentration of structures and vocabulary not introduced until later units. This shift in pace and tedious drills make this text difficult to use in beginning classes. Another limitation of this text is that the grammatical notes are sometimes confusing or unclear and often far too detailed and complex for comprehension by students who do not have great interest in the structure of Kiswahili. Even at advanced level, many students may wish to skip grammatical notes. With these weaknesses in materials, motivation of Kiswahili students is bound to drop.
2.9 MOTIVATION AND ASSESSMENT

Assessment is one of the most important aspects of the learning process. This is so because it is through assessment that learners are able to gauge their success or failure in any academic subject. Assessment also (when administered for diagnostic purpose) provides vital information to the instructor and program writer about the direction of the program- its success or failure in meeting learner needs. Therefore, assessment serves as a key cornerstone in the program evaluation process. Assessment serves as an indicator of what learners can do, or what they are expected to do.

Assessment also provides a measure of learner achievement proficiency. At the same time assessment serves to place, evaluate and send a direct and immediate message to learners about the nature of their task, about language, and about what it means to learn one. Assessment is two-way, but with a common denominator: the teacher assessment of the student and the student assessment (judgment) of himself/herself.

Students' success or failure in school can be attributed to three sources: school, teachers, and students themselves. If the result is failure, some people would argue that the problems lie with students, their attitude towards the subject matter, and their willingness to expend efforts on school tasks. Other people would argue that the problem is with the teachers and their ability to interest and challenge students from diverse social and economic backgrounds. Other people would see the problem as an outgrowth of societal values and a lack of commitment to children and youth.

According to cognitive psychologists, the issue is one of students' and teachers' beliefs about the probability of students' success in school and how these beliefs influence
teacher-student interactions and subsequently students' achievement. Many students without prior foreign language experience perceive foreign language as difficult. If this perception were not dispelled at an initial stage it would have negative ramifications in the student's performance. If instructors, on the other hand, perceive students as being lazy and as not putting forth as much effort as needed, they are likely to make wrong judgments in their assessment of the students. Such wrong judgments are also likely to lower student motivation students and their achievements would be affected. This is a more likely possibility where teachers involved are not trained in foreign language instruction and assessment.

Cognitive psychologists further argue that learners enter school and go about the task of discovering what it takes to be successful in the school environment. Based on the judgment they make about personal characteristics that are necessary for success in school, students begin to develop implicit theories about whether they can be successful in some courses or not. Once theories are formed, students' classroom behaviors reflect their personal, implicit theories about the variables that produce success or failure in class. Students who expect to do well in school earn higher grades than students with similar ability that expects to fail. Similarly, if students enter the classroom, experience success, and explain their success by ability and/or effort expended, they would most likely conclude that ability and effort are important to success in class, and that they can, with the right combination of effort and ability, be successful in class.

The process of discovering how much effort one needs to expend to achieve a particular educational outcome is an ongoing one. Students are constantly in the process
of selecting among a diverse set of educational and personal goal, collecting information about the task, and making and testing their judgments about the amount of efforts needed to achieve the goals.

The degree to which students will expend effort on a task is a function of (a) their expectation that they will be able to perform the task successfully and obtain the rewards associated with it, and (b) the value they place on the rewards. This model assumes that the amount of effort invested is a product of the expectations of success and the value of the reward. Effort will not be expended if the reward for completing the task has little or no value to the student. Likewise, students who do not expect to perform the task successfully will not attempt a task that has a valued reward associated with it.

The form of student evaluation and assessment should be consistent with the course’s performance goals. There is probably no other area of foreign language instruction which African language instructors as a whole are the least knowledgeable about than how to test and evaluate their students (Newman, R. and others 1985). Most of the materials used in African languages fail to suggest any evaluation procedures to accompany the coursework, and therefore, most of the classroom tests are largely teacher-improvised and ad hoc in nature resulting in a wide variation of quality, validity, and reliability (Newman, R. et al 1985). Most of these tests are of the pencil-and-paper achievement type, which concentrate on discrete items selected from materials presented from the course and which generally have little context or cohesive structure beyond the level of the sentence. This is normally the case because most of African language
instructors are linguists concerned with structure of the language. The current study attempted to suggest ways of evaluating Kiswahili students and ways of writing better Kiswahili tests.

2.10 MOTIVATION AND GENDER

Pintrich and Schunk, (1996) noted that many studies that have examined actual achievement or performance show that there are few gender differences and that in many cases, females outperform males. However, other studies still show females as having lower self-perceptions. Pintrich and Schunk speculate that this discrepancy between actual achievement and self-perceptions of ability may be due to a response bias, with males being more self-congratulatory and females being more modest. Marsh (1989) found that males have higher self-concept scores for their self-ratings of physical appearance, physical ability and math, whereas females have higher ratings for verbal and reading tasks and general school concept.

Various studies show that gender of students makes a significant difference in learning a second/foreign language. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) found gender differences in the use of language learning strategies, with females using strategies significantly more often than males, in four areas: general study strategies, functional practice strategies, strategies for searching for and communicating meaning, and self-management strategies. Language learning studies that have examined gender have found that females frequently use more strategies than males to learn a language in a variety of strategy categories, and that males do not appear to use significantly more than females in any
strategy category (Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, and Sumrall, 1993). In a study involving language proficiency, Wen and Johnson (1991) found that Chinese females learning English were more proficient than their male counterparts.

According to Ellis (1995), sociolinguistic research has identified two distinct and contradictory principles relating to sex differentiation in native-speaker speech. These principles are:

(i) In stable sociolinguistic stratification, men use a higher frequency of non-standard forms than women.

(ii) In the majority of linguistic changes, women use a higher frequency of the incoming forms than men.

The conclusion derived from above premise is that women, nearly always outstrip men in the standard nature of their speech and use of prestige forms, and that they also tend to be in forefront of linguistic change. Women are also more likely to incorporate new forms in their speech than men. The above principles may suggest that women might be better at second/foreign language learning than men. Another conclusion that Ellis draws from above principles is that women are likely to be more open to new linguistic forms in second/foreign language input and they will be more likely to rid themselves of interlanguage forms that deviate from target language norms.

There are studies that seem to support the claim that female learners generally do better than male. Burstall (1975) investigated sex differentiation in her study of 6,000 beginning second language French. She reported that females scored significantly higher than males in all tests measuring achievement in French. Boyle (1987) reported on a study
of 490 (257 male and 233 female) Chinese university students in Hong Kong. The female students achieved higher overall mean on the tests of general second language English proficiency and in many cases the differences were significant. Nyikos (1990) reported that women outperformed men in a German vocabulary memorization task.

There are also a number of studies that suggest that females have more positive attitudes to learning second language than males. Burstall (1975) noted that low-achieving males tended to drop French to a significantly greater extent than low-achieving females. In addition, the females displayed consistently more favorable attitudes toward learning French than did the males. Gardner and Lambert (1972) also reported that female learners of second language French in Canada were more motivated than male learners and also had more positive attitudes towards speakers of the target language. Spolsky (1989) found that females learning second language Hebrew in Israel demonstrated more favorable attitudes to Hebrew, Israel, and Israelis than males. However, Ludwig (1983) found that male learners were more instrumentally motivated (that is more motivated to learn second language for purely functional reasons) than female learners. Bacon and Finnemann (1992) reported that female learners of second language Spanish at university level had stronger instrumental motivation than males.

A number of other studies suggest that women tackle the task of learning a second language differently from men. The study by Gass and Varonis (1986) concluded that men used the opportunities to interact to produce more output, whereas women used it to

Clearer evidence of sex differences comes from self-report studies of the strategies learners use. Bacon (1992) found that men reported using translation strategies more than women, while the women reported monitoring their comprehension more. Bacon and Finnemann (1992) found that women reported greater use of a ‘private/non-oral mode’ in language learning than men. Some of the strategies they applied included relying on their L1 to make second language meaningful, rehearsing in their heads before they spoke, and guessing at what might be going on.

In a study conducted by Leung et al (1993), female students were found to have stronger affiliative motives and affiliative value than male students. This finding might suggest that in achievement situations female students might have a stronger socially oriented achievement goal orientation, or social solidarity goal compared to male students. The social solidarity goal is characterized by a focus on interpersonal relations like demonstrating good intentions and seeking social approval. A person displays a social solidarity goal when the purpose of his or her engagement in a task is to seek social approval so as to establish and or maintain good interpersonal relations. In this same study female students were found to outperform male students. Gender difference in achievement may suggest that female students, relative to male students, might have a stronger task goal, which is characterized by an emphasis on the task at hand, effort, and improvement in one’s work. The interaction between gender and self-perceived academic
achievement show that the effect of gender or measures of academic motivational orientations tends to depend on student’s self-perceived academic achievement.

2.11 MOTIVATION AND ACHIEVEMENT

High internal motivation is associated with high achievement. Students who are highly internally motivated tend to persist in foreign language study rather than drop out (Branam, 1997). Burstall (1975) found that internal motivation and positive attitudes towards French and learning French were positively related to students’ French achievement. Gardner (1990) examined the relationships between attitude, motivation, and achievement in foreign language learning among adolescents. He found that a fairly substantial relationship existed between achievement and motivation in secondary language learning. When achievement was measured across ethnicity, there was no substantial evidence to support a widely held argument that African-Americans (and other minority students) should have lower expectancies for success or lower self-concepts of ability because of their economic disadvantage (Graham, 1994).

Most of the studies on this sub-topic have focused on differential performance on standardized tests on the basis of minority/majority and male/female dichotomy. Out of these studies, three theories have emerged to explain differences in achievement. The first is the hereditability model. This model holds that scores of standardized measures reliably reflect innate abilities and aptitude. Proponents of this theory point out that educators and researchers have failed to find ways to substantially raise test scores of some minorities, and to explain the higher-than-expected scores of others. The second
position views achievement on tests as merely one of a number of measures of school success or failure, including grades and teacher evaluations, retention, and acquisition of degrees (O’Connor, 1989). In this model, all such measures are assumed to be determined by macrolevel social factors, and the individual and community’s responses to them. Proponents of this view argue that among the above-mentioned factors are the minority’s status within the matrix society with respect to conditions of entry (immigration or enslavement), sources of cultural differences between the minority and the mainstream population (whether differences arose before the groups came into contact or they are a reaction to the subordination experiences by the minority after contact), and the constraints on the economic future of the minority. The third theory claims that inequality is maintained and enacted in encounters between individuals. Members of minority groups share systems of practices, beliefs, norms, and experiences that differ from those shared by members of the dominant culture of which the school is a central institution. Social and cultural differences are assumed to play a larger role in school failure. According to this perspective, the failure of researchers and educators to change test scores is a function of many things, but at least one of them is the possibility that they (researchers and educators) do not yet understand the correct way to approach the sociocultural differences among groups in the schools with respect to the activity of taking tests (O’Connor, 1989).
2.12 LANGUAGE COURSE LEVEL AND MOTIVATION

According to Oxford, et al (1993), language course level influences how students learn foreign/second languages. Politzer (1983) and Tyacke and Mendelsohn (1986) found that course level influenced the learning strategy choice of foreign language learners. Higher-level students were found to use more "positive," student-directed, communicative or functional strategies. In another study, Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper, and Impink-Hernandez (1987) found that cognitive strategy use decreased and metacognitive strategy use increased as foreign language course level increased. Bialystok (1981) and Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found differences in strategy use as students advanced in foreign languages. Formal practice with rules and forms was decreasingly effective, and less used, as students advanced.

2.13 PRIOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDY EXPERIENCE AND MOTIVATION

Previous foreign/second language learning experience is often related to choosing a foreign language as an elective course. Those with previous experience in learning a foreign language may have fulfilled foreign language graduation requirement and could be taking another language as an elective because they want to, and not because they have to. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that choosing a foreign language as an elective course was a significant influence on the frequency of use of foreign language strategies. Oxford and Nyikos further noted that students who were studying the new language as an elective used significantly more strategies and were more motivated than those who were taking the language as a requirement.
2.14 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND AGE

The issue of whether the age at which individuals begin to be exposed to a second/foreign language plays a role in the manner in which, and/or the success with which they come to grips with the new language, has been a perennial theme of discussion among researchers, educator, and learners for a long time. The reasons for the widespread and undiminished interest in the age question are manifold, relating to both whether an innate language faculty continues to function beyond a particular maturation point, and also to when second/foreign language instruction should begin.

A variety of views have been expressed on the age question, ranging from the position that children are in all respects more efficient and effective second/foreign language learners than adults to the exactly contrary position that adolescents and adults are in all respects more efficient and effective second/foreign language learners than children (Singleton, 1995). The balance of evidence relative to age and second/foreign language learning favors the eventual attainment-focused line, namely, that in situations of naturalistic exposure, while older beginners tend to outperform their juniors- at least in some respects- in the initial stages of learning, in terms of long-term outcomes, the earlier the exposure to the target language begins the better. This view has been supported by a number of researchers, for example, Cook (199), Ellis (1994), and Long (1990). One of the powerful support for this position comes from studies carried out by Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle which investigated the development in Dutch of sixty-nine English-speaking residents in the Netherlands. These studies provide clear evidence of more rapid
learning on the part of adult and adolescent subjects in the early stages and of younger beginners catching up on and beginning to outperform their elders after a short period of time.

As far as instructed second/foreign language learning is concerned, the consistent finding which has emerged from studies of the results of primary/elementary school second/foreign language programs is that pupils who are given early exposure to a second/foreign language and are then integrated into classes containing pupils with out such an experience do not maintain a clear advantage for more than a relatively short period over pupils who begin to learn the language only at secondary level (Oller and Nagato, 1974). Singleton (1995) noted that the apparent discrepancy between such evidence from school-based studies and evidence from naturalistic studies could probably be related to the blurring effect resulting from mixing beginners and non-beginners in the same classes. The discrepancy can also be accounted for in terms of differences in exposure time between naturalistic and instructed learners. While researchers agree on the fact that both adults and children follow the same route, but differ in the rate of acquisition, the debate on age and second/foreign language acquisition is bound to continue due to its complexity in nature.
2.15 LANGUAGE VITALITY

According to Giles and Coupland (1991) language vitality is defined in terms of its status, demography, and institutional support given to an ethnolinguistic group. Language status refers to socioeconomic and sociopolitical vitality and sociohistorical aspects of the language(s). Demography refers to the population of speakers in both the native and target language group. Institution support refers to the official and non-official recognition of both the native language and the target language. The language of the group with the highest vitality would predominate. The pattern of behavior that characterizes the second language community is also an important factor in determining the vitality of a language. Vitality accorded to a language is important in decided what language to offer as an academic institution and deciding what language to take as a consumer in second/foreign language program. Vitality of a language could also increase student motivation to study it since through it, they would be able to function in activities conducted in that language.

2.15 SECOND VERSUS FOREIGN LANGUAGE CONTEXTS

It is important to draw a distinction between these two settings since studies have shown that results from each of these differ, and yet there is always a temptation to apply findings of one of these settings to the other. Simply stated, a foreign language context is a situation where a language being studied is restricted to classroom by virtue of the fact that its use outside is hindered by absence of native speakers in the wider community. A second language context, on the other hand, is a situation whereby the target language is...
studied or taught in countries where it had wider usage outside classroom. In either a foreign or a second language context, four groups can be identified: 1) A sociopolitically, linguistically dominant group learning a language of sociopolitically non-dominant group (e.g. Euro-Americans learning German in the USA). 2) A sociopolitically dominant group learning a language of another dominant sociopolitically dominant group (e.g. French Canadians learning English in Canada). 3) A sociopolitically non-dominant group leaning a language of a sociopolitically, linguistically dominant group (e.g. native speakers of Chinese or Japanese learning English in the United State). 4) A sociopolitically and linguistically non-dominant group learning a language of a sociopolitically and linguistically non-dominant group (e.g. African-Americans and other linguistic minorities learning Kiswahili or any other African language in the United States). Understanding these settings is vital so that findings of one setting are not unnecessarily generalized on the other.

Summary

In this chapter, a review of relevant literature was presented. It was demonstrated that initial presentation of motivation as either instrumental or integrative was misleading because this dichotomy did not account for all motivational variables that were behind student enrollment in foreign language programs. Other components of motivation were also presented in addition to its social dimension. Studies related to motivation and ethnicity, gender, classroom activities, instructor, instructional materials, assessment,
course-level, age, and prior foreign language study experience were presented. The
distinctions between second language and foreign language settings were made.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The main objective of this study was to describe the relationships between ethnicity, gender, student college class rank, and Kiswahili level of study on the one hand, and motivation, Kiswahili language learning achievement, and student evaluation of Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors’ teaching methods, materials, and assessment (both written and oral) in college Kiswahili classes. The subjects were Kiswahili students enrolled in the Winter Quarter of 1999 at one of the mid-western university in the U.S. This study began as a product of impressionistic observations and informal interviews with Kiswahili students, instructors and program coordinator at one of the Mid-western universities in the U.S. This study was preceded by a pilot study that was conducted in the Winter Quarter of 1997. This pilot study culminated in a paper that was presented at the First Annual African Language Teachers Association (ALTA) at Madison University, Wisconsin, April 1997.

3.1 VARIABLES

According to Wallen and Fraenkel (2001), a variable is any characteristic that it not always the same (p. 32). This study has both dependent and independent variables. The dependent variables are motivation, Kiswahili achievement, foreign language study

82
experience, and student ratings of Kiswahili program, Kiswahili instructors, Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods, Kiswahili materials, and assessment in Kiswahili classes. The above variables were classified as dependent because they change (vary) depending on other intervening variables. Motivation was used in this study to mean a drive or impulse that makes college students enroll in Kiswahili as a foreign language. Those reasons were then correlated with Kiswahili achievement. Statistical procedures used are discussed under data analysis. Kiswahili achievement was measured through grade point average (GPA) in Kiswahili. It was assumed that respondents’ GPA would provide a reliable measure of their achievement levels.

The independent variables in this study are gender (male/female), ethnicity (black, white, and others), and college ranking (freshmen, sophomore, junior, senior, and graduate student). These variables are independent because they are categorical and may not be influenced by other variables. As far as ethnicity was concerned, there emerged two major ethnic groups: White-Americans and African Americans. The category of “others” had very few respondents, each claiming a distinct ethnic identity.

3.2 SUBJECTS

The subjects of this study were Kiswahili students enrolled at one of the Midwestern universities in the U.S in the Winter Quarter of 1999. These students were at different Kiswahili levels- 101, 102, 103, 104, and 401. Level of Kiswahili study could also be categorized as elementary (101 and 102), intermediate (103 and 104), and advanced (401 and 402). At the time of data collection there was no Kiswahili 402.
Unlike the beginning four courses of Kiswahili that are required by most departments for graduation, the advance courses are usually offered on demand for students who would like to develop further proficiency in Kiswahili in preparation for travel to East Africa or for student's individual purpose. When enrollments are very low for advance level classes, the courses are usually offered as independent studies.

At the time of data collection, there were a hundred and fifty-seven (157) students enrolled in the Kiswahili language program. The number of students at each level was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Level</th>
<th>Number of students enrolled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1 Students enrolled in Kiswahili program in the Winter Quarter, 1999

Out of a hundred and fifty-seven (157) students enrolled in Kiswahili program, one hundred and seventeen (117) completed and returned the questionnaire. This represented a 75% response rate. However, three questionnaires did not have names, and therefore, they were discarded. The number of questionnaires received from each level that were used for analysis are shown in table 3.2 below:
Table 3.2 Response rates of the subjects from each Kiswahili course level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Level</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>70.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>64.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>81.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>72.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher understands that since the sample that was surveyed was small and a convenient one and that no random sampling procedure was involved; the findings could not be generalized to other institutions offering Kiswahili as a foreign language. Regarding generalizability, Wallen and Fraenkel (2001:377) note: The researcher is entitled to generalize the findings to a larger group if the sample surveyed was randomly selected from that group and not too many are lost.

It was not possible to survey all or a number of institutions that offer Kiswahili in the U.S. because of some factors. First, many other institutions enroll very few students in their Kiswahili programs (ALTA Newsletter). Therefore, chances of selection of subjects from institutions with very low enrollment could have been very slim. Secondly, different institutions used different materials. This difference could have interfered with student assessment of course materials that constituted a major part of the survey. Third, different institutions used different calendars. Some used quarter systems, while others.
used semesters. This difference could have interfered with the timing of the distribution of the survey. Lastly, the time frame the researcher had to collect data could not have allowed him to survey many institutions. At the same time, the researcher did not want to use mailing services due to its negative effect of low response rate.

3.3 DEVELOPMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE INSTRUMENT

The instrument for this study was a written-response-type questionnaire (Wallen and Fraenkel, 1996) survey with multiple choices, short answers, and a rating scale. The major purpose of a survey is to describe certain characteristics of a population (Wallen and Fraenkel, 2001). A survey was appropriate given the type of the research questions the researcher wanted to address. A survey has advantages over other research methods. Some of the advantages are: it is possible to collect a wide scope of information from a large population; data are collected in a real situation; uniform data are gathered; and it may be a necessary first step in developing hypotheses for more specific problems for research beyond description.

Survey research methodology has five major threats to its validity: measurement error, sampling error, selection error, frame error, and non-response error.

Measurement error

This type of error occurs when questions and instructions are not clear or ambiguous, and respondents either give socially acceptable answers, do not possess the correct information or deliberately lie. In order to control for this type of error, the items of the questionnaire were adapted from the Attitude and Motivation Test Battery
developed and used by Gardner and Lambert (1972). With help of committee members, these items were rephrased to suit the objectives of the study. The other items were developed following the same format. These items were added to ensure reliability and validity of the instrument. With the help of Kiswahili instructors, the instrument was pilot tested in 1997. The instrument was revised before it was finally used.

**Sampling error**

This error occurs if sampling is non-probabilistic. This error was not applicable to the current study because the sample used was a convenient sample. In this case every Kiswahili student enrolled was surveyed.

**Selection error**

This happens when some subjects have a greater chance of being selected than others. This error was not likely to occur in the current study because the sample comprised of the entire population.

**Frame error**

This error occurs when there is a discrepancy between the frame and the actual population. Since the entire population was surveyed, this error was not a threat to the current study.

**Non-response error**

As the terminology suggests, this is a situation where there is a high degree of lack of response from the respondents. To control for this error the subjects were constantly reminded to return their questionnaires through their instructors in class, by telephone, and via e-mail. These reminders raised the response rate.

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Validity, reliability and objectivity

In order to establish its validity, reliability and objectivity, the instrument was developed and pilot-tested in the Winter Quarter of 1999. Formal data gathering for the study took place in Winter Quarter of 1999. With the help of Kiswahili instructors, the questionnaire was directly distributed to all students enrolled in Kiswahili classes at that same time. Direct administration of the questionnaire has some advantages. It has high response rate, it is inexpensive, and the researcher has an opportunity to answer any questions that respondents may have before they complete the questionnaire (Wallen and Frankel, 1996). Use of Kiswahili instructors to distribute and collect the questionnaire was appropriate to ensure high response rate. Students were requested to respond to all items in the questionnaire and return it to their instructors. The request was made on a formal letter and a copy was attached to each and every questionnaire (see appendix A).

The questionnaire was directly distributed and collected on the 7th and the 8th week of the quarter. This was appropriate time because chances of students adding or dropping the courses at this time of the quarter were minimal. At the same time, the beginning (Kiswahili 101) students had stayed in the class long enough to be able to give fair evaluations and perspectives of their Kiswahili language and culture experiences. Direct administration of the questionnaire has advantages over mailing, telephone, or personal interview. Some of the advantages of direct administration of questionnaire are: high response rate, low cost, and the researcher has opportunity to explain the study to the respondents and answer any questions they may have before they fill out the questionnaire.
Instrumentation

The main instrument was a survey questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into three parts (see appendix B). The first part covered demographic or personal information of the participants. There were seven items in this part. The items asked the respondents to state their name, gender, age, major area of study, college ranking, prior foreign language experience and ethnicity. The age of the respondents was provided in terms of intervals due to its cultural sensitivity. The questions that constituted this part were number 1 – 7.

It was important for the respondents to put down their names so that their responses could later be matched with their grades for descriptive and correlational analyses. This step was important because by the time the grades were computed students would have already graduated from that level and it would be hard to get them to fill in their final grade. Grades were obtained directly from their instructors. This fact had been explained to the students at the time of survey distribution.

The second part of the questionnaire covered the participants’ experience in Kswahili as a foreign language. This part had two sub-sections. The items in the first sub-section asked the respondents to state how they came to know about the Kiswahili program, the Kiswahili course level they were currently in, when they took preceding Kiswahili courses if they were above 101, what grades they earned in the preceding course(s), why they chose to take Kiswahili, and their assessment of goal attainment in taking Kiswahili. The questions in this section consisted of number 8-13.
In the second sub-section of part two respondents were requested to rate the Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors' teaching methods, teaching materials, in-class quizzes and examinations, homework and other out-of-class activities, and oral examinations. Respondents' ratings ranged from “A” (excellent) to “D” (poor). The items that constituted this sub-section were items number 14 – 20.

The third part of the questionnaire required students to give comments on the Kiswahili program, Kiswahili instructors and their teaching methods, the Kiswahili textbook and other teaching materials, in-class quizzes and other written tests and examinations, their homework and other out-of-class assignments, and oral examinations. There was a follow-up interview on a voluntary basis to fill out blanks left in the questionnaire and also to check consistency of responses. This section of the instrument had seven items ranging from 21-27

Another source of data was the student grades. In addition to the grades that students reported on the questionnaire, the researcher obtained copies of the grade rosters from Kiswahili instructors. It was important to obtain student grades so that their mean scores could be correlated with independent variables to establish whether there were any relationships. Grades constituted a major dependent variable in this study because they were used as a measure of academic achievement in Kiswahili. Grade-point average (GPA) ranged from A to E on a scale of 0 to 4 along the following letter correspondences: A (4), A- (3.7), B+ (3.3), B (3.0), B- (2.7), C+ (2.3), C (2.0), C- (1.7), D+ (1.3), D (1), and E (0). In the institution where data for this study was collected, a grade of D- is not awarded.
3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

After the questionnaires were received, the data were organized for analysis. The first step was to code the questionnaires to avoid using student names. All usable questionnaires were given codes of numbers from 001 to 114. The next step was the quantification stage. Apart from where respondents gave qualitative responses in the instrument, every item was given a numerical.

Quantitative and qualitative research approaches were applied in data analyses. In the second stage, all data that were in non-numerical categories were given codes in the form of numbers that could be counted and added up for further tabulation, statistical analyses and interpretation. Coding was especially used in the demographic information (gender, ethnicity, college class rank, age, prior foreign language experience, and level of Kiswhili study). Gender was dummy-coded as zero (for female) and one (for male) because statistical procedures for non-numerical and dichotomous variables require dummy codes for statistical computation.

After coding and categorizing the collected data, the data were entered in the computer and then analyzed by using SPSS 10.1 Version for Windows. Descriptive and correlational statistics were used for the data analysis. Descriptive statistics included frequencies, percentages, central tendency (mean), and variability (standard deviation and range). These statistical approaches were applied to organize, summarize, and analyze data from the respondents. Spearman Rho Correlational and Spearman Rank Order procedures were used to describe the relationships of the characteristics of the subjects as stated in the research questions. Spearman’s Rho Correlation was appropriate where the
study involved establishing relationships between non-numeric and numeric variables (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991). Spearman Rank Order procedure was applied where data were provided in terms of ranks, for example college class rank. For the description of the magnitude of the relationship, the following criteria, derived from Wallen and Fraenkel (2001) were used:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Magnitude of r</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.81 and above</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.61 - .80</td>
<td>Substantial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.41 - .60</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.00 - .40</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3 Magnitude of relationship between dependent and independent variables

Statistical procedures used for this study are presented in the order of the research questions. This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What motivates American college students to study Kiswahili as a foreign language?
2. Is there a correlation between motivation and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
3. Is there a correlation between ethnicity and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
4. Is there a correlation between gender and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

5. Is there a correlation between age and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

6. Is there a correlation between prior foreign language study experience and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

7. Is there a correlation between college class rank and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

8. What is Kiswahili students' assessment of the program, instructors, instructors' teaching methods, instructional materials used, in-class and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams?

9. To what extent does the Kiswahili program satisfy student goals and expectations?

10. What framework can be established to improve Kiswahili as a foreign language program in the future?

3.4.1 Procedures for Research Questions

Procedures for Research Question 1

The data for this question was obtained through responses from item number 12 in the instrument. The instrument listed down some of the possible reasons that could have made college students enroll in the Kiswahili program. Respondents were asked to choose as many reasons as applied to them. They were also provided with space to add other reasons not listed. Since the reasons for enrollment were non-numerical, they
were all coded. Respondents who choose more than one reason were given separate codes. Descriptive statistics was used to describe the different reasons why students enroll in Kiswahili as a foreign language. Using this approach, frequencies and percentages were tabulated. The reasons that had high frequencies and high percentages were concluded to be the major or dominant reason why students enrolled in Kiswahili as a foreign language.

**Procedures for Research Question 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7**

Descriptive statistics was used to answer these questions. Central tendency (mean) and variability (standard deviation and range) were calculated and presented. Descriptive statistics were also used so that the mean and standard deviations could be compared for analysis. Pearson Rho correlation analysis was used to establish relationship between motivation, ethnicity, gender, age, prior foreign language study experience, and college class rank, on the one hand, and Kiswahili achievement on the other. This approach was appropriate because the data of the independent variables were non-numerical, while the data for the dependent variable (Kiswahili achievement) were numerical. According to Hatch and Lazaraton (1991), Pearson Rho correlation analysis can be computed when one variable is a dichotomous nominal variable and the other is an interval variable. Some of the independent variables (e.g. gender and ethnicity) were dichotomous thus making this procedure necessary. Kiswahili achievement was measured by the respondents' grade-point average (GPA) in Kiswahili. Items 2 to 11 in the instrument were used to obtain information in order to answer these questions.
Procedures for Research Question 8

This question was addressed by item 14 through 27 in the instrument. In item 14 through 20, respondents were asked to rank the Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors' teaching methods, instructional materials used, in-and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams on a 4-point scale ranging from “A” (excellent) to “D” (poor). To enable the computer to analyze this data, the 4-point Likert-scale was later converted to a scale of 1 to 4. In this scale 4 was ranked as excellent, 3 as good, 2 as fair and 1 as poor. In the analysis descriptive statistics were used. Means and standard deviations among groups were computed and presented. The higher the mean, the better was the assessment and vice versa. More information for this research question was obtained from item 21 through 27. In these items, respondents were asked to comment on the Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors’ teaching methods, instructional materials used, in-and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams.

Procedures for Research Question 9

Information used to answer this question was obtained through responses to item 13 in the instrument. In this item, respondents were provided with four choices and were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with the Kiswahili program in meeting their goals and expectations. The rating was on a 4-point Likert-scale ranging from “A” “fully achieved” to “D” “I do not know.” In order to make this data quantitatively analyzable, this scale was later converted to range from 4 to 1, where 4 represented “fully achieved”, 3 “partially achieved”, 2 “not being achieved”, and 1 “I do not know”. Descriptive statistics were applied to compare the mean. High mean represented satisfaction, and vice versa.
Procedures for Research Question 10

This question aimed at developing a framework that could be used to inform policy-makers and program coordinators within the institution about the Kiswahili program. In order to draw this framework, results of preceding research questions were assessed and a summary presented.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research design applied in the study and the methods used to analyze data. The key variables, both dependent and independent were identified. The chapter also gave an overall description of the subjects of the study and how they were distributed in various Kiswahili course levels. The development and administration of the instrument used in the study was also presented. Various threats to the survey procedure were discussed. The chapter concludes by identifying various data analyses procedures applied for each of the research question.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter reports the results of the study. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section reports demographic information of the respondents. The second section reports the findings of the study pertinent to each of the research questions. The third part reports the respondents' comments on the Kiswahili program, Kiswahili instructors, teaching methods, Kiswahili teaching materials, in-class examinations, homework and other out-of-class activities, and oral examinations.

4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

Respondents were of varying ages. Due to its cultural sensitivity, age was reported in range of five years. The ranges of respondents' ages are presented on Table 4.1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 - 19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 - 24</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>79.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 - 29</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>97.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 -39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 +</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1: Age distribution of the respondents
As Figure 4.1 above shows, a majority of the respondents (71.9%) were between 20-24 years old. The second age range was between 25 – 29 years old, which had 15.8% of the respondents. The third age range was 19 years and below, which accounted for 7.9% of the respondents. The group that had the least respondents was that of 40 years old and above. This group had only 0.9% of the respondents. This age distribution shows that a majority of the students proceeded to college from high school.

By gender the respondents were distributed as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Level</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2: Gender distribution of the respondents
As Table 4.2 above shows, males represented 58.77%, while females represented 41.23% of the total respondents. In some instances (in Kiswahili 101 and Kiswahili 104) the proportion of male to female was approximately 1:2, while in Kiswahili 103 the proportion of male to female was approximately 1:3. However male dominance was not in all levels. In Kiswahili 102, for instance, the situation was almost the opposite of Kiswahili 101 and Kiswahili 104 with a female proportion of approximately 2:1 that of male students. In the advanced class, the gender ratio was approximately 1:1.

The respondents were comprised of both undergraduates (at different college levels), and graduate students. 6.1% of the respondents were freshmen, 14.0% were sophomores, 21.9% were juniors, 56.1% were seniors, and 1.8% were graduate students.

It is interesting to note that a majority of respondents waited until they were seniors before focusing on foreign language study.

Table 4.3 below shows how students enrolled in Kiswahili the Winter Quarter of 1999 were distributed by college ranking:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College class rank</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>98.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Student</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3: Enrollment of the respondents by college ranking
The subjects were also majoring in different academic disciplines. The following Table shows the different academic disciplines represented by the respondents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents’ Majors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African American and African Studies</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ag. &amp; Environmental Developmental Econ.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aviation Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bio. sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Sc. Info.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminology</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>38.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human ecology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journalism</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>60.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing &amp; International Business</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Therapy</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>63.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political science</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>70.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociology</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>85.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech &amp; Hearing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>87.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theater</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>88.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>90.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>91.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zoology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>97.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminology &amp; Sociology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSI &amp; Criminology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4: Respondents’ major areas of study
As Table 4.4 above shows, Kiswahili attracted students from a wide range of disciplines. Two areas of specialization registering a double digit percentage from the same area were Criminology (12.3%) and Communications (11.4%). Other disciplines that registered at least 5% from the same area were Sociology (7.9%), History and Political Science (7.0% each), Psychology and Journalism (6.1% each). It is interesting to note that only 3.5% of the respondents were majoring in African American and African Studies—the department that houses the African languages program.

Respondents also differed in their self-reported prior foreign language (FL) study experiences. 64% of the respondents had studied at least one foreign language either in high school or in college before enrolling in Kiswahili program, while 36% reported not having a prior foreign language study experience. This distribution is represented in Table 4.5 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FL experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5: Self-reported prior foreign language study experience

It might be of research interest to investigate how respondents with prior foreign language study experience were distributed by ethnicity and gender. Earlier research (for
example Le Blank, 1972) indicated that some minority students, especially African Americans, had been encouraged by their advisers not to enroll in foreign language classes. Later research (Clowney and Legge, 1979) showed that this trend had changed and many minority students now had more access to foreign languages programs.

Distribution of respondents in the present study based on their prior foreign language study experience by ethnicity is represented in Figure 4.1 below:

- Prior FL denotes those respondents who did not have a prior foreign language (FL) experience before enrolling in the Kiswahili program.
+ Prior FL denotes those respondents who had a prior foreign language (FL) experience before enrolling in the Kiswahili program.
Af-Americans denote African Americans
Wh-Americans denote White Americans
Others refers to any respondent other than African American or White American

Figure 4.1: Prior foreign language study experience of the respondents by ethnicity
From Figure 4.1 above, it can be seen that the percentage of African Americans who did not report having prior foreign language experience was smaller than that of the White Americans and the “others.” The sub-group that had the highest percentage of respondents without prior foreign language experience was the “others.” The category of “others” included respondents who did not fall in the larger categories of either African Americans or White Americans. This category had nine (9) respondents, and their ethnicities were Ethiopian (2), Zimbabwean (1), Trinidadian (1), Arabic (1), Asian American (1), Jewish (1), and Eritrean (2).

Respondents’ prior foreign language study experience by gender is presented on Figure 4.1 below:
Figure 4.2 above shows that a majority of the females (70%) in the study reported having had a prior foreign language study experience than males. This finding may indicate a change in trends and also reflect women's increased participation in the global economy, international affairs, and other activities that require foreign language knowledge.

Those who had prior foreign language study experience also differed in the language they had studied. The following table shows foreign languages that respondents
reported as having studied prior to their enrollment in the Kiswahili program in college.

Some of the respondents had studied more than one foreign language prior to their enrollment in Kiswahili at the research site.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foreign Languages</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No prior foreign language study</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>78.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>85.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French &amp; Italian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish &amp; French</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>93.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish &amp; Italian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish &amp; Latin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish &amp; Japanese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>97.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish &amp; German</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>98.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French &amp; Latin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish, French &amp; Portuguese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6: Prior foreign language(s) studied by the respondents

As Table 4.6 above shows, the three primary foreign languages that respondents reported as having previously studied were Spanish (28.1%), French (11.4%), and German (6.1%). All other languages were reported to a smaller degree.

Respondents in this study comprised of different ethnic groups. The two major ethnic groups were African Americans and White Americans. African Americans were 29 (25.4%), White Americans were 76 (66.7%), and the "others" were 9 (7.9%). The distribution of respondents by ethnicity is shown in Table 4.7 below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African Americans</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Americans</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7: Enrollment of the respondents by ethnicity

Respondents reported learning about the Kiswahili program through various sources. The major sources of information about the program were reported to be other students or friends, academic advisors, advertisements on bulletin boards or newspapers, relatives, and the university’s master schedule or student handbooks. The sources where respondents received information about the Kiswahili program are summarized in Table 4.8 below:
From Table 4.8 above, it is clear that the major sources of student information about the Kiswahili program were friends (59.6%), university course-book (16.7%), and academic advisers (15.8%). The other sources constituted low percentages of respondents.

As already noted, all the respondents were enrolled in the Kiswahili program, albeit for different reasons, including the following: to fulfill a foreign language graduation requirement, for professional development, because one heard Kiswahili was easy, it was related to one’s ethnicity and thus taking it was a way of tracking one’s cultural heritage, curiosity, planned to visit Africa in the future and thought one might need it, to identify with speakers of Kiswahili, it fit one’s class schedule, to learn about
another non-western culture, Kiswahili was not offered in high schools (compared to other foreign languages) and thus all students started at the same level, there was no competition for jobs that required Kiswahili, to try something new, for fun, it sounded neat and interesting, it was different from the normal, grew up in a Kiswahili-speaking environment and thus wanted to learn the language, it was a unique language, to do research in a Kiswahili-speaking region, and it helped in understanding one’s own first language (L1) better. It is obvious that these reasons go beyond the integrative-instrumental motivation continuum previously described.

Respondents also earned different grades in their respective Kiswahili classes, ranging from “A” to “E.” In the computation of grade-point average, a student who earned an “E” and one who audited did not earn any points. The grade distributed based on ethnicity and gender is presented in Figure 4.3 and 4.4 below.
Figure 4.3 above shows how grades were distributed among respondents of different ethnic backgrounds. Unlike the "Others," African Americans and White Americans showed an almost steady increase as grades improved. Even though the percentage was small, White Americans who earned between grade "E"/audit to "D" were more than African Americans. However, from grade "D" to "C-" African Americans outnumbered White Americans. White Americans who earned between grade "C-" to "C" were more than any of the other ethnic group categories. African Americans who earned between grades "C" and "B" outnumbered White Americans. The
percentage of those who earned between a “B” and a “B+” was almost the same among African Americans and White Americans. African Americans who earned grades between “B+” and “A-” were more than White Americans. However, there were more White Americans than African Americans with grades between “A-” and “A.” To be specific, the percentage of African Americans who had a mean grade of an “A” was lower than that of the White Americans by about 10%. Overall, the majority of the respondents had their mean grades between a “C” and a “B.” In general, however, the above figure shows a fair competition across ethnic lines.

The distribution of grades by gender is shown on Figure 4.4 below:
Figure 4.4 above shows that the achievement of female students was higher than that of male students. Only about 1% of female students was either auditing or earned grade “E,” and none had a mean grade of “D,” “D+,” “C-,” or a “C.” The percentage of males who earned between grade “E”/audit and “B-” was higher than that of females. However, more females than males earned grade “B”. There were more males than females with grades between “B+” and “A-.” About 50% of female students had a mean
grade of an “A.” Less than 20% of male students had a mean grade of an “A.” The lower Kiswahili achievement among male students calls for further investigation.

Summary

In this sub-section, the demographic information of the respondents was presented. This information included respondents’ age, gender, Kiswahili course level, college rank, major area of study, prior foreign language experience, ethnicity, and grade-point average. It was noted that there were more White Americans enrolled in the Kiswahili program than African Americans. It was also noted that there were more males than females enrolled in the Kiswahili program. Even though ethnic and gender composition in the Kiswahili program could be a reflection of their representation in the research site, more studies need to be conducted to ascertain any biases in the recruitment efforts. Another observation made was that there was a change in trends as far as accessibility to foreign language programs was concerned. More minority respondents were found to be accessible to foreign languages than before. In the sub-section that follows, the research questions will be addressed. The procedures applied in each of the research questions and conclusion reached will be discussed.
4.2 Answers to Research Questions

4.2.1 Results of Research Question 1

What motivates college students to study Kiswahili as a foreign language?

This question sought to establish the self-reported reasons why college students enrolled in Kiswahili as a foreign language in a large public university in the Midwest, USA. Since the reasons for enrollment were non-numerical, they were all coded. Respondents who reported more than one reason were given separate codes. Due to a multiplicity of reasons for enrollment in Kiswahili and the size of the sample, only a few groups were considered for analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the reasons why students reported enrolling in Kiswahili as a foreign language at the research site. Frequencies and percentages were tabulated and presented. The reasons reported by participants ranked in descending order of mention were as follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motive for enrolling in Kiswahili class</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required and curiosity</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I heard it’s easy</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heard it’s easy &amp; curiosity</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>69.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, heard it’s easy &amp; curiosity</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>91.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other reasons</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>43.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan to visit Africa &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>63.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required &amp; heard it's easy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>72.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>78.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, tracking cultural heritage &amp; curiosity</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>82.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>74.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heard it’s easy &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>84.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>93.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity, plan to visit Africa &amp; identify with speakers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>98.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. dev. &amp; Plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I heard it's easy, curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>46.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, heard it's easy, curiosity, plan to visit Africa, to identify with speakers, &amp; learn another culture</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, curiosity &amp; to have fair competition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>60.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, curiosity &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>70.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I heard it’s easy, tracking cultural heritage, curiosity, and plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage, curiosity &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. dev., curiosity, plan to visit Africa &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>79.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. Dev., curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>85.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage &amp; curiosity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>92.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, professional development, heard it's easy, curiosity, &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage &amp; identify with speakers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, heard its easy, tracking cultural heritage, curiosity &amp; identify with speakers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, tracking cultural heritage &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>99.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total                                  | 114       | 100.0    | 100.0         |                    |

Table 4.9: Self-reported motivations for student enrollment in Kiswahili classes

114
The reasons with high percentages were the major reasons reported for student enrollment in Kiswahili as a foreign language at the research site. As Table 4.9 above shows, most of the respondents (12.3%) enrolled in Kiswahili out of curiosity. Curiosity among students may have emanated from three sources. First, it could have emerged from the lack of African languages from K-12 school curriculum. Secondly, students may have enrolled in Kiswahili in order to confirm or reject some of the stereotypes about Africa they had learned through the media. Third, students (especially those who had foreign language study prior to enrolling in the Kiswahili program) may have experienced failure in their previous study and may have wanted to try something else.

Another reason that students identified as motivating them to enroll in Kiswahili study was that it was required to fulfill a foreign language college graduation requirement. 11.4% of the respondents identified this as their reason for enrolling in Kiswahili classes. One could legitimately ask why some students chose Kiswahili and not another foreign language offered at the institution. A possible reason could be that Kiswahili was not widely offered in local K-12 schools. So students may have felt that they were competing at the same level. A third reason that motivated some respondents to enroll in Kiswahili classes was that they had heard Kiswahili was easy. Some respondents claimed that Kiswahili was an easy language to study. Whether this claim has been proven or not, there may be some truth in it. The Foreign Service Institute has published data on foreign languages according to their levels of difficulty on a 1 to 5

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1 At the time of this study, only one middle school in the State of Ohio (Mifflin International Middle School) was offering Kiswahili. Before then, Kiswahili was offered in East High school, but the program could not be sustained. Plans were underway to start offering Kiswahili at the Columbus Africentric School. The major reported drawbacks to the teaching of Kiswahili in K-12 school are lack of trained teachers and instructional materials.
Kiswahili is ranked level 1 with Spanish, among the easiest languages to learn. Odlin (1989) has also published similar findings. According to Odlin, “Many people believe that some languages are easier in comparison with others” (p.1).

Odlin further presents a list of foreign languages and the number of weeks of study that learners would take to attain the required proficiency. According to this list, American college students would require twenty-four weeks of intensive Kiswahili instruction to attain the required proficiency level. One characteristic that could contribute to the ease with which American English speakers learn Kiswahili is that it uses the Roman alphabet. This means that these learners might be able to transfer their reading skills from their English (L1) in learning Kiswahili (L2).

Reasons for enrolling in Kiswahili listed as “others” on Figure 4.9 above included the following: it is perceived to be a unique language; it is different from the normal; it represents learning about a non-western culture; it is an elective; it fits students’ schedule; it can help a student to understand his/her L1; and previous experience in a Kiswahili-speaking setting and studying Kiswahili presents an opportunity to continue learning that language.

Summary

The motivations that drive college students to enroll in the Kiswahili program were presented. It was found that curiosity among college students was the major driving force in enrolling in the Kiswahili program. The researcher suggested that students were likely to be curious to learn Kisahili because their education system (elementary through high school) did not cover much about Africa and much of the information that students
had learned about Africa was from the media. Therefore, students may have wanted to
seize the opportunity in Kiswahili classes to either confirm or reject some of the prior
stereotypes that they had. The second major motivation in enrolling in the Kiswahili
program was to meet a foreign language college graduation requirement. This means that
the students enrolled in the Kiswahili program, not because of their own choice, but
because the university wanted them to have a foreign language. It is assumed that in
addition to preparing students for future careers, foreign languages make students
appreciate and respect diversity. The third motivation drive in enrolling in the Kiswahili
program was that students heard, probably from their fellow students and friends, that
Kiswahili was an easy subject. However, as respondents noted in their comments,
Kiswahili was as challenging as any other academic subject. The only skill that students
could transfer from their L1 in learning Kiswahili was the reading skill since Kiswahili
used Roman alphabet. However, there is need for more research to establish how much
of the L1 skills transfer in L2 learning.

4.2.2 Results of Research Question 2

Is there a correlation between motivation and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

Descriptive statistics were used to investigate this question. Measures of central
tendency (e.g. mean) and variability (e.g. standard deviation) were calculated and
presented. This approach was determined to be appropriate because the data of the
independent variable (e.g. motivation for enrollment in Kiswahili program) was non-
numerical, while that of the dependent variable (Kiswahili language learning
achievement) was numerical. Achievement, in this case, was measured by the respondent's Kiswahili grade-point average (GPA). Motivations for enrollment in Kiswahili classes were compared with students' Kiswahili GPA mean. It was concluded that the higher the Kiswahili GPA mean, the better was the motivation and vice versa. The results of compared means are shown in the Table 4.10 below.

As can be seen in Table 4.10, Kiswahili mean score for the entire group was 3.186. The highest Kiswahili mean score was 4.0. However, the number of respondents who reported a Kiswahili mean score of 4.0 was too small to draw comparisons with the rest of the sub-groups. Seven major sub-groups that emerged were considered for analysis in order to draw appropriate conclusions. The sub-groups were of those students who enrolled in Kiswahili: for curiosity (N= 14 and \(M=3.1\)), because it was required to fulfill a foreign language college graduation requirement (N=13 and \(M=2.90\)), because it was required and for curiosity (N=11 and \(M=3.0\)), because one heard it was easy (N=7 and \(M=2.91\)), because one heard it was easy and curiosity (N=7 and \(M=3.1\)), because it was required, one heard it was easy, and curiosity (N=6 and \(M=3.5\)), and because one planned to visit Africa in the future (N=5 and \(M=3.2\)). From Table 4.10, it can be seen that those students whose drive was from within themselves (also referred to us intrinsic motivation), for example those who were curious and planned to visit Africa in the future, had a higher Kiswahili mean score than those whose drive was external (also known as extrinsic motivation), for example those who took Kiswahili to fulfill a foreign language college graduation requirement. However, this study did not want to tie itself in the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation for enrolling in Kiswahili class</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>S.D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heard it’s easy, curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage, curiosity &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. dev., curiosity, plan to visit Africa &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. Dev., curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, heard its easy, tracking cultural heritage, curiosity, and identify with speakers</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity, plan to visit Africa, and identify with speakers</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>3.900</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>3.800</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other reasons</td>
<td>3.800</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, curiosity &amp; to have fair competition</td>
<td>3.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heard it’s easy, tracking cultural heritage, curiosity, &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>3.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, tracking cultural heritage &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>3.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>3.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, curiosity &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>3.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, heard it’s easy &amp; curiosity</td>
<td>3.450</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td>3.350</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage &amp; curiosity</td>
<td>3.300</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>3.200</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heard it’s easy &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>3.150</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>3.150</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heard it’s easy &amp; curiosity</td>
<td>3.129</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curiosity</td>
<td>3.129</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan to visit Africa &amp; to identify with speakers</td>
<td>3.100</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required and curiosity</td>
<td>3.027</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage &amp; identify with speakers</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heard it was easy</td>
<td>2.914</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required</td>
<td>2.908</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage</td>
<td>2.775</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, heard it’s easy, curiosity, plan to visit Africa, to identify with speakers, &amp; learn another culture</td>
<td>2.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, professional dev., heard it’s easy, curiosity, &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>2.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required &amp; heard it’s easy</td>
<td>2.567</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required, tracking cultural heritage &amp; curiosity</td>
<td>2.433</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracking cultural heritage curiosity &amp; plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>2.300</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prof. dev. &amp; Plan to visit Africa</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean of the total</td>
<td>3.186</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>1809</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10: Motivations for enrollment in Kiswahili, mean scores and related standard deviations
In order to establish whether there was a correlation between the subjects’ motivation to study Kiswahili and their Kiswahili GPA, Spearman Rho correlation was conducted and the summarized results of the correlation procedures used are presented in Table 4.11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Correlation procedure</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Correlation coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#2</td>
<td>Spearman Rho</td>
<td>Kiswahili GPA &amp; Motivation</td>
<td>.222 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#3</td>
<td>Spearman Rho</td>
<td>Kiswahili GPA &amp; Ethnicity</td>
<td>.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#4</td>
<td>Spearman Rho</td>
<td>Kiswahili GPA &amp; Gender</td>
<td>.304*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#5</td>
<td>Spearman Rank Order</td>
<td>Kiswahili GPA &amp; age</td>
<td>-.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#6</td>
<td>Spearman Rho</td>
<td>Kiswahili GPA &amp; FL study experience</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#7</td>
<td>Spearman Rank Order</td>
<td>Kiswahili GPA &amp; College class rank</td>
<td>-.030</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.11  Summarized correlations between Kiswahili GPA and motivation, ethnicity, gender, age, FL study experience, and college class rank
From the Table 4.11, it can be seen that there was a low positive correlation between motivation and achievement \((r = .22)\). Based on this correlation, motivation for enrolling in Kiswahili accounted for only 5\% \((.22^2 \times 100 = 5\%)\) of the variance in Kiswahili students' GPA \((r^2 = .05)\). The correlation between motivation and Kiswahili GPA was significance at the .05 level. This means that there was 5\% probability of explaining Kiswahili student GPA based on motivation. It is important to note that the low correlation found between motivation and Kiswahili GPA might have resulted from the small size of the sample and the diversity of the reasons reported for enrollment in the Kiswahili program. It is possible that a replication of this study with a larger sample might yield a stronger correlation. Since motivation can be used to explain only a small percentage of student achievement, it might be of research interest to investigate other factors that might affect Kiswahili as a foreign language achievement, for example, intelligence, attitude, and aptitude, among others. However, that type of research is beyond the scope of the present study.

Summary

Motivation and Kiswahili GPA were correlated to establish whether there existed any relation, and whether one could use knowledge of one variable to predict the other. Kiswahili means of respondents enrolled in the Kiswahili program were compared. It was found that those respondents who were intrinsically motivated had a higher Kiswahili mean score than those respondents who were extrinsically motivated. However, given that this study was not experimental, it might not be safe to conclude that
intrinsic motivation has more effect in Kiswahili language learning achievement than extrinsic motivation. More scientific research is this area is needed.

Correlation between motivation and Kiswahili language learning achievement was low ($r = .22$). The researcher attributed the low correlation between these variables to the small sample surveyed. A replication of this study with a larger sample could yield higher correlation.

4.2.3 Results of Research Question 3

Is there a correlation between ethnicity and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

To answer this question, the researcher applied two analyses. First, Kiswahili GPA mean and standard deviations of each ethnic group were calculated and presented. Then, Kiswahili GPA mean and standard deviations of each ethnic group were compared with Kiswahili GPA mean and standard deviations of the entire group. The first approach was important to give an overview of the Kiswahili language learning achievement of each ethnic group in comparison with the others, as well as with the entire group. The results are presented in Table 4.12 below:
Ethnicity | N | Kiswahili GPA Mean | Standard Deviation
---|---|---|---
White Americans | 76 | 3.192 | .850
African Americans | 29 | 3.097 | .764
Others | 9 | 3.422 | .585
Total | 114 | 3.186 | .809

NB: Respondents included in the “others” category included students who did not fit in the two major ethnic groups, African Americans and White Americans

Table 4.12: Kiswahili mean scores of the respondents by ethnicity

The Kiswahili GPA mean score of the entire group sample was 3.19. From Table 4.11 above, the sub-group in the category of “others” seemed to have a higher Kiswahili GPA mean (3.42) than each of the rest of the groups. The White Americans who had a Kiswahili GPA mean score of 3.19 followed, and then African Americans followed this sub-group with a Kiswahili GPA mean score of 3.10. However, this observation could be misleading because the number of subjects in the “others” category was very small to be relied on for conclusive recommendations. The standard deviations, which reflect the degree to which the values in a distribution differ from the mean, showed that the “others” were closer to the mean than both Whites and African Americans. The standard deviation indicated that the White Americans were .85 above the mean, African Americans were .76, and the “others” were .59. Based on the standard deviations, the Whites were more distributed, followed by African Americans, and then the “others.” Following the standard deviations, there was a bigger variance among White Americans.
in Kiswahili language achievement than African Americans and the "others" respectively. With the close Kiswahili mean scores between each ethnic group and their standard deviations, one could conclude that the difference in Kiswahili achievement between the three groups was not large. Since there was little variability within the entire group, these findings indicate a fair competition across ethnic lines.

In order to establish whether ethnicity was a factor in determining Kiswahili achievement, Spearman Rho correlation was applied. This second procedure was appropriate because the independent variable (ethnicity) was categorical, while the dependent variable (Kiswahili achievement) was numerical (Hatch and Lazaraton 1991). The results are presented in the Table 4.11.

As can be seen from Table 4.11, there seems to be low correlation between ethnicity and achievement ($r = .03$). Only $0.09\%$ ($0.03^2 \times 100 = 0.09\%$) of the variance in Kiswahili GPA could be explained by ethnicity ($r^2 = .09$). However, the size of the sample might have affected the results of this study, and these findings may not necessarily suggest that ethnicity is not a significant factor in Kiswahili language learning achievement. More studies with large samples are needed.

Summary

Kiswahili mean of the three ethnic groups were compared to establish which group was doing better. Kiswahili mean showed that the sub-group of "others" was doing better than White Americans and African Americans. However, the small number of respondents in this category could have skewed the results. In addition, the standard
deviation showed that White Americans were higher above the mean than both African Americans and the “Others.” It is however not safe to rule out that the “others” were not doing better than White Americans and African Americans, especially bearing in mind the “others” background and the effect of language transfer. Majority of the “others” came from non-Kiswahili-speaking African countries. If these respondents spoke a Bantu language, of which Kiswahili is a part, as their L1, then they were likely to find a lot of similarities between the two languages. Even those who spoke Arabic could have found studying Kiswahili easy because Kiswahili has borrowed a lot from Arabic due to early contacts between Kiswahili speakers and Arab traders along the coast of East Africa. If Americans find some European languages easy to learn due to their similarities (Odlin 1988), then the same would to apply to speakers of other African or related languages learning Kiswahili.

Correlation coefficient between Kiswahili GPA and ethnicity was low (.030). Although going by the results of this study only a small percentage (.09%) of the variance in Kiswahili GPA could be explained by ethnicity, it does not necessarily mean that ethnicity is not a factor in Kiswahili language learning achievement. Various earlier research studies reported a low achievement among minority students. More scientific studies with large samples are needed.
4.2.4 Results of Research Question 4

Is there a correlation between gender and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

In this question also two procedures were used. First, the Kiswahili GPA mean scores for each gender were compared with the Kiswahili GPA mean score of the entire group. The results are shown in Table 4.13 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>3.021</td>
<td>.795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>3.421</td>
<td>.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3.186</td>
<td>.809</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.13: Respondents’ Kiswahili GPA mean scores based on gender

As Table 4.13 shows, females had a higher mean GPA (3.42) than males (3.02). This means that female respondents achieved higher than male respondents. The standard deviation of males (.795) was higher than that of females (.779). This indicated that males were more spread than females above the mean. In other words, there was a higher variance among male respondents than was the case among female students as far as Kiswahili achievement was concerned.

The second approach applied was Spearman Rho correlation. This second procedure was appropriate because the independent variable in this research question (gender) was categorical, while the dependent variable data set (Kiswahili achievement) was numerical. The results are presented in Table 4.11 above.
As indicated in Table 4.11, there was a low positive correlation between gender and academic achievement ($r = .30$). In order to establish the percentage for which gender accounted for Kiswahili achievement, a statistical computation was applied. It was found that $9\% (\cdot .30^2 \times 100 = 9\%)$ of the variance in Kiswahili GPA could be explained by gender ($r^2 = .90$). The results indicate a low correlation between gender and achievement in Kiswahili. This correlation was significant at the .01 level. This means that the chances of gender accounting for Kiswahili GPA were negligible. This correlation is meaningful especially bearing in mind that this study utilized a small sample.

Summary

The correlation between gender and Kiswahili language learning achievement were reported. The Kiswahili mean of the two gender groups indicated that females were doing better in Kiswahili language learning than males. The standard deviations indicated that there was more variance between males than females. Correlation between gender and Kiswahili GPA was low ($r = .30$). Correlation coefficient showed that only $9\%$ of the variance in Kiswahili GPA could be explained by gender.

4.2.5 Results of Research Question 5

Is there a correlation between age and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

Descriptive statistics were applied to answer this question. First, frequencies and percentages were presented. Secondly, Spearman Rank Order Correlation was used to establish the degree to which age was correlated with Kiswahili GPA. This approach was
applied because the independent variable (age) was received as interval data, while the
dependent variable (Kiswahili achievement) data were in numerical form. Each interval
representing age was coded and then correlated with the respondents' Kiswahili grade-
point average (GPA). Distribution of grades for the entire group is presented in Table
4.14 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>70.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B+</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C+</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D+</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audit</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.14: Frequencies and percentages of respondents' Kiswahili grade-point
average for all Kiswahili courses taken by each respondent

As the Table 4.14 above shows, about 30% of the respondents reported an “A”
(4.0 GPA). The next grade in frequency was a “B-” with 20.2% for the respondents. “A-”
followed with 14.9% of the respondents. A grade of “B+” accounted for 10.5% of the
respondents. Respondents below 10% reported other grades. This distribution shows that
a majority of the respondents had grade “B” or better, representing a negatively skewed
distribution. Such a distribution may suggest that the tests given to the students were either too easy or had some biases of some sort. There is need for further investigation.

In order to investigate which age set had a higher Kiswahili language learning achievement, the means and the standard deviations of the different age sets were compared. The results are presented in Table 4.15 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.378</td>
<td>.9391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>3.157</td>
<td>.8270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.106</td>
<td>.7199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.350</td>
<td>.9192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.650</td>
<td>.4950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3.186</td>
<td>.8093</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.15 Mean and standard deviations of respondents based on age sets

Table 4.15 shows that the age set that had the highest Kiswahili mean was 40 years old and above. However, this age set had only one respondent and thus could be not relied on for comparison with the other age sets. The next age sets with a high mean were from 35 to 39 and from 30 to 34 years old. This age sets also had very few respondents and thus were not considered for analysis. Respondents between 18 and 19 years old had a Kiswahili mean of 3.38. Those between 20 and 24 years old had a Kiswahili mean of
3.16; and those between 25 and 29 years old had a Kiswahili mean of 3.11. The entire
group had a Kiswahili mean of 3.19. As it can be noticed, there were no major differences
between the three major age-set sub-groups. However, it is important to note that of the
three age sets considered for analysis, those between ages 18 to 19 performed better in
Kiswahili than the other age sets. However this age set had fewer respondents than the
other age sets. Kiswahili GPA mean scores of those belonging to 20-24 and 25-29 were
slightly below the mean. The standard deviation indicated a higher variation between
respondent of ages 18-19. Next in variation were respondents of ages 20-24, followed by
respondents of ages 25-29. The other age sets had few respondents and were not
considered for analysis. Perhaps if the sample was larger with diverse age-sets, the results
could have been different.

In order to find out whether correlation existed between age and Kiswahili
language learning achievement, Pearson’s Rank Order correlation procedure was
conducted and the results are presented in Table 4.11. There was a low negative
correlation between age and Kiswahili language learning achievement ($r = -.018$). Age
could only account for .03% ($-.018^2 \times 100 = .03\%$) of the variance of Kiswahili GPA
($r^2 = .000324$). Previous research had shown that age may not be a factor in
second/foreign language acquisition. This may be the case because the critical period
hypothesis continues to be challenged. It has been shown that both children and adults
follow the same route, but differ in the rate of second/foreign language acquisition (Ellis,
1990 and 1997). When the scores were plotted on a graph, the results revealed how
correlation between age and Kiswahili achievement differed from one age category to
another. Plotted scores are presented in Figure 4.5 below:
Figure 4.5: Correlation between age and Kiswahili GPA mean scores

Figure 4.5 above shows a negative correlation between age and achievement among respondents of ages 18 to 24 years old, and a positive correlation between ages 25 and above. Although there are many factors that could have affected Kiswahili language achievement, one could speculate that students become more responsible as they grow older and thus improve in their academic achievement. However, a majority of the students were below 25 years old, and therefore these findings could be misleading due to the small size of the sample. Studies focusing on age as a factor in SLA/FLA have mostly dealt with differences between children and adults (Krashen 1979, Snow and Hoefnagel-Hoehle 1978). The Heidelberg Research Project (1975) of acquisition of German by adult immigrants showed that increasing age correlated with lesser command
of the second language. Svanes' (1988) study supported similar findings. There is need for more research to establish what role age plays in foreign language acquisition.

Summary

Results of studies on age and foreign language learning are not conclusive. The Critical Period Hypothesis has set the age limit at puberty. However, research continues to show that both adults and children follow the same route, but differ in the rate of second/foreign language acquisition. Another difference occurs in the pronunciation. Due to physiological developments, children acquire better pronunciation skills than adults in second/foreign language learning.

In the current study, Kiswahili means of different age sets were computed and presented. It was found that respondents who were 30 years old and above had a higher Kiswahili mean score than those who were younger. However, the number of those who were 30 years and older was too small to be relied on for any conclusive recommendations. There was a low negative correlation between age and Kiswahili language learning. However, more research on the role of age in second/foreign language acquisition is needed.
4.2.6 Results of Research Question 6

Is there a correlation between prior foreign language study experience and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

In order to investigate this question, the Kiswahili GPA mean of respondents who had prior foreign language study experience before enrolling in the Kiswahili program was compared with the Kiswahili GPA mean of respondents who did not have prior foreign language study experience. This comparison was based on the assumption that students who had prior foreign language learning experience (regardless of the language) had different foreign language learning strategies at their disposal than those who did not have such an experience, and as such were bound do to better. The mean and the standard deviations of respondents on the basis of foreign language study experience are presented on table 4.16 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FL. EXP</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>3.176</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>3.192</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total group</td>
<td>3.186</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>.809</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FL.EXP = Foreign language study experience

Table 4.16 Mean and Standard Deviation based on prior foreign language study experience
As can be noticed from Table 4.16, the Kiswahili mean of those who had a prior foreign language study experience before enrolling in the Kiswahili program was higher than the Kiswahili mean of those who did not have prior foreign language study experience. Likewise, the standard deviation of those who had a prior foreign language study experience was higher than those who did not have such an experience. The mean indicates that those who had a foreign language study experience were performing better than those who did not have a foreign language study experience. The standard deviation indicates that those who had a foreign language study experience had a higher variation within the group than those who did not have a foreign language study experience.

In order to investigate how different the two groups were, Spearman Rho correlation was applied and the results are presented in Table 4.11. The results indicate a positive correlation between prior FL study experience and achievement in Kiswahili (r = .033). About 0.11% (0.033^2 x 100 = .11%) of the variance in Kiswahili GPA could be explained by previous foreign language study experience (r^2 = .001089). The fact that there exists a negligible correlation between prior foreign language study and Kiswahili GPA suggests a need for further study of other factors, beyond this study, that may affect Kiswahili language learning achievement.

Summary

Comparison of Kiswahili mean and the standard deviations of respondents who had a prior foreign language study experience and those who did not have a foreign language study experience showed that the former group had a higher mean than the latter group. The standard deviation also showed that the former group was higher above
the mean than the latter group. However, the correlation between prior foreign language study experience and Kiswahili language learning was negligible.

4.2.7 Results of Research Question 7

Is there a correlation between student college ranking and Kiswahili language learning achievement?

To answer this question, the mean of each college rank was computed and then Spearman Rank Order correlation was applied to establish whether there existed any relationship between the two variables. This approach was applied since the independent variable (student rank in college) was described in terms of ranks (freshman, sophomore, junior, senior, graduate student), while the dependent variable (Kiswahili achievement) data were numerical. Each interval representing student college class rank was coded and then correlated with the respondents' Kiswahili GPA. Respondents' mean, standard deviations, and range are presented on Table 4.17 below:
Table 4.17 Kiswahili mean, Standard Deviation, and Range of respondents based on college class rank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College class rank</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>3.243</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.036</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>3.050</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.036</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>3.276</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>.733</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>3.153</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>.763</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate student</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.186</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 4.17 above, it can be seen that the Kiswahili mean for the entire group was 3.186. Graduate students had the highest mean (4.0). However, the number of graduate students was too small to draw any reliable conclusions. Juniors had the second highest mean (3.276), followed by freshmen (3.243). Seniors had a mean of 3.153, while the sophomores had a Kiswahili mean of 3.050. The standard deviation revealed that the freshmen and sophomores were more than one standard deviation above the means than the rest of the groups. This means that the freshmen and sophomores were more spread above the mean than the juniors and seniors. This observation indicated that there was a higher variance within each of these sub-groups than the rest of the subgroups. However, as already noted, a majority of the respondents were seniors and therefore, the size of the sample might have been a factors in these findings.
To establish whether college class rank was a factor in achievement in Kiswahili, Spearman Rank Order correlation was applied. The results are presented in Table 4.11. Table 4.11 shows a low negative correlation between college class rank and Kiswahili GPA ($r = -0.03$). This results means that only $0.09\%$ ($-0.03 \times 100 = 0.09\%$) of the variance in Kiswahili GPA could be explained by college ranking ($r^2 = 0.0009$). The correlation of Kiswahili GPA and college class rank is shown in Figure 4.6 below:

Figure 4.6: Correlation between Kiswahili GPA and college class rank

Figure 4.6 above shows a steady Kiswahili GPA between freshmen and sophomores, but a drop among the junior Kiswahili students. Kiswahili GPA then rises slightly among the seniors. Fluctuation in Kiswahili GPA could be reflecting complexity of college studies as students rise in their ranking. The steep rise in Kiswahili GPA
among graduate students could be misleading because there were very few graduate students among the respondents. In addition, the teacher assigned grades that are the basis for this analysis may have built-in variability that were beyond control of this study.

Summary

Kiswahili means of respondents were presented on the basis of their college class rank. Graduate students had the highest mean. This finding was not surprising since the Kiswahili course was not designed for graduate students. Although the number of graduate students enrolled in the Kiswahili program was small, there is need for more study to establish whether graduate students are advantaged in taking a foreign language course designed for undergraduate students. Juniors were the second with a Kiswahili mean score of 3.28. It is possible that students at this level were a bit serious as they approached their senior year. Freshmen were the third with a Kiswahili mean of 3.24. Since majority of respondents were seniors, it is likely that the freshmen were in Kiswahili 101. Going by this assumption, the freshmen were likely to do well since Kiswahili 101 is a less challenging introductory course. Another factor that may have accounted for a higher Kiswahili mean among freshmen was their number. They were only seven (7). Seniors had a Kiswahili mean of 3.15. Their Kiswahili achievement mean score was below the entire Kiswahili group mean score. This fluctuation may have been caused by the fact that at this level students start to get more focused on the next level or after school life. Sophomores had Kiswahili mean of 3.05. This was the lowest Kiswahili mean among the five sub-groups. These students may have relaxed after
finding introductory courses less challenging. College class rank and foreign language achievement is an area that needs more research. This study found a low negative correlation between college class rank and Kiswahili language learning achievement. Such low correlation seems to suggest that college students could enroll for Kiswahili when they were at any level in their college class rank.

4.2.8 Results of Research Question 8

What is Kiswahili students' assessment of the program, Kiswahili instructors, instructors' teaching methods, instructional materials used, in-class and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams?

Students were asked to rank the Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors' teaching methods, in-class and out-of-class assignments, instructional materials used, and oral exams on a 4-point scale ranging from “A” for excellent to “D” for poor. The 4-point Likert-scale was converted as follows: 1 was ranked as poor, 2 as fair, 3 as good, and 4 as excellent. In the analysis, descriptive statistics were used for each of these items. Means and standard deviations among groups were computed and presented. It was assumed that the higher the mean, the better was the assessment and vice versa. The summarized analysis of each item is presented in Table 4.17 below, followed by a discussion of each of them.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1 Poor</th>
<th>2 Fair</th>
<th>3 Good</th>
<th>4 Excellent</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KP</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KI</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KITM</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KIM</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KWE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KH</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>53.5</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KOE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KP = Kiswahili program
KI = Kiswahili instructors
KITM = Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods
KIM = Kiswahili instructional materials
KH = Kiswahili homework
KWE = Kiswahili written exam
KOE = Kiswahili oral exam

Table 4.18 Ratings of the Kiswahili program, instructors, teaching methods, instructional materials, homework, written and oral exams, and their means, standard deviations, and range

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4.2.8.1 Assessment of the Kiswahili program

In this item respondents had a mean score of 3.25. This rating suggested that overall respondents rated the program as good. This rating also suggested that respondents felt that there was need for improvement in some parts of the program. Half of the respondents (50%) rated the program as good, 38% rated it as excellent, 12% rated it as fair. No respondent rated the program as poor. Based on these ratings, one could safely infer that a majority of the study participants were satisfied with the program. As was noted in the respondents' comments, there were suggestions for an increase of cultural components in the curriculum and a request to make an effort to retain the same instructor throughout the four major levels of the Kiswahili course. It is possible that these two factors may have accounted for a slight drop in the overall rating.

The researcher also assessed how respondents rated the program by ethnicity, and by gender and the results are presented on Figure 4.7 and 4.8 respectively below:
Af-Americans denote African Americans
Wh-Americans denote White Americans
Others refers to any respondent other than African American or White American

Figure 4.7: Rating of the Kiswahili program by ethnicity

As can be seen in Figure 4.7 above, overall, White Americans rated the Kiswahili program more positively than African Americans. Such a rating might be a reflection of lack of satisfaction with some aspects of the content on the part of African Americans. It is possible that the Kiswahili program is not drawn in such a way that it provides for reconnection for African Americans. Such a reconnection could be made though teaching of African American history and experiences and connecting it with African experiences in the Kiswahili program and hiring of qualified African American
instructors who could provide models to the learners. None of the ethnic groups rated the Kiswahili program as poor. The rating of the Kiswahili program by gender is presented on Figure 4.8 below:

![Graph showing the rating of the Kiswahili program by gender](image)

**Figure 4.8: Rating of the Kiswahili program by gender**

As can be seen from Figure 4.8 above, male respondents gave the Kiswahili program a slightly higher rating than female respondents. Although the difference in gender rating of the Kiswahili program may not be significant, it might be important in the future to evaluate the program content and establish whether it has elements of gender-bias.
4.2.8.2 Assessment of Kiswahili instructors

As can be seen in Table 4.17, Kiswahili instructors received a mean rating of 3.4. This rating meant that a majority of the respondents felt that their instructors were good. Over half of the respondents (54%) rated the Kiswahili instructors as excellent. This rating may have been influenced by the fact that most of the instructors had undergone rigorous training workshops conducted by the National Foreign Language Resource Center and the Center for Teaching Excellence. In addition, most of the respondents did not fail to note that all Kiswahili instructors were either native speakers, or came from a Kiswahili-speaking region. Only less than 8% rated Kiswahili instructors as either fair or poor. The rating of Kiswahili instructors by gender is presented in Figure 4.9 below.
Nearly 60% of male respondents rated Kiswahili instructors as excellent, while about 50% of the females reported a similar rating. Only a small percentage (about 2%) of males rated Kiswahili instructors as poor, while no females gave such a rating. A slightly lower percentage of males rated Kiswahili instructors as fair when compared to females. Over 40% of the female respondents rated Kiswahili instructors as good, while about 30% of males gave them a similar rating. The rating of Kiswahili instructors by ethnicity is presented in Table 4.10 below:
Considering the two major ethnic groups, over 60% of African Americans rated Kiswahili instructors as excellent, while more than 40% of White Americans gave Kiswahili instructors the same rating. As noted by other researchers, the fact that Kiswahili was taught by native speakers may have given students satisfaction with their instructors. The percentage of White Americans that rated Kiswahili instructors as good
was almost the same as the percentage of the same ethnic group that gave Kiswahili instructors an “excellent” rating. However, less than 20% of African Americans rated Kiswahili instructors as “good.” Although overall the percentage of respondents that rated Kiswahili instructors as “fair” was small, the percentage of White Americans that rated Kiswahili instructors as “fair” was slightly lower than the percentage of African Americans that gave the same rating to Kiswahili instructors.

4.2.8.3 Assessment of Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods

Most of the respondents seemed satisfied with Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods. Approximately 45% rated the teaching methods as excellent, 39% as good, and 14% as fair. Only about 3% rated the teaching methods of Kiswahili instructors as poor. The Kiswahili program at the research site emphasizes direct and communicative approach. This approach calls for a limited use of learners’ L1 and presentation of comprehensible input in the target language. However, implementation of communicative approach differed from one instructor to another. At the same time, some students may have been used to other methods (like translation) from their previous foreign language classes and may not have been comfortable with direct method. Lack of uniformity in teaching methodology may have resulted in poor rating of some instructors by some students. The rating of Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods by gender is presented in Figure 4.11 below:
The percentage of respondents that rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods as "excellent" was about 45%. This percentage was the same among male and female respondents. The percentage of females that rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods as "good" was slightly higher than that of males. About 18% of males rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods as "fair," while about 10% of females gave the same rating. Only a very small percentage (about 2%) of females rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching
methods as "poor." There was no male that rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods as "poor." The rating of Kiswahili instructors' teaching methods by ethnicity is presented in Figure 4.12 below:

Af-Americans denote African Americans
Wh-Americans denote White Americans
Others refers to any respondent other than African American or White American

Figure 4.12: Rating of Kiswahili instructors' teaching methods by ethnicity

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By ethnicity, no ethnic group rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods as "poor." The percentage of those who rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods as "fair" was about 10%. This percentage was almost the same between the two major ethnic groups. The difference occurred in the "good" and "excellent" ratings. About 45% of White Americans rated Kiswahili teachers teaching methods as "good," while only about 20% of African Americans gave Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods the same rating. Close to 60% of African Americans rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods as "excellent." Less than 40% of White Americans rated Kiswahili teachers' teaching methods as "excellent." The big difference in the ratings between respondents of different ethnic groups might have been caused by a reference to a specific teacher's teaching methods.

4.2.8.4 Assessment of Kiswahili instructional materials?

It was clear that there was a need for better teaching materials in Kiswahili program. Only 11% rated the materials used as excellent, about 51% rated materials as good and about 30% rated them as fair. Even though this rating appears relatively good, it may have resulted from respondents' lack of exposure to the existing materials in other foreign language programs. As respondents noted in their comments, there is an acute lack of technologically suitable materials for the Kiswahili program. Lack of such materials like computer-based programs makes Kiswahili lag behind other foreign language programs and students may feel less motivated to study such a language due to
frustrations resulting from a shortage of materials that are compatible with computer age and that address their needs. The rating of Kiswahili material by ethnicity is presented in Figure 4.13 below:

Af-Americans denote African Americans
Wh-Americans denote White Americans
Others refers to any respondent other than African American or White American

Figure 4.13: Rating of Kiswahili teaching materials by ethnicity
The rating of Kiswahili materials between African Americans and White Americans was almost the same. A majority of them rated the materials as "good," but only a small percentage rated the materials as "excellent." White Americans rated Kiswahili materials more favorably than African Americans. The fact that only a small percentage rated Kiswahili materials as excellent suggested or reiterated the need for either revision of existing ones or production of new ones. The rating of Kiswahili material by gender is presented in Figure 4.14 below:

![Figure 4.14: Rating of Kiswahili teaching materials by gender](image-url)

Figure 4.14: Rating of Kiswahili teaching materials by gender
There was no significant difference between genders in the ratings of Kiswahili materials. About 50% of male and female respondents rated Kiswahili materials as "good," while only as small percentage rated materials as "excellent." As can be noticed in Figure 4.14 above, the percentage of female respondents that rated Kiswahili materials as excellent was slightly more than the percentage of males that gave the same rating. However, the percentage of males that rated Kiswahili materials as fair was slightly more than females that gave the same rating. As already noted elsewhere, this discrepancy could be a reflection of gender bias on materials used.

4.2.8.5 Assessment of in-class Kiswahili assignments

Respondents were asked to rank Kiswahili materials on a scale of "A" (excellent) to "D" (poor). This scale was later converted as 1 (poor) to 4 (excellent). Descriptive statistics were then applied and the results are show on Table 4.17.

Most of the students seemed satisfied with the in-class quizzes and examinations given by their instructors. Over 18% rated quizzes and examinations as excellent, 55% as good, 23% as fair, and only 4% as poor. This positive rating may have resulted from the focus of one quiz per week, emphasizing the objectives of that specific week. There were a few incidents of respondents noting that some instructors gave very easy, short, and less challenging quizzes. The rating of in-class assignments by ethnicity is presented in Figure 4.15 below:
The above figure shows that a majority of the students, irrespective of ethnicity, agreed that in-class Kiswahili assignments were good. The percentage of White Americans who rated Kiswahili in-class assignments as “good” was slightly more than that of African Americans who gave the same rating by about 10%. However, the percentage of African Americans who rated Kiswahili in-class assignments as excellent was slightly more than that of White Americans who gave the same rating. There was no African American that rated Kiswahili in-class assignments as poor, although there was a
small percentage (about 4%) of White Americans who gave that rating. The rating of Kiswahili in-class assignments by gender is presented in Figure 4.16 below.

Figure 4.16: Rating of in-class Kiswahili assignments by gender
The rating of in-class Kiswahili assignments by gender did not indicate much difference. The percentage of males who gave a rating of either poor or fair was slightly more than that of females who gave the same rating. However, the percentage of females who rated in-class Kiswahili assignments as either good or excellent was slightly more than the percentage of males that gave the same ratings. The fact that the percentage of respondents’ rating in-class assignments as excellent is small may indicate the need for improvement in these assignments.

4.2.8.6 Assessment of out-of class assignments

Majority of the respondents were satisfied with assignments to be done away from normal classroom environment. Such activities included but were not limited to video and audio recordings of skits and later presentations in class, in addition to regular homework assigned from the text or the teacher. Over 19% rated these activities as excellent, 54% as good, 22% as fair, and only 5% as poor. There was an indication of preference for more homework assignments from a few respondents. The rating of out-of-class assignments by ethnicity is presented on Figure 4.17 below:
Af-Americans denote African Americans
Wh-Americans denote White Americans
Others refers to any respondent other than African American or White American

Figure 4.17: Rating of out-of-class Kiswahili assignments by ethnicity

The rating of out-of-class Kiswahili assignments by ethnicity does not indicate a major difference among the main ethnic groups. African Americans who rated out-of-class Kiswahili assignment as "poor" were about 6%, while White Americans who gave the same rating were about 5%. White Americans who rated out-of-class Kiswahili assignments as "fair" were slightly more than African Americans by about 3%. African
Americans who rated out-of-class assignment as "good" were more than White Americans by about 2%. The percentage of White Americans that rated Kiswahili out-of-class assignments as "excellent" was slightly higher than the percentage of African Americans who gave the same rating. The rating indicates a need for improvement in these assignments. The rating of out-of-class Kiswahili assignments by gender is presented on Figure 4.18 below:

Figure 4.18: Rating of out-of-class Kiswahili assignments by gender
Majority of female Kiswahili students (approximately 60%) rated out-of-class assignments as good, while slightly less than 50% of male respondents gave the same rating. Fewer females than males rated Kiswahili out-of-class assignments as “fair.” The same case applies for the rating of out-of-class assignments as “excellent.” About 4% of male respondents rated Kiswahili out-of-class assignment as poor, while about 5% of female respondents gave the same rating. These ratings suggest a need for improvement in the assignments.

4.2.8.7 Assessment of Kiswahili oral examinations

A majority of Kiswahili students seemed satisfied with their oral examinations. As can be noticed on Table 4.28 above, 27% rated the Kiswahili oral exam as excellent, 60% as good, 11% as fair, and only 2% as poor. This rating may have resulted from exposure and familiarity with the ACTFL guidelines in conducting oral proficiency, in addition to flexibility of instructors on its formalities. As it is noted under respondents’ comments, there was a preference for group activities in conducting oral exams. Respondents noted that they were less anxious and less nervous when doing group presentation. However, group presentations tend to be a repeat of memorized chunks of sentences with neither room for creativity nor negotiation of meaning. They are unnatural and there is a tendency of performance of one individual affecting that of another individual and, in addition, group presentations also are difficult to score. The rating of Kiswahili oral exams by ethnicity is presented on Figure 4.19 below:

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From the Figure above, it can be noticed that only a very small percentage (<5% of each of the ethnic groups) rated Kiswahili oral exams as "poor." The percentage of White Americans that rated Kiswahili oral exams as "fair" was lower than that of African Americans. However, White Americans who rated Kiswahili oral exams as "good" was much higher than that of African Americans (by over 15%). The percentage of African Americans denoted African Americans, Wh-Americans denote White Americans, and Others refers to any respondent other than African American or White American.

Figure 4.19: Rating of Kiswahili oral exams by ethnicity
Americans who rated Kiswahili oral exams as "excellent" was slightly higher (by about 10%) than that of White Americans. It might be of research interest to investigate how these oral exams are conducted so that the discrepancies evident in these findings could be addressed. The rating of Kiswahili oral exams by gender is presented in Figure 4.20 below:

![Rating of Kiswahili oral exams by gender](image)

Figure 4.20: Rating of Kiswahili oral exams by gender
As can be seen from Figure 4.20 above, there were no major differences between respondents who rated Kiswahili oral exams as poor and fair by gender. Differences were noticed in the rating of “good” and “excellent.” The percentage of males who rated Kiswahili oral exams as “good” was higher than of females by about 15%. However, a higher percentage of females (by about 10%) than males rated Kiswahili oral exams as excellent. These differences might be worth investigating.

Summary

In this sub-section Kiswahili students’ assessment of the Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors’ teaching methods, in-class and out-of-class assignments, instructional materials, and oral exams is presented. Overall rating of the Kiswahili program showed a mean of 3.25, suggesting that there was a need for improvement in some parts. Some of the areas that students wanted changed were the number of meetings in a week. The students wanted to have two long meetings per week, instead of the current five meeting each lasting for one hour. They also indicated problems adjusting from one instructor to another and showed a preference of one instructor throughout the four major Kiswahili levels.

Kiswahili instructors received a slightly higher rating than the program. Instructors rating had a mean of 3.4. Some of the factors that the researcher attributed to this rating were the fact that Kiswahili instructors at the research site were all speakers of Kiswahili, came from Kiswahili-speaking countries, and had undergone frequently organized workshops to help them improve their teaching skills.
Kiswahili instructors' teaching methods were rated as good with an overall mean score of 3.25. The method mostly emphasized at the research site was the popular communicative approach. Even though this rating appears satisfactory, it seems that there were some aspects of the instructors' methods that respondents were not comfortable with. It is important to identify those aspects and correct them.

Kiswahili instructional materials had a mean rating of 2.66. This rating indicated a need for more diversified instructional materials that are current and user-friendly. Respondents pointed out some weaknesses with the currently used texts. Some of the weaknesses are shallowness of the glossary, a lack of enough practices exercises, and lack of cultural elements.

There was also a need to improve in-class Kiswahili quizzes and exams. Respondents seemed to prefer fewer in-class quizzes and more homework. Time was identified as one factor that respondents felt was required to have a grasp of the material. There was a preference for essay to short answer quizzes. Respondents argued that essays provided them with an opportunity to demonstrate what they knew in foreign language. The rating of out-of-class and in-class Kiswahili assignments was similar.

The rating of Kiswahili oral exams indicated satisfaction from a majority of the respondents. There was a preference for students doing their orals in groups as opposed to one-on-one with the instructors. Students argued that participating as a group made them less nervous. However, as already noted, group oral is against ACTFL guidelines and is very difficult to score. Kiswahili instructors therefore, need to develop skills to make participants less nervous during Kiswahili oral exams.
Results of Research Question 9

To what extent does Kiswahili program meet student goals and expectations?

This question was aimed at establishing the extent to which the Kiswahili program met the student goals and expectations. Respondents were asked to rate the level of satisfaction with the Kiswahili program in meeting their goals and expectations. The rating was on a 4-point Likert-scale ranging from “fully satisfied” to “I do not know.” This scale was converted to 1-4, where 1 represented “I do not know,” 2 “not satisfied,” 3 “partially satisfied,” and 4 “fully satisfied.” Descriptive statistics were applied to compare the mean. Higher mean represented satisfaction, and lower mean represented lack of satisfaction. Frequencies and percentages showing respondents’ satisfaction are presented in Table 4.19 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1=I don't know</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2=Not satisfied</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3=Partially satisfied</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4=Fully satisfied</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean = 3.11  SD = 1.04  Range = 3

Table 4.19 Goal attainment of the respondents
As Table 4.19 shows, about 45% of the respondents felt that their goal for enrolling in Kiswahili was fully achieved, 3% felt that their goal was partially achieved, about 15% didn't know whether their goal was achieved, and 3.5% felt their goal was not yet achieved. These results indicated that the Kiswahili program addressed student goals to a larger extent. It might be of interest to assess how goal attainment differed with different sub-groups.

The “others” category reported that their goal for studying Kiswahili was close to being achieved. African Americans were the next to express satisfaction in goal attainment, followed by Whites. One could speculate that the “others” felt satisfied because most of them came from non-Kiawahili speaking African countries (Ethiopia, Eritrea, and Zimbabwe) and studying an African language (for pan-African identity reason) was a source of pride and constituted satisfaction by itself. African Americans may have felt moderately satisfied for the same reason as the “Others,” but felt that they needed more content that would reflect their history and experiences to enable them make connection with the language. The fact that White Americans were the least satisfied, and yet high in GPA raises questions. This anomaly could possibly be explained by looking at what reasons made them enroll in Kiswahili initially. The rating of level of satisfaction by ethnicity is presented on Figure 4.21 below:
Af-Americans denote African Americans
Wh-Americans denote White Americans
Others refers to any respondent other than African American or White American

Figure 4.21: Level of satisfaction with the Kiswahili program by ethnicity

In assessing the level of satisfaction, a slightly higher percentage of Africa-Americans (in comparison with White Americans) reported that they did not know whether they were satisfied with the Kiswahili program. Less than 10% of each ethnic group indicated that they were not satisfied with the Kiswahili program. A large percentage of White Americans was partially satisfied, in comparison with African Americans. On the other hand, the percentage of African Americans who were fully
satisfied with the Kiswahili program was higher than those of other ethnic groups. These findings may support the earlier claim that some African Americans derived satisfaction by just the mere act of studying an African language, regardless of how they performed (Clowney and Legge 1979).

The rating of level of satisfaction with the Kiswahili program by gender is presented in Figure 4.22 below:

![Figure 4.22: Level of satisfaction with the Kiswahili program by gender]

Figure 4.22: Level of satisfaction with the Kiswahili program by gender
By gender, the percentage of males that did not know whether they were satisfied with the Kiswahili program was slightly higher than that of females. Less than 5% of both male and female were not satisfied with the Kiswahili program. The percentage of males that were partially satisfied with the Kiswahili program was higher than that of females by about 10%. A higher percentage of females was fully satisfied with the Kiswahili program than males. As already noted, there is a need to assess the content and probably the presentation of teaching materials in terms of gender biases.

Summary

Respondents’ scale of satisfaction with the Kiswahili program was presented. It was found that about 45% of the respondents were fully satisfied. It is likely that a majority of these respondents were in Kiswahili 104 because most of the colleges required students to take at least four courses of foreign language before they could graduate. Even those who wished to take Kiswahili for other reasons, for example to visit the Kiswahili-speaking region, might have wanted to go up to the highest possible course to attain a better proficiency level. The level of satisfaction could mean different things. The level of satisfaction could have reflected a fulfillment of the reason for enrolling in the Kiswahili program. For example, those who enrolled in Kiswahili classes to fulfill a college graduation foreign language requirement might have felt that they had achieved that goal. In addition, those who enrolled to satisfy their curiosity might have felt that goal had been attained. About 37% of the respondents reported that they were partially satisfied. Respondents in this group were likely to be those who were in the lower Kiswahili levels and knew for sure what they needed out of the Kiwahili program.
It is possible that this group was halfway through in the program. Those who reported that they were not satisfied were about 4%. Respondents in this group were likely to be at the beginning levels. Those who reported that they did not know whether they were satisfied with the Kiswahili program or not were about 15%. It is likely that this category comprised those students who had not decided or had changed their majors or college and did know up to what level of Kiswahili they would be required to take. It is likely that their goals were not clearly set. By ethnicity, more African Americans reported that they were fully satisfied with Kiswahili program than White Americans and “Others.” It is possible that African Americans found a historical connection between their past and the Kiswahili language. By gender, more females reported that they were fully satisfied than males. These findings may call for an investigation of gender biases in the program.

4.2.10 Results of Research Question 10

What framework can be established to improve Kiswahili as a foreign language program?

This question was aimed at developing a framework that could be used to inform policy-makers within the research institution about ways to improve the Kiswahili program. In order to develop this framework, the results of all research questions were examined as well as related implications. Self-reported reasons why American college students enrolled in Kiswahili revealed three major reasons: curiosity (12.3%), to fulfill a foreign language graduation requirement (11.4%), and because they heard Kiswahili was an easy subject (6.1%). It might help the Kiswahili language program coordinators to find out why American college students are curious about studying Kiswahili. Identifying
the sources of curiosity may inform curriculum writers. Sources of curiosity could be interpreted as student needs, which should be integrated in the curriculum. It might also be of research interest to investigate the reasons why college students consider Kiswahili to be an easy subject. It could be that the program is not rigorous and challenging enough, thus calling for a revision of the Kiswahili syllabus.

This study also found that there existed a positive correlation between student motivation and Kiswahili achievement. The finding was not surprising because previous studies had identified similar results. It is important to build and sustain student motivation to study Kiswahili, and to attract and encourage students to study about Africa. More programs about Africa need to be started at all educational levels so that Kiswahili instructors focus on the teaching of Kiswahili language and culture, instead of addressing issues that are beyond the scope of Kiswahili study brought by students.

Although the study found that the correlation between ethnicity and achievement in Kiswahili was low (r = .03), there is a need to ensure that different ethnic groups feel accommodated and represented. One way of ensuring that learners do not perceive of second/foreign language learning as too abstract is to use a content-based syllabus. This approach enables the instructors to teach content related to the learners enrolled using the target language, while at the same time developing foreign language communication skills.

There seemed to be a reasonable correlation between gender and achievement in Kiswahili as a foreign language (r = .304). Female respondents reported a higher
Kiswahili GPA than male participants. Kiswahili program coordinators, instructors, and curriculum writers need to check whether the course content and assessments are gender-biased.

It might also be of research interest to investigate whether a majority of college students enrolled in other foreign languages wait until they are seniors to enroll in a language study. A majority of Kiswahili students were seniors in college. There are two possibilities that can be used to explain this delay in enrollment in Kiswahili. First, may be the students did not know about Kiswahili in the beginning years of their college education, until they heard from their friends and peers, a major source about the Kiswahili program. If this is the case, then something needs to be done to advertise the program. One way of doing this is to expand the African language program beyond college to elementary and secondary schools, and to encourage active participation in outreach programs. Having programs about African languages below college level would ensure that students have an idea that African languages constitute the larger category of foreign languages offered at college level. Offering Kiswahili in elementary and secondary school level would provide a jump-start to future college students since the current study has shown that students who had prior foreign language study experience had a higher Kiswahili GPA at college than those who did not have such an experience. Secondly, may be students tried other foreign languages, and probably faced with difficulties decided to try Kiswahili.²

²It is important to note that the institute where data for this study was collected offered a wide range of many other foreign languages. In order to fulfill a foreign language college graduation requirement, students could choose to study any of the foreign languages offered.
Overall ratings of Kiswahili program, instructors, teaching methods, Kiswahili instructional materials, in-and-out of class assignments, and oral exams were satisfactory. However, there is need for to ensure that there is greater uniformity in the instructional program, teaching materials, length and number of quizzes and homework assigned, and formats for both oral and written examinations. This study has shown that student self-reports imply a positive reaction to the Kiswahili program, instructors, teaching methods, instructional materials, in-and-out of class assignments, and oral exams. However, more research with a larger sample is needed in this area.

Summary

General implications of this study for the Kiswahili program are presented. It was noted that reasons that made college students curious about studying Kiswahili as a foreign language needed to be identified so that they may be integrated in the curriculum. The reasons why college students perceived Kiswahili to be an easy subject need further investigation. It could be that the content or the assessment procedures are not challenging enough for college students. This study found positive correlations between Kiswahili language learning achievement and student motivation, ethnicity, and gender. Although the correlations were low, there is need for persistent revision of Kiswahili curriculum to ensure that Kiswahili student motivation was sustained. In addition, Kiswahili curriculum should be written and instructional materials selected in such a way Kiswahili students of diverse ethnic backgrounds and gender felt accommodated. A foreign language program evaluation model was developed and presented. In the sub-section that follows, respondents’ comments on the Kiswahili program, instructors,
instructors' teaching methods, instructional materials, in-class and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams are presented and discussed.

4.3 RESPONDENTS' COMMENTS

Part III of the survey instrument requested respondents to provide comments on various subjects. Their main suggestions are summarized below.

Kiswahili program

About 39.74% of the respondents felt that overall the program was good and interesting. There were, however, suggestions that more classes should be offered in addition to the four regularly offered courses. In addition, there was a request to offer graduate classes. The university course bulletin lists two other classes (Kiswahili 401 and Kiswahili 402) in addition to the four regularly offered courses. At the time of data collection, Kiswahili 401 course was being offered and some students in this course were expected to continue with 402 the following quarter. However, previously these courses had not been offered for quite sometime because they had not attracted enough students (according to the program coordinator in an informal interview). Low enrollment in these advanced classes may be expected because, as the preceding analysis has shown, most of the students took Kiswahili to fulfill a foreign language college graduation requirement, which was satisfied by taking the first four courses. Some respondents requested that more classes of the same level be offered to accommodate student schedules. According to the information obtained in a personal interview by the researcher with the program coordinator, the department under which the African language program operates "makes every effort to meet student demands." For instance,
they often open another section of a Kiswahili course whenever there is a large number on the waiting list. However, the main hindrance in meeting this demand has been lack of funds to hire new instructors and the shortage of qualified instructors.

The respondents also made some comments regarding the size of Kiswahili classes. Some respondents noted that there was need to keep Kiswahili classes small. At the time of the study, students could enroll in a class to a capacity of twenty-six students and either the instructor or program coordinator could enroll four more students, thus bringing the total number to thirty students per class. Although a few students dropped in the course of each quarter, it was rare to find a Kiswahili class with less than twenty students, apart from the advanced Kiswahili courses, at the time of the present study. The number of students per class interfered with the quantity and the quality of Kiswahili instruction for it limited one-on-one attention. Many foreign language professionals suggest the number of students per class to be a maximum of fifteen.

One suggestion that recurred several times was the request to increase the cultural component in the Kiswahili language program. About 15.39% of the respondents suggested that one day in a week should be set aside for cultural discussions. Even though all instructors shared the same feeling about the importance of culture in language instruction, it was evident that a cultural emphasis was lacking. One could speculate that lack of cultural presentations resulted from either its absence in the Kiswahili teaching materials used or from a lack of skills on the part of instructors about how to incorporate a cultural component in language instruction. However, the challenge of appropriately infusing a cultural emphasis in foreign language classes is an important issue in the foreign language education profession. Many professionals argue that there needs to be
an integration of appropriate cultural emphasis throughout a foreign language program and not one day set aside for culture teaching. This is a complicated topic that needs further research.

Another suggestion was that the syllabus and lesson plans should be written in such a way that they provide more time for speaking opportunities for students. Given that Kiswahili is taught as a foreign language, with almost no chances of speaking the language outside class, it is vital that time be created for students to practice speaking skills in class. As it will be noted later, a lack of adequate practice in speaking denied students enough preparation for oral component of the midterm and final examinations.

There was a suggestion that the instructor who started with the students at the beginning class should remain with that class until they completed the whole series. This suggestion was made by about 23.08% of the respondents. However, this suggestion is not always practical because there are various factors to consider when assigning instructors and students to classes. One of the factors is that most of the Kiswahili instructors are graduate students, and they may request to be assigned specific classes to avoid conflicts with their own class schedules. The program coordinator could also assign classes to certain instructors based on other factors such as the instructor’s qualifications and teaching experience. Since the first four courses are offered every quarter, some students may opt to take one or more quarters off. When these students resume Kiswahili classes, they could end up with a different instructor. In addition, in some quarters there are two to three sections of the same course level. For example, during this study, there were three Elementary I, two Elementary II, one Intermediate I, two Intermediate II, and one Advanced classes. Under very rare circumstances is one
instructor assigned two classes of the same level. It follows then that students from different sections of the same course level may or may not find themselves in the same class at the next course level. One suggestion would be for students to wait until the instructor the students had in their previous class is teaching in the next level. This option would be counter-productive since it might never happen and also it might interfere with the students schedule for graduation. In addition, as it is noted under students’ comments about their instructors, it was not all students that were excited with their instructors and forcing them to keep the same instructor could have been undesirable.

There was also a suggestion to have the class for two and a half hours, two days a week instead of one hour for five days a week. Although there was no reason given as to why some students preferred meeting for long hours and fewer days, one could speculate that the suggestion was based on student schedules and possibly other personal commitments. In an informal interview with the African language program coordinator it was mentioned that one hour per day for five days in a week was set by the university for the beginning levels of foreign languages study to increase the number of contact hours. Respondents acknowledged the fact that the Kiswahili program was challenging and that it was not as easy as people claim. Some respondents noted that there was need for consistency among Kiswahili instructors who teach the same level. Respondents noted that if learners from the same level were exposed to the same instructional material, it would save the time spent by an instructor trying to bring the class comprised of students taught by different instructors to the same Kiswahili level. Respondents suggested that instructors of the same level could ensure that they were covering the same content.
material through the continuous sharing of notes. A small percentage of respondents suggested that the department of African American and African Studies should help in securing tutors for students who need extra assistance. Another small percentage requested a harder, more intensive Kiswahili curriculum. This request came from students who were preparing to travel to East Africa and who felt that they needed more intensive instruction than the program was currently offering. Finally, a small percentage of respondents noted that the existence of the Kiswahili program in the university was not well known, and therefore there was a need to advertise more. Even though the student rating of the Kiswahili program was encouraging, there is a need for considering their recommendations.

Kiswahili Instructors

Although the respondents acknowledged that it was difficult to give a uniform assessment of all Kiswahili instructors, most reported satisfaction with their Kiswahili instructors. About 61.04% of respondents noted that Kiswahili instructors were fair, patient, understanding, prepared, and kept students interested in learning the language. However, about 15.58% stated that shifting from one instructor to another took them time to adjust due to differences in teaching styles. In addition, a small percentage of respondents reported that some teachers did not appear to understand their students well, were impatient, and needed to be more lenient. Respondents noted that such teachers tended to lower students’ motivation to study Kiswahili. There was a general feeling that Kiswahili instructors graded the respondents fairly. Respondents also felt that Kiswahili instructors cared about each of them, were helpful, patient, motivating, exciting, easy to
understand, were always prepared to teach, and provided excellent learning environments. In a few incidences, respondents reported that instructors failed to show up or came late to class. Some respondents noted that some instructors expected more from the students than other instructors. Respondents suggested that efforts should be made to ensure that all instructors teaching the same level cover same course content. They suggested that it was possible to ensure that instructors covered the same instructional material through the sharing of notes. Respondents noted that whenever students from different Kiswahili classes of the same course level met at the next level, there was a lot of time spent on trying to bring the two or more groups of students to a common proficiency level of Kiswahili. Another suggestion was that instructors should increase office hours to assist those students who needed extra help. Respondents praised the idea of being taught by native speakers or people from a Kiswahili-speaking region, and they acknowledged the pleasant and positive attitude that most of the instructors brought into their classes. Respondents attributed these characteristics to the instructors’ cultural backgrounds.

**Teaching Methods**

Teaching method is the key to any instruction. A teaching method often determines what aspects of language are learned and ultimately acquired by the L2 learners. It is therefore imperative to solicit the perspectives of consumers of a teaching method in order to describe its success or failure. About 53.66% of the respondents in the present study noted that Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods were appropriate and effective. They specifically noted having the entire class involved and repetitions-drills
as some of the methods that were helpful to their learning of Kiswahili. A 17.07% of the respondents noted that there were differences among Kiswahili instructors. This was not unexpected by the researcher because Kiswahili instructors at the time of data collection were from different academic specializations and different Kiswahili instruction experiences. About 7.31% of the respondents reported that some instructors were rushing through class materials and spoke too fast, noting that they needed to slow down. A few students thought that too much time was spent going over quizzes and other assignments in class. They suggested that this time could be better spent introducing new material.

This comment came from academically strong students. Instructors, on the other hand, defended this approach by noting that going over quizzes and assignments in class gave students an opportunity to identify their weaknesses in specific items. Other respondents noted that going over quizzes and homework in class was helpful because they could get different responses for the same question. There was also a suggestion that some instructors needed to be more organized, state and stick to their class objectives in a number of occasions. Other respondents indicated that they enjoyed learning about their teachers’ cultural experiences, and especially where they were drawing similarities and differences between African and American cultures.

Respondents were divided on the use of English in Kiswahili classes. Some felt that the use of English should be minimized from elementary level onwards. Other respondents thought that explanations in English helped them to comprehend better. The researcher reached the conclusion that the issue of comprehension could be addressed by the use of visuals and possibly simplified Kiswahili teacher talk (comprehensible input). Students could then be helped to develop their listening skills in Kiswahili through
persistent use of that language in the classroom. Respondents also suggested that students should be issued a list of vocabulary each week. The list of vocabulary could help students in their foreign language development. Respondents further suggested that there was a need to increase the amount of Kiswahili conversational activities. They reported they were not getting adequate time to practice conversations and this had a negative impact on their oral performance. Some of the advanced students noted that the standards and expectations in Kiswahili classes were low. They suggested that advanced Kiswahili classes should be exposed to more complex sentence constructions, explanatory handouts and challenging topics of discussions. The respondents also called for more examples and more use of more visuals. They also noted that there was a need to pay attention to individual differences, abilities and learning styles. Some respondents noted that there was a need to tailor teaching methods in order to accommodate all students in the Kiswahili classroom.

Some respondents reported that most of the materials covered were too abstract and called for more practical content. The researcher thought that the respondents who made this comment were expressing a lack of cultural elements in the content. It is also possible that the respondents were reacting to the grammar approach that a few instructors tended to use. The grammar approach assumes that students have a background in linguistics, which is normally not the case. The current, popular communicative approach to foreign language teaching tends to de-emphasize grammar. The researcher felt that if Kiswahili instructors could accept a communicative instructional approach, students would feel more comfortable with the content presented
to them in their Kiswahili classes. A small percentage of respondents indicated that the instructor’s teaching method did not matter and that what mattered more was the student’s personal effort.

**Kiswahili Teaching Materials**

As already noted, the Kiswahili program relies more on textbooks, audiocassettes, and videocassettes. The two most used texts for elementary and intermediate Kiswahili levels are Hinnebusch and Mirza’s *Kiswahili: Msingi wa kusema, kusoma na kuandika* and Zawawi’s *Kiswahili kwa kitendo*. These two texts originally came with audiotapes. The number of audiotapes corresponds with the number of chapters in each textbook: twenty-eight tapes for Hinnebusch’s text and forty tapes for Zawawi’s text. These tapes are records of dialogues and comprehension passages in the texts. The audiotapes, therefore do not offer any new information or activities to the students. Hinnebusch’s text has a teacher’s guide that offers additional practice and activities that the instructor can assign to students. Zawawi’s text also has a second volume that started as a teacher’s guide to the first volume. However, at some point, this second volume was converted to a completely different text for it addresses topics not covered in the first volume. Therefore, there is lack of cohesion between the two texts.

In the advanced classes, two major textbooks are used: Biersteker’s *Masomo ya kisasa* and Moshi’s *Tuimarishie Kiswahili chetu*. These two texts do not currently have audiotapes. Biersteker’s text contains extracts from authentic Kiswahili materials, grammar and cultural activities. Vocabulary explanations are done in the target language. There are also videocassettes. The videos are a collection of scenes acted out by native
Kiswahili speakers in Tanzania. They are a series of eight with twenty-three lessons covering different topics. The topics covered are: family and responsibilities, education, agriculture, foods, marriage, leisure, health, arts, customs and traditions, religion, tourism, history, and politics among others. Even though these videos are a good resource for teaching language and culture, very few instructors utilized them. Many instructors felt that the videos were too complex for elementary students. However, the researcher felt that the instructors could use these videos at any stage and at any level depending on the intended purposes.

Regarding Kiswahili materials, respondents had various comments to make. It must be noted that since the respondents were at different Kiswahili levels, they were exposed to different Kiswahili materials and the comments they made were based on what they had been exposed to. About 33.71% of the respondents in the elementary and intermediate levels reported satisfaction with their Kiswahili textbooks. However, about 20.22% of the respondents noted that the glossary was too narrow and needed expansion. They added that it was frustrating when they failed to get the meanings of some common words they intended to use or new words that they came across in their readings. About 22.47% of the respondents noted that the text was too difficult to understand. A small percentage indicated that the chapters of the textbook were inconsistent with instructors' lectures. Less than 10% of the respondents noted that there was need to supplement the texts with multimedia materials, slides, and handouts from other sources that could fill in for the cultural information lacking in the texts. There were suggestions that language lab activities needed to be increased. At the time of the study, audio and audio-visual tapes were the only technology materials available. The audiotapes were designed to be
used along with the class texts, but were underutilized. After listening to the audiotapes, the researcher concluded that they did not add any new material. In addition the department of African American and African Studies and the Foreign Language Center did not have interactive programs in the form of multi-media material for the Kiswahili language program. If Kiswahili programs want to keep pace with other foreign languages, they have to embark on developing interactive materials that would relate to student interests.

Another shortfall in the material is a lack of an available and reliable dictionary. The only dictionary that seemed reliable was an on-line dictionary, but it was still under construction. Students further found the texts to be in conflict with class lectures, especially where the instructors used the communicative approach while the texts were grammar-based. Some students in the elementary and intermediate levels reported that the texts' layout and activities were inadequate. However, some respondents in the intermediate level felt that the texts were easy to understand. These were likely to be students who had some linguistic or language-related classes before enrolling in Kiswahili. A small percentage of the respondents suggested that Kiswahili instructors should put together a manual to address the shortcomings of the existing Kiswahili texts.

Some of the respondents liked the idea of using one textbook for the whole series of Kiswahili 101-104. They noted that this was economical. Some of the respondents noted that the textbook was not useful and that it was a waste of money to purchase. Respondents might have been driven to this comment by the fact that some instructors rarely referred to the text in class. From informal discussions with Kiswahili instructors, the researcher observed that some of them rarely assigned activities from the textbook but
use it as a supplementary resource. Some respondents reported that the text was poorly organized and that it was visually unappealing. This comment might have been triggered by the fact that all Kiswahili texts examined by the researcher did not have colored, attractive, and real pictures and the sketches, when available, were unclear. In addition, the texts were written using a font that could be strenuous for some students to read.

**In-class quizzes and exams**

Assessment of in-class written tests differed. Most of the respondents noted that they were generally assessed fairly by the Kiswahili instructors. Some respondents reported that the in-class quizzes were very short and thus did not provide them room to fully demonstrate their Kiswahili knowledge and skills. About 11.25% of the respondents expressed concern that in some instances, new words appeared on the quizzes and this contributed to their poor performance for they demanded knowledge that was beyond the students’ current linguistic abilities. Suggestions from a small percentage of respondents reported that quizzes be given on Mondays rather than Fridays. Those who suggested this change argued that they could spend the weekend preparing for the quiz. However, the instructors, on the other hand, held a different opinion. In an informal conversation, the researcher brought this issue up. Most instructors noted that the Friday quiz was a good way of summing up what had been covered in that specific week. In addition, most teachers argued that Monday was a good day to introduce a new concept and spending it for a quiz would be a loss of a valuable opportunity.

Furthermore, students were supposed to review every day to keep up with materials and assessing them at the end of the week was fair enough when materials were still fresh in
their minds. Finally, pushing quizzes from Fridays to Mondays would not have guaranteed that the students were going to prepare and thus may not have had any effect on their performance on the quizzes. The weekend provided instructors with time to grade and prepare for the following week's objectives based on students' performance on the quiz.

Some respondents saw one quiz per week to be a lot and suggested that they be reduced or alternate them with a 2-3 pages paper. A small percentage noted that quizzes should not be weighted as heavily as attendance. Some respondents reported that the quizzes were too numerous and that half of them should be take-home quizzes to give them ample time to complete. In some instances respondents reporting that some of the quizzes were too long. A small percentage of respondents reported that quizzes needed to be returned on time. Returning students' quizzes and other assignments on time is emphasized to give students an idea of how they were doing in any class. Respondents also noted that Kiswahili instructors needed to tell their students what areas to review in preparation for weekly quizzes. Even though there is no set rule governing when foreign language students should start writing papers, depending on the task a paper-writing activity was normally reserved for intermediate and advanced classes. Some respondents suggested that there be a short quiz every day to ensure that students study.

It was also reported that the quizzes were too many but worth too little. According to the Kiswahili syllabus quizzes and homework accounted for twenty percent of a student's final grade. The researcher thought that twenty percent for quizzes and homework was reasonable, especially bearing in mind that written midterm and final
examinations accounted for only fifteen per cent each in the final course grade. Respondents noted that quizzes and other assignments prepared them for midterms and finals.

According to the Kiswahili syllabus, students were supposed to have one quiz every week. In most cases quizzes were comprehensive with an emphasis on materials covered within that week. Most respondents (about 65%) noted that the quizzes and other in-class assessments were fair and adequate, but challenging. Less than 10% of respondents liked the arrangement of one quiz per week. In addition these quizzes served a diagnostic purpose of identifying areas that needed to be re-taught. The quizzes also gave students continuous feedback about how they were performing in their respective classes. Respondents noted that Friday quizzes forced them to keep up with the material and to be attentive in class. These weekly quizzes also had a positive effect on student attendance. As the syllabus stated, students knew that chances of making up a missed quiz without proper documentation were minimal. In addition, if they missed a day their performance in the weekly quiz would be negatively affected. It is important to note that 20% of the student’s final grade came from attendance and participation and any day a student missed class without documentation, they would lose 2% to a total of 20% of the final grade.

**Kiswahili homework and other out-of-class activities**

As far as the homework was concerned, there were no set standards on how regularly they ought to be given. Different instructors had different policies regarding homework. Some instructors distributed homework on Fridays and students handed
assignments in on Mondays, while other instructors gave homework on any day of the week and it was due the following day. Other instructors did not give homework at all or gave very few assignments.

Out-of-class activities were at the discretion of the instructor. Various activities were assigned to Kiswahili students as out-of-class homework. These activities included video-taped skits, tape-recorded telephone conversations, and listening to tapes in a language lab and answering questions either orally or in writing. About 42.47% of the respondents noted that their homework and out-of-class activities were fair, adequate and challenging. About 15.07% reported a desire to have more homework assigned. About 13.68% indicated that sometimes the homework and other activities assigned went beyond student current linguistic ability, took too long to complete and were inconsistent with weekly class objectives. 9.59% of respondents saw homework and other activities as a supplement to class lectures and as beneficial to their language learning. On the other hand, some respondents noted that homework and other activities were good but not particularly helpful. A small percentage of respondents noted that homework and other activities assigned were easy. Some other respondents suggested that they preferred group projects and activities. Other comments made were that homework and other activities should be kept to a minimum to avoid confusion and frustration, should be given early in the week to give students enough time to work on it and seek instructor’s assistance where they need help, a uniform structure regarding homework and other activities assignment should be established and followed to avoid situations where some instructors fail to assign homework, and that there was need to assign more audio listening activities.
Kiswahili oral examination

According to the Kiswahili syllabus, students had two oral exams in a quarter: one at midterm and another at final exam time. Instructors were expected to follow the ACTFL (American Council on Teaching of Foreign Languages) guidelines in conducting the oral exams. This guidelines need to be adjusted by individual instructors to suit specific African languages. However, from what the researcher gathered informally from the instructors, not all of them were familiar with these guidelines. There were two major formats used by Kiswahili instructors in conducting oral exams: it could be done in small groups or individually with the instructor as an interviewer. The small group format went against the ACTFL guidelines because the instructor, who is supposed to play the role of interviewer, is inactive. In addition, there is a high possibility of performance of one student affecting that of the other student(s). The workshops that were regularly organized dwelt mostly on classroom management and ignored the assessment component in foreign language teaching. There is a need to acquaint Kiswahili instructors with available methods of assessment.

A majority of the respondents (about 68.35%) agreed that an oral exam was a good practice for speaking in the target language. Less than 10% of respondents noted that the oral exam was hard, but that it was conducted in a fair manner. Some respondents preferred to have group orals as opposed to having it individually. This could be as result of the fact that a few students claimed that orals made them nervous. Some respondents suggested that they needed to have more practice of oral exam through class activities. Another suggestion was that orals should be based on class lectures.
Other suggestions were that oral exams should focus on language development and that they should give room for more creative responses.

Summary

The respondents’ comments on the Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors’ reaching methods, instructional materials, in-class and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams were presented. Regarding the Kiswahili program, a substantial percentage of the respondents gave it a good rating. There was a request for additional graduate level courses. However, as already noted, this was not a simple request to fulfill. At the time of data collection, Kiswahili program still had a long way to go in its development. Students could neither major nor minor in Kiswahili. Therefore, offering graduate level courses was a far-fetched request. It is worth considering this request especially remembering that some of the foreign language programs at the research site had graduate programs. One cannot find any reason where Kiswahili program could not be developed to match other foreign language programs. The importance of integrating culture in Kiswahili language instruction was also emphasized. Research has shown that language and culture cannot be separated, and in fact, language is a carrier of a people’s culture. Therefore, any meaningful foreign language instruction ought to have cultural components in every lesson.

A majority of the respondents seemed to be satisfied with their Kiswahili instructors. However, they reported difficulty in adjusting from one instructor to another as they progressed from one level to the next. Students need to understand that if the program aims to prepare them to communicate in a natural setting, then exposing them to
various Kiswahili speakers was aimed at having a positive effect in their Kiswahili language proficiency. Having male and female teachers from different Kiswahili-speaking countries was an effort in providing the much needed variety in the program.

Over half of the respondents reported satisfaction with Kiswahili teachers’ teaching methods. However, it seems like there is need for more regular workshops to acquaint Kiswahili instructors with more current instructional methods. It may be important to investigate whether foreign language teaching methods are language specific. Just like some aspects of certain languages are easier to teach and acquire, may be certain methods are easier to use in teaching certain aspects of a language than others.

A substantial percentage of respondents were not satisfied with Kiswahili instructional materials used. The researcher noted that the Kiswahili program needed to quickly develop modern interactive materials if it has to maintain student motivation in the study of Kiswahili.

The need for consistency in teaching and assessment in the Kiswahili program was also reported. Students in different sections of the same Kiswahili level felt that they differed in content coverage. This difference had a negative impact in their achievement at the next level. The researcher recommends consistent note-sharing and cooperation between instructors teaching different sections of the same Kiswahili level. Such a cooperation between Kiswahili instructors would ensure that their students get same number of quizzes, homework, and cover same Kiswahili content, thus minimizing the differences between the two groups.

Respondents seemed satisfied with Kiswahili oral exams. They however, indicated a preference for doing it as a group. Group oral exams are not recommended
because they pose difficulty in scoring and do not conform to the ACTFL oral exam guidelines. It is, however, important to consider student feelings in an oral exam. A number of them reported that doing oral exams with the instructor on one-on-one basis made them nervous and this affected their overall performance. There is need for the Kiswahili instructors to come up with a way of reducing student anxiety during oral exams. One way is to provide students with more Kiswahili-speaking opportunities in the classroom so that they develop confidence in expressing themselves in the language. Kiswahili instructors should also ensure that they provide students with enough time to warm-up as recommended in the ACTFL guidelines for oral proficiency.

It is important to note that some of the recommendations and suggestions made by respondents might take time to implement. Offering Kiswahili graduate courses might not be achieved in a short term. However, a gradual development towards attaining that goal is worth considering. Given that the program enrolls a substantial number of students in Kiswahili 101-104, it is equally important that the department spends a substantial amount of money in developing modern Kiswahili instructional materials if it hopes to attract and sustain higher enrollments in the program. Putting student recommendations into consideration when writing Kiswahili curriculum and syllabus may go a long way in sustaining their motivation in studying Kiswahili.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the purpose of the study, research questions, methodology and results of the study. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the results, pedagogical implications of the study, limitations, and recommendations for further research. A conclusion is also presented at the end of this chapter.

5.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

In the field of education, motivation has been identified as key in determining students’ success or failure in learning. It has also been found that students come to a learning environment with a certain degree of motivation, and that the task of the teacher and the learning environment is to enhance, sustain, and develop motivation among the students. In the field of second/foreign language education, the role of motivation has also been investigated. Various research findings have shown a correlation between motivation and academic achievement in various disciplines. This correlation may be affected by ethnicity, gender, and prior experiences among other variables.
5.1.1 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, this study sought to investigate college students' motivation to enroll in Kiswahili as a foreign language and whether or not there existed a correlation between motivation and Kiswahili achievement among Kiswahili college students on the basis of their ethnicity, gender, age, previous foreign language study experience, and college ranking of the students. The second purpose was to describe student perspectives on the Kiswahili program, instructors, teaching methods, instructional materials, in-class quizzes and exams, homework and other out-of-class activities, and oral examinations. Together, these purposes lead to an addition to the Kiswahili instruction knowledge base.

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What motivates college students to enroll in Kiswahili as a foreign language?
2. Is there a correlation between motivation and Kiswahili achievement?
3. Is there a correlation between ethnicity and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
4. Is there a correlation between gender and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
5. Is there a correlation between age and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
6. Is there a correlation between prior foreign language experience and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
7. Is there a correlation between student college ranking and Kiswahili language learning achievement?
8. What is Kiswahili students' assessment of the program, instructors, instructors' teaching methods, materials used, in-class and out-of class assignments, and oral exams?
9. To what extent does the Kiswahili program satisfy student goals and expectations?

10. What framework can be established to improve Kiswahili as a foreign language programs at college level for the future?

5.1.2 Data collection and analysis procedures

This study involved a descriptive research design using survey methodology to explore the correlation between motivation and college student achievement in Kiswahili on the basis of ethnicity, gender, and prior foreign language study experience. In addition, the study explored the student perspectives on a particular Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors’ teaching methods, instructional materials, and Kiswahili course assessments (both oral and written). The population was all students enrolled in Kiswahili at a major public mid-western university in the U.S in the Winter Quarter of 1999. There were 157 students enrolled. 117 returned the study questionnaire (see appendix B). This represented a return rate of 74.5%. However, three of the respondents did not write their names, thus making it difficult to later correlate their responses with their Kiswahili GPA. The three questionnaires without names were discarded, leaving 114 to be used for analysis.

Some of the items in the survey instrument were adapted from Gardner and Lambert (1972). Other items were developed by the researcher based on a review of the literature on motivation, and on the researcher’s five years of experience in teaching Kiswahili as a foreign language at college level, together with input from dissertation committee members. The instrument (see appendix B) consisted of three parts: Part I contained demographic information. Items in this part required respondents to choose
their answers from provided choices or to provide short responses about themselves. Part II of the instrument had two subsections. The first sub-section covered students’ Kiswahili study experience. The second sub-section of part II asked respondents to rate (on a 4-point Likert-scale) the Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors’ teaching methods, teaching materials, and assessment (both oral and written). Part III asked respondents to give comments on the same items they rated in sub-section two. Part II.

Content validity and reliability of the instrument were established by a panel of experts in the field of foreign/second language education at a large mid-western university in the U.S. The instrument was also pilot tested in the Winter Quarter of 1997, with the assistance of three Kiswahili instructors in the same institution. Modifications in the instrument were made based on this pilot test. The method of data collection used in this study was a survey questionnaire disseminated to subjects by their Kiswahili instructors in the third week of the Winter Quarter 1999.

Descriptive and correlational statistics were used for data analysis in this study. SPSS 10.01 Version for Windows was used to perform calculations. Descriptive statistics were also used to describe and summarize the data from respondents. Mean and standard deviations were the major descriptive statistical procedures applied. Spearman’s rho and Spearman’s Rank Order Correlations were the correlational statistical procedures used to describe the relationships of the characteristics of the population surveyed. The results of statistical tests were presented in Chapter 4. Below is a summary of the findings.
5.1.3 Overview of the Findings

A brief summary of the findings of the study is presented relative to the research questions investigated since data and discussions of each question were presented in Chapter 4.

5.1.3.1 What motivates college students to study Kiswahili as a foreign language?

This study found that college students enrolled for Kiswahili as a foreign language because of the following reasons: It was required to fulfill a foreign language graduation requirement, for professional development, because one heard it was easy, because it was a way of tracing one's cultural identity, curiosity, and because one planned to visit a Kiswahili-speaking environment in the future. Reasons for enrolling in Kiswahili listed as "other" included: it was a unique language, it was different from the normal, to learn a non-western culture, as an elective, it fit a person's class schedule, it helped one understand his/her first language, and one grew up in a Kiswahili-speaking setting and wanted to continue studying the language.

The mean score in Kiswahili for the entire group was 3.186. The highest mean score was 4.0. However, the number of respondents with a mean score of 4.0 was too small to draw comparisons with the rest of the groups. The major sub-groups were of those students who enrolled in Kiswahili because: it was required to fulfill a foreign language graduation requirement (N=13 and M=2.90), for curiosity (N=14 and M=3.1), it was required and for curiosity (N=11 and M=3.0), heard it was easy (N=7 and
M=2.91), one planned to visit Africa in the future (N=5 and M=3.2), heard it was easy and curiosity (N=7 and M=3.1), and because it was required, heard it is easy and curiosity (N=6 and M=3.5).

5.1.4.2 Is there a correlation between motivation and Kiswahili achievement?

In order to establish whether there was a correlation between the motivation to study Kiswahili and Kiswahili achievement (as measured by Kiswahili GPA), Spearman’s rho correlation was conducted. Results indicated that there existed a low correlation between motivation and Kiswahili achievement (r=.22). Based on this correlation, motivation for enrolling in Kiswahili could be used to explain 5% of the variance of students’ GPA in Kiswahili (r²=.05). It is important to note that the size of the sample was small and the reasons for enrollment in the course were diverse. It is possible that there were other factors that may have contributed to low correlation between motivation and achievement in Kiswahili that are beyond the scope of this study. Replication of the study with a larger sample might yield different findings.

5.1.4.3 Is there a correlation between ethnicity and Kiswahili achievement?

The mean score of the entire group was 3.19. The sub-group in the category of “other” seemed to have a higher mean (3.42). White-Americans had a mean score of 3.19, and African Americans followed this sub-group with a mean score of 3.10. However, these statistics could be misleading because the number of subjects in the “other” category was small. Secondly, the standard deviations revealed different observations. The “other” category was closer to the mean than both White-Americans
and African Americans. There seemed to be a low correlation between ethnicity and achievement \((r = .03)\). Only .09% of the variance of Kiswahili GPA could be explained by ethnicity \((r^2 = .0009)\). These findings contradict other studies done on ethnicity and academic achievement. It is possible that since no ethnic group had an advantage or prior exposure to Kiswahili, there was no significant difference across ethnic groups.

5.1.4.4 Is there a correlation between gender and Kiswahili achievement?

Female students reported a higher mean GPA (3.42) than males (3.02). However, the Standard Deviation of male students was higher than that of female students. This difference in SD indicated that male student grades were more spread above the mean than female students.

There was a moderate positive correlation between gender and academic achievement \((r = .30)\). In order to establish the percentage for which gender accounted for academic achievement in Kiswahili, a statistical computation was applied. The researcher found that 9% of the variance of Kiswahili GPA could be explained by gender \((r^2 = .90)\). These findings call for an evaluation of the Kiswahili program to establish whether there are cases of gender bias, especially with teaching materials and assessment strategies.

5.1.4.5 Is there a correlation between age and Kiswahili achievement?

The researcher found a low negative correlation between age and achievement in Kiswahili \((r = -.018)\). Age only accounted for .03% of the variance of Kiswahili GPA.
However, a correlational Figure (4.5) showed a strong positive correlation between achievement and respondents in the age group 25 years old and above and a negative correlation between achievement and the age group 24 years old and below. One could speculate that subjects became more serious and more focused as they grew older and thus improved in their Kiswahili achievement grades. In addition, available studies on age and foreign language research focused comparing adults and children. The current study focused on adults and this is probably why the correlation was not significant. However, more studies are needed in this area.

5.1.4.6 Is there a correlation between prior foreign language experience and Kiswahili achievement?

To answer this question the Kiswahili GPA mean score of respondents who had prior foreign language experience before enrolling in Kiswahili was compared with the mean of respondents who did not have prior foreign language experience. The mean score of those who had a prior foreign language experience before they enrolled in Kiswahili was 3.192, while the mean of those who did not have prior FL experience was 3.176. The group mean was 3.186. As can be seen, the mean of those students who had prior foreign language experience was slightly higher than the mean of those students who did not have prior foreign language experience.

In order to determine how different the two groups were, Spearman’s rho correlation was conducted. The findings indicated a positive correlation between prior FL experience and achievement in Kiswahili ($r = .033$). 11% of Kiswahili GPA could be explained by prior foreign language experience ($r^2 = .001089$). Although the correlation
between prior foreign language study experience and Kiswahili achievement was low, there is a need to provide foreign language programs at elementary, middle and high schools so students become exposed to and can begin to develop language learning skills strategies early before they get to college. The difference in Kiswahili mean scores indicated that prior foreign language study experience seemed to make a difference in Kiswahili achievement.

5.1.4.7 Is there a correlation between student college ranking and Kiswahili achievement?

To answer this question, descriptive statistics and Spearman Rank-Order Correlation were used. Descriptive statistics provided the mean and the standard deviation. The mean for the entire group was 3.186. Graduate students had the highest mean (4.0). However, the number of graduate students was too small to draw reliable conclusions. Juniors had the second highest mean (3.276), followed by freshmen (3.243). Seniors had a mean of 3.153, while sophomores had 3.050. Freshmen and sophomores were more spread above the mean than juniors and seniors. Correlational coefficients indicated a weak negative correlation between college ranking and Kiswahili GPA ($r = -0.03$). These results meant that only .09% of the variance of Kiswahili GPA could be explained by college ranking ($r^2 = .0009$). It therefore follows that students could take Kiswahili as a foreign language at any stage of their college study and their achievement would not be different.
5.1.4.8 What is Kiswahili students' assessment of the Kiswahili program, instructors, instructors' teaching methods, instructional materials used, in-class and out-of class assignments, and oral exam?

Respondents were asked to rank the Kiswahili program, instructors, their teaching methods, the instructional materials used, in-class and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams on a 4-point scale ranging from “A” (excellent) to “D” (poor). The 4-point Likert-scale was converted as follows: 1 was ranked as “poor,” 2 as “fair,” 3 as “good,” and 4 as “excellent.” In the analysis, descriptive statistics were used. Means and standard deviations among groups were computed and described. Typically, the higher the mean, the better the assessment was and vice versa.

As far as the assessment of the Kiswahili program was concerned, half of the students (50%) rated it as “good,” 43% rated it as “excellent,” 7% rated it as “fair.” No student rated the program as “poor.” Based on this rating, one could conclude that a majority of the students were satisfied with what the program offered. White-Americans rated the Kiswahili program better than African Americans. Male respondents rated the Kiswahili program slightly higher than female respondents. Although the difference in gender rating of Kiswahili program was not all that significant, it might be important to evaluate the program content and methods of evaluations for any elements of gender-biases. Despite the fact that male students rated the program higher, their achievement in Kiswahili was lower than that of females. This discrepancy warrants further investigation.
Regarding the assessment of Kiswahili instructors, they had a mean rating score of 3.4. This rating meant that majority of the respondents felt that their instructors were good. Only less that 8% rated Kiswahili instructors as either “fair” or “poor.” By gender, close to 60% of males rated Kiswahili instructors as “excellent,” while about 50% of the females gave a similar rating. Only a small percentage of males rated Kiswahili instructors as “poor,” while no female gave such a rating. A slightly lower percentage of males than females rated Kiswahili instructors as “fair.” Over 40% of females rated Kiswahili instructors as “good,” while about 30% of males gave them a similar rating. These ratings show that there were variations and thus a need for improvement on the part of instructors.

Considering the two major ethnic groups (African Americans and White-Americans), about 60% of African Americans rated Kiswahili instructors as “excellent,” while about 40% of White-Americans gave Kiswahili instructors the same rating. The fact that Kiswahili was taught by native speakers may have given students more confidence in their instructors. The percentage of White-Americans that rated Kiswahili instructors as “good” was almost the same as the percentage of the same ethnic group that gave Kiswahili instructors an “excellent” rating (see Figure 4.10). However, about 20% of African Americans rated the Kiswahili instructors as “good.” Although overall the percentage of respondents that rated Kiswahili instructors as “fair” was small, the percentage of White-Americans that rated Kiswahili instructors as “fair” was slightly lower than the percentage of African Americans that gave the same rating to Kiswahili instructors.
Most of the respondents were satisfied with the Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods. Approximately 45% rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “excellent,” 39% as “good,” and 14% as “fair.” Only a small percentage rated the Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “poor.” Lack of uniformity in teaching methodology might have contributed to poor rating of some instructors.

About 45% of males and females rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “excellent.” The percentage of females that rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “good” was slightly higher than that of males. About 18% of males rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “fair,” while about 10% of females gave the same rating. Only a very small percentage of females rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “poor.” There was no male that rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “poor.”

By ethnicity, no ethnic group rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “poor.” The percentage of those who rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “fair” was almost the same between the two major ethnic groups (African Americans and White-Americans). The difference occurred in the “good” and “excellent” ratings. About 45% of White-Americans rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “good,” while only about 20% of African Americans gave the same rating. Close to 60% of African Americans rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “excellent.” About 40% of White-Americans rated Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods as “excellent.”

The big difference in the ratings between respondents of different ethnic groups might have been caused by a reference to a specific Kiswahili instructor’s teaching methods.

Only 11% rated the Kiswahili teaching materials used as “excellent.” 51% rated them as “good,” and about 30% rated them as “fair.” As already noted, this relatively
good rating may have resulted from respondents' lack of exposure to the existing materials in other foreign language programs. There was an acute lack of technologically oriented learning materials for Kiswahili as a foreign language program. Lack of such materials like computer-based programs made Kiswahili lag behind other foreign languages and students might have felt less motivated.

The rating of Kiswahili instructional materials between African Americans and White-Americans was almost the same. A majority of them rated the materials as "good," but only as small percentage rated the materials as "excellent." White-Americans rated Kiswahili materials more favorably than African Americans. The fact that only a small percentage of respondents rated Kiswahili instructional materials as "excellent" reiterated the need for the revision of existing ones, and probably the production of new ones.

There was no significant gender difference in the ratings of the Kiswahili instructional materials. About 50% of males and females rated Kiswahili instructional materials as "good," while only a small percentage rated them as "excellent." The percentage of females that rated Kiswahili instructional materials as "excellent" was slightly more than the percentage of males that gave the same rating. However, the percentage of males that rated Kiswahili instructional materials as "fair" was slightly more than females that gave the same rating. As already noted, this discrepancy could be a reflection of gender biases on Kiswahili instructional materials used.

Most of the respondents were satisfied with the in-class quizzes and examinations given by their instructors. Over 18% rated quizzes and examinations as "excellent," 55%
as "good," 23% as "fair," and only a small percentage rated them as poor. There were a few incidents of respondents noting that some instructors gave very easy, short, and less challenging quizzes. Such a problem could be addressed by establishing an examination bank where instructors could "withdraw" sample quizzes and adjust them according to the objectives they wanted to assess at a given time.

A majority of the students, irrespective of ethnicity, agreed that in-class Kiswahili assignments were good. The percentage of White-Americans who rated Kiswahili in-class assignments as "good" was slightly higher than that of African Americans. However, the percentage of African Americans who rated Kiswahili in-class assignments as "excellent" was slightly higher than that of White-Americans. No African American rated Kiswahili in-class assignments as "poor."

The rating of in-class Kiswahili assignments by gender did not indicate much difference. The percentage of males who gave a rating of either "poor" or "fair" was slightly higher than that of females. However, the percentage of females who rated in-class Kiswahili assignments as either "good" or "excellent" was slightly higher than the males' percentage. The fact that the percentage of respondents' rating in-class Kiswahili assignments as excellent was small indicates that there is a need for improvement on these assignments.

Most of the respondents were satisfied with the activities that Kiswahili instructors gave to be taken out of normal classroom environment. Over 19% rated those activities as "excellent," 54% as "good," 22% as "fair," and only a small percentage rated them as "poor." There was an indication of preference for more homework assignment.
Such a request could have come from those students who received few or no homework assignment. More uniformity in the program in assigning homework is needed.

The rating of out-of-class Kiswahili assignments by ethnicity did not indicate a major difference among the main ethnic groups. The percentage of African Americans and White-Americans who rated out-of-class Kiswahili assignment as “poor” was very small. White-Americans who rated out-of-class Kiswahili assignments as “fair” was slightly more than that of African Americans. Africa-Americans who rated out-of-class assignment as “good” was more than that of White-Americans. There was a very small difference between African Americans and White-Americans who rated out-of-class assignment as “excellent.”

The majority of female Kiswahili students (approximately 60%) rated out-of-class assignment as “good,” while about 50% of males gave the same rating. Fewer females rated out-of-class Kiswahili assignments as “fair.” The same case applied for the rating of out-of-class assignments as “excellent.” This rating indicates a need for improvement on these assignments.

Most of Kiswahili students were satisfied with their oral examinations. 27% rated the Kiswahili oral exam as “excellent,” 60% as “good,” 11% as “fair,” and only a small percentage rated them as “poor.” There was a preference for group activities in conducting oral exams. Respondents noted that they were less anxious and less nervous when doing group presentation. However, group presentations tend to be a repeat of memorized chunks of sentences with neither room for creativity nor negotiation of meaning. They are unnatural and there is a tendency of performance of one individual affecting that of another individual. In addition, group presentations are difficult to score.
Only a very small percentage rated Kiswahili oral exams as "poor." The percentage of white-Americans that rated Kiswahili oral exams as "fair" was lower than that of African Americans. However, White-Americans who rated Kiswahili oral exams as "good" was much higher than African Americans. The percentage of African Americans who rated Kiswahili oral exams as "excellent" was slightly higher than white-Americans. There was no major difference between respondents who rated Kiswahili oral exam as "poor" and "fair" between genders. The percentage of males who rated Kiswahili oral exams as "good" was higher than that of females. However, a higher percentage of females rated Kiswahili oral exams as "excellent." It might be of research interest to investigate how these oral exams were conducted so that these discrepancies between ethnic and gender ratings could be addressed.

5.1.4.9 To what extent does Kiswahili program meet student goals and expectations?

This question aimed at establishing the extent to which Kiswahili program met the goals and expectations of students. Respondents were asked to rate the level of satisfaction with the Kiswahili program in meeting their goals and expectations. The rating was on a 4-point Likert-scale ranging from "fully satisfied" to "I do not know." This scale was converted to the following: 1 represented "I do not know," 2 "not satisfied," 3 "partially satisfied," and 4 "fully satisfied." Descriptive statistics were applied to compare the mean. A higher mean represented satisfaction, and a lower mean represented a lack of satisfaction.

About 45% of the respondents felt that their goal for enrolling in Kiswahili was fully satisfied, 3% felt that their goal was partially satisfied, about 15% didn't know
whether their goal was satisfied, and a small percentage reported that their goal was not satisfied at all. In general, these results indicate that the Kiswahili program addressed student goals to a large extent and attempted to satisfy them.

The “Others” category felt their goal for studying Kiswahili was close to being fully satisfied. African Americans were the next to express satisfaction in goal attainment, followed by the Whites-Americans. African Americans may have felt moderately satisfied for identity reason, but felt that they needed more content that would reflect their history and experiences to enable them make connection with the language and its speakers. The fact that the White-Americans were least satisfied, and yet scored high in GPA raises questions. Conclusions for this anomaly could possibly be explained by looking at what reasons made them enroll in Kiswahili, content of the course, and assessment methods.

In assessing the level of satisfaction, a slightly a higher percentage of Africa-Americans (in comparison with White-Americans) did not know whether they were satisfied with the Kiswahili program or not. Less than 10% of each ethnic group category indicated that they were not satisfied with Kiswahili program. A large percentage of White-Americans was partially satisfied, in comparison with African Americans. On the other hand, the percentage of African Americans who were fully satisfied with the Kiswahili program was higher than those of other ethnic groups. These findings may support the earlier claim that some African Americans derived satisfaction by just the mere act of studying an African language.

By gender, the percentage of male respondents that did not know whether they were satisfied with the Kiswahili program was slightly higher than that of female
respondents. A very small percentage of both males and females were not satisfied with the Kiswahili program. The percentage of males that were partially satisfied with the Kiswahili program was higher than that of females. A higher percentage of females were fully satisfied with the Kiswahili program than males.

The level of satisfaction could be assessed along the motives behind enrolling in the Kiswahili program. Those who enrolled in the program to fulfill a foreign language graduation requirement may have felt satisfied if they were approaching this goal. Those who planned to visit Kiswahili-speaking region in the future may have developed a certain level of proficiency such that they felt comfortable to survive with basic skill gained in the program. The fact that more females than males reported satisfaction raises a concern. As already noted, there is a need to evaluate the program for possible gender-related biases.

5.1.4.10 What framework can be established to improve Kiswahili language program in the future?

This question was aimed at developing a framework that could be used to inform decision-makers within the institution about the Kiswahili program. In order to establish this framework, the results of all research questions were assessed. Regarding the reasons why American college students enroll in Kiswahili, it was found that the three major reasons are: curiosity (12.3%), to fulfill a foreign language requirement (11.4%), and because they heard Kiswahili was an easy subject (6.1%). It was recommended that reasons that could make American college students curious about studying Kiswahili be identified to ensure that they are addressed in the curriculum. It might also be of research
interest to attempt to establish why students would claim Kiswahili to be an easy subject. If this claim is established to be true, then Kiswahili curriculum could be revised to make it more rigorous and challenging enough to the students. While there is nothing wroth with a language being easy to learn, it must be changing enough to meet the expected standards set by the institution.

This study also found that there existed a positive correlation between motivation and achievement. Therefore, effort is needed to build and sustain student motivation to ensure that college students continued to study Kiswahili and to attract and encourage students to studying about Africa.

Although the correlation between ethnicity and Kiswahili achievement was low (r = .03), there was need to ensure that different ethnic groups felt accommodated and represented. It was recommended that a content-based syllabus be adopted to try to meet this goal. In addition, Kiswahili curriculum could be broadened to cover more and diverse cultures.

There seemed to be a low correlation between gender and Kiswahili achievement in Kiswahili as a foreign language (r = .304). Female respondents had a higher GPA than male respondents. Kiswahili instructors and curriculum writers need to check whether the course content and assessment are gender-biased.

A low positive correlation between prior foreign language study experience and Kiswahili achievement was found. These findings call for expansion of Kiswahili programs to elementary, middle, and high schools. This early exposure could give students a foundation in the study of Kiswahili and it would also popularize the program.
Overall ratings of the Kiswahili program, instructors, their teaching methods, Kiswahili materials, in and out of class assignments, and oral exams were satisfactory. However, there was need for the department to ensure that there was uniformity in the coverage of content materials, length and number of quizzes and homework assigned, and formats of both oral and written examinations. These ratings might have contributed to the reason why a majority of Kiswahili students reported satisfaction in their goal satisfaction. However, the few discrepancies between ethnic and gender satisfaction need to be addressed. It might be important to investigate why a majority of African Americans reported high rates of satisfaction and yet their Kiswahili GPA was lower than that of White-Americans who reported a lower satisfaction rate. In addition, it might be necessary to investigate whether the Kiswahili program has elements of gender biases, and if so whether these biases contributed to higher Kiswahili achievement and high satisfaction rates as reported by a majority of the female students.

5.2 SUMMARY OF RESPONDENTS' COMMENTS

Kiswahili program

Most of the respondents noted that the Kiswahili program was satisfactory and addressed their needs. They suggested that the department ought to make an effort to offer graduate level classes. They also suggested that the department needed to make more effort to advertise the Kiswahili program. Another suggestion was that the departement should assist in providing tutors for those students who needed more help in the study of Kiswahili.
Respondents acknowledged that the program was challenging and not as easy as they had heard before they enrolled. They suggested that the program could be made stronger through addition of listening activities in the language lab and incorporation of cultural activities and information in Kiswahili lessons.

Respondents indicated a preference for small class size. This was important to ensure individual attention, classroom management, and a workable student-teacher ratio. Respondents wanted the department to offer 2 1/2 hr classes twice instead of the current 1-hour class 5 days in a week. In addition, they wanted more classes offered. Some of the recommendations that respondents proposed could take time to implement because they involved finances.

Kiswahili instructors

Most of the students noted that generally, Kiswahili instructors were fair, patient, understanding, prepared and kept students interested. They acknowledged the fact that all Kiswahili instructors were either native speakers or came from Kiswahili-speaking country. However, they respondents reported that there was need for consistency between instructors of same level. Respondents noted that there was a difference in the content covered by different instructors at the same level. They suggested the same instructor be maintained throughout the first four courses. However, as already mentioned, the assignment of a particular instructor to teach a certain course was determined by various factors. A few respondents reported that their instructors either came to class late or never showed up at all, and had difficulty understanding their students. It is possible that foreign language instructors, especially beginners, go through a period of culture shock and conflict that could be interpreted as misunderstanding.
Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods

Respondents reported Kiswahili instructors’ teaching methods were good and effective. As already reported, the Kiswahili program at the research site stressed for the use of communicative language teaching method, with an emphasis on oral proficiency. Students reported that they enjoyed listening to instructors’ personal experiences for they could relate to those experiences. However, they wanted less time to be spent on going over quizzes and homework, instructors to vary teaching methods, and to provide more examples.

Kiswahili instructional materials

Respondents noted that using one textbook for the whole series (Kiswahili 101-104) was economical. They recommended that the glossary of the texts used needed expansion or student-friendly dictionary be provided. Some respondents reported that their instructors did not frequently use or refer to the textbook and thus it was seen as a waste of money. The fact that a few instructors were not using the textbook did not make it useless. It is possible that the others were using it and it was almost the only textbook the students needed. It is true that the textbook did not follow instructors’ notes, but it was useful for reference and practice exercises. Some respondents reported difficulties in following the video and audio assignments. This could happen due to application of wrong listening skills. Some students wanted to understand every word instead of going for overall meaning. With time they could develop better skills. Development of multi-media materials was recommended.
Kiswahili quizzes and in-class exams

Most of the respondents reported that Kiswahili quizzes and in-class exams were fair and adequate, but challenging. Some respondents suggested that Kiswahili quizzes should not be weighted as heavily as attendance and that half of the quizzes should be made take-home to provide more time to complete. Responded added that Kiswahili quizzes should target assessing specific short-term objectives and be graded and returned on time.

Kiswahili homework and out-of-class activities

Respondents reported that Kiswahili homework and out-of-class activities were fair and adequate, but challenging should be kept to a minimum to avoid confusion. Most of them noted that homework supplement class lectures and was beneficial. They suggested more time should be allowed when more challenging assignments are given. Respondents showed a preference for group assigned projects. A majority of the respondents seemed to prefer collaborative learning as strategy.

Kiswahili oral exams

Students reported that instructors made Kiswahili oral exams easy to understand and graded them fairly. However, they noted that they needed to practice more in Kiswahili classes. Students seemed to prefer group oral exam to one on one with an instructor. They found oral exams as a good practice of speaking. Some students reported that Kiswahili oral exams made them nervous and suggested that they should be based on class lectures, focus on language development, and should give room for more creative responses.
5.3 ISSUES FACING THE TEACHING OF KISWAHILI AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Like any other new endeavor, teaching Kiswahili as a foreign language has its challenges. One of the issues that one has to contend with is the fact that one is teaching the language removed from its cultural boundaries. This fact poses a major challenge because, unlike teaching Kiswahili to speakers of other African languages who might have some cultural elements in common, the foreign language setting is equivalent to starting from the ground level. One has to start from establishing the legitimacy of offering Kiswahili as an academic subject. This challenge is strengthened by the fact that a majority of the USA populace is monolingual, with only one way of doing things and anything else that does not conform to the American norm of doing things is judged as sub-standard. The situation is usually worsened by the way media portrays Africa in general. For a long time Africa has been portrayed as a poor continent, full of diseases, and politically unstable. While some claims could be true in isolated cases, as it happens in other parts of the world, the media generalizes them to the entire continent. A Kiswahili instructor in a foreign language setting, therefore, acquires an additional task of coping with the stereotypes that students bring to the classroom.

Foreign language college graduation requirements for undergraduate students also pose their own challenges for Kiswahili instructors. As this study has shown, a majority of Kiswahili students enroll in the program to meet requirement. This condition means that the drive for studying Kiswahili is external, and thus the students feel that they are being compelled to study the language, not because they chose to, but because someone else wants them to. Studies on motivation have shown that an internal (intrinsic) drive is
stronger than an external (extrinsic) drive. Students who make their own personal choice to study Kiswahili are more likely to achieve more than those who take it to satisfy an external requirement. There is a need to educate students that the study of a foreign language is more than fulfilling an academic requirement.

The four quarters of Kiswahili instruction are not enough for students to attain a proficiency level enough to survive independently in a Kiswahili-speaking environment. At the end of the fourth quarter, students feel frustrated because they have not learned enough to read a Kiswahili newspaper, follow a complex Kiswahili conversation, and follow a Kiswahili comedy. Students want to do things in an L2 that they do in their L1. This calls for a more elaborate, intensive, and comprehensive program. More courses need to be developed so that students who want to major or minor in Kiswahili for different purposes can have enough courses to take.

Another problem that instructors of Kiswahili as a foreign language face is shortage of instructional material. As reported in the study, most of the instructional materials used are dated, with little revision. Since Kiswahili texts are few, instructors do not have many choices. There is need for development of more interesting, and up to date materials that utilize modern technology.

The department responsible ought to ensure that new instructors have gone through training in modern foreign language teaching techniques and be made aware of what to culturally expect in American classrooms. They should be helped to develop a neutral level of understanding and to not be judgmental. They ought to be guided by the understanding that everyone is unique in his or her own way.
With adoption of better language policies in Africa, good preparation of instructors, development of modern, interesting, and technologically-based instructional materials, Kiswahili as a foreign language program could become much stronger.

5.4 KISWAHILI PROGRAM MODEL

In order to ensure improvement of Kiswahili as a foreign language program, this study has proposed a model for evaluation that could be applied in any setting. The model is shown on figure 5.1 below.

![Kiswahili program model](image)

Figure 5.1 Kiswahili program model
Setting

Setting refers to any place or situation where a foreign language teaching is taking place. This could be a regular classroom in primary, secondary, high school or college; an individualized instruction environment; or in a professional gathering. According to Savignon (1983), the setting in which a language is learned is intimately related to language retention. Setting also determines the kind of input the learner gets and the type of learning strategies they apply. A relatively new concept that fits in setting is distance education. This is a situation where the instructor and the student(s) are situated away from one another, but are linked through an instructional media like phone, TV, or Internet.

Program, curriculum and approach

The program falls within a department. The program states what its objects in offering a foreign language are. Savignon (1983) noted that the most effective programs are those that involve the whole learner in the experience of language as a network of relations between people, things, and events. The balance of features in a curriculum should vary from one program to the next, depending on the particular learning context or setting of which it is a part. Program goals and objectives ought to be clearly stated. The curriculum reinstates the program goals and objectives and determines the approach to be used in attaining them.

Instructors

Instructors are expected to be specialists in the field of foreign language and competent in the subject matter. Teachers may differ in their individual teaching skills, attitudes towards teaching, and teaching methods or techniques. Teachers’ educational
and cultural background may have a great influence on how a program will be implemented. For example, teachers who have little or no teacher training may do little more than present the materials in the textbook (Brown, 1995). On the other hand, trained teachers may prefer to adapt the book and create their own supplementary materials. One teacher may see him/herself as a motivator, while another may see his/her role as an organizer of communicative activities. Culturally, some teachers may present their teaching democratically where he/she and the learners are collectively involved. On the other hand, a teacher may have come from a culture where teachers are seen as authority figure who are expected to provide and direct learning. These differences are likely to have an effect in the program.

Syllabus

Second and foreign language researchers have identified three major categories of syllabus: structural, notional-functional, and situational. Structural syllabus introduces points of grammar in terms used to describe discrete structural or formal features of the language. In this type of syllabus consideration of complexity, difficulty for the learner, and frequency of occurrence may provide guidelines in the selection and sequencing of the formal features to be included in a structural syllabus. Notional-functional syllabus organizes language component by functional categories. A notional-functional syllabus provides a means of developing structural categories within a general consideration of communicative functions of the language. A notional-functional syllabus begins with specification of communicative needs of the learner. This specification provides the basis for establishing categories for communicative functions for which the learner should be prepared. These functions are then considered in terms of the semantic
concepts or notions related to their performance. A consideration of notions in relation to various functions of the language leads to an identification of necessary or useful second or foreign language forms (grammar) and vocabulary. Situational syllabus is one that presents language samples in a situation or setting. In a situational syllabus, vocabulary and expressions are grouped into situations that will presumably be encountered or anticipated by the learner. The syllabus ought to be written carefully following the overall goals and objectives of the program.

Materials

According to Savignon (1983) when materials are prepared a decision has to be made on what sample to include. Questions to ask regarding materials are: will the materials be primarily didactic in nature, that is, illustrative of forms or functions? Will the materials also involve the learners in communication? Will they be new materials? Will they be collected and perhaps edited from existing materials? Are they written or oral? How will they be sequenced? According to Brown (1995) it is relatively easy to adopt, develop, or adapt materials for a program that is well defined in terms of needs analyses and objectives. Materials should be carefully selected and varied in line with modern times and technology.

Content

Content should be carefully selected. Most of the materials are not prepared with any program in mind and that’s why the instructor has to select what is relevant to his/her program. According to Savignon (1983), acquisition has been defined in terms of
phonological and syntactic features. The content of L2 learning has been for the most part grammatical competence. This includes negation, verb inflections, position and use of direct objects, etc.

Methods

Methodology refers to how the teachers present their content and also how students receive that content. One characteristic in the methodology applied is code simplification. Various methods of teaching have been identified. Some of the common ones are: audiolingual, direct method, translation, and communicative. According to Brown, (1995) each of these methods has different techniques of presenting the content. Methods vary based on the program, goals and objectives and the needs of the learners. Students who are in direct contact with the instructor get a different method from those that are learning by distance medium.

Students

It is important to pay attention to the type of students enrolled in a program. Their ethnicity, gender, and experiences should be taken into account. Information about learners that the program should address is: age, L1, needs and interests, and their attributes (for example, field dependence/independence, phonetic coding ability, tolerance of ambiguity, conceptual level, instrumental, integrative or other orientation; ego permeability, personality trait, cognitive styles, and aptitude). Information that focuses on ways in which the learners' characteristics are related to the program and to the teaching ought to be provided. Learners' characteristics affect many components of instruction.
Study abroad

This refers to a situation where foreign language students spend sometime in a country or region the language they are learning is spoken. Study abroad programs vary in time from a few weeks to months or even years depending of the objectives of the program. It is obvious that study abroad provide learners with first hand exposure to the target language and culture, which may translate to high proficiency. However, study abroad participation component is not a requirement in the Kiswahili program. A major hindrance to emphasis on study abroad is the cost involved. There is one federally funded Kiswahili study abroad program. This program, popularly known as Group Study Abroad (GPA), recruits Kiswahili students from different universities in the US who have studied Kiswahili for at least two years. This program is competitive and gives successful students an opportunity to spend eight weeks in Tanzania studying Kiswahili language and cultures. There are other study abroad programs ran by individual institutions. Most of these programs are open to students who meet the requirements set by those institutions.

Evaluation

Evaluation is the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the curriculum and to assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institutions involved (Brown, 1995). Evaluation ought to an ongoing process at all stages of curriculum implementation. In addition to assessing the effectiveness of the program, evaluation can help in the processes of developing objectives; writing and using the tests; adopting, developing, or adapting materials; and teaching. Evaluation, therefore is an ongoing process of information
gathering, analysis, and synthesis, the entire purpose of which is to constantly improve each element of a curriculum on the basis of what is known about all of the other elements, separately as well as collectively. Evaluation is a very important component in any program. Evaluation informs the program director, the instructor and even the students of the successes and failures in the program. Evaluation needs to be conducted at every stage of program implementation.

5.4.1 Application of the proposed model

In the proposed model, evaluation is the key component. The model presupposes that evaluation be applied at every stage from the conception of the program to its implementation. At the initial stages of program development, program developers ought to evaluate the feasibility of the program versus institutional and societal needs. At this stage also, program administrators ought to evaluate availability of funds and sustainability of the program once implemented. Such an evaluation could help the program respond to the needs of the students (and society at large) with ease. As already noted, sometimes Kiswahili program fails to open classes even when there are students interested due to lack of funds. Sometimes some African languages are cancelled due to lack of funds to sustain such languages. For example, at the research site, two languages (Hausa and Yoruba) have been cancelled due to lack of funds (among other factors) to sustain them.

Evaluation at the curriculum stage would help in implementing long and short-term objectives of the program. The approach to be applied in the implementation is also
identified at this stage. For example, the program in the institution where this study was conducted emphasizes oral proficiency as its main approach to Kiswahili instruction.

Evaluation of instructors is very important because these are implementers of the program’s objectives. Evaluation of instructors informs program administrators about their qualifications, and degree of success in implementing the program’s goals. Due to their significant role, there ought to be constant feedback between program directors and implementers (instructors).

The syllabus states what would be covered in the classroom, sometimes on a weekly or day-to-day basis. Most educationists feel that any syllabus ought to be flexible with the demands of its consumers. Such flexibility cannot be addressed without constant evaluation of the syllabus.

Materials to be used in any Kiswahili program ought to be carefully selected and to be sensitive to issues like gender, ethnicity, and age among others. Sensitivity to such issues cannot be detected without a thorough evaluation of such materials. Materials also ought to reflect the needs of the learners.

Content selection ought to be driven by the objectives of the program, and be tailored to reflect the level of the students. Evaluation of content would provide information of the extent of attainment of program objectives, address the problem of sequencing, and ensure flow from one topic (or subtopic) to another.

Method is an important stage because it determines how the selected content is going to be presented to the students. It is important to evaluate methods because application of a poor method would result in minimal accomplishment or none. It is important to remember that different contents may call for different methods and the
ability of instructors to be flexible in their methods would ensure maximum success. For example, some contents may be easy to present using direct method than others.

It is very important for instructors to have some information about their students. Having information like their background experiences in foreign language, major areas of study, age, ethnicity, and interests would serve as building blocks for instructors. Instructors could intertwine what students already know with new information (content) thus making teaching more effective. Information on students could be obtained through an evaluation in the first few days of contact.

Although this may not be very necessary in all cases, it may be important to evaluate the setting. The success of the program may depend to a larger extent on how the wider community perceives the program. It is important to remember that the consumers of the program are expected to serve the wider community. Getting a sense of the society’s perceptions might provide directions for the program. The program could also try to market itself to the wider society by participating in various outreach projects, thus establish links between learning and non-learning institutions.

5.5 REFLECTIONS OF THE RESEARCHER’S EXPERIENCE AS AN AFRICAN TEACHING KISWAHILI AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THE US

5.5.1 Interest on the topic

The Kiswahili program at the research site is one of the most elaborate and reputable programs in the nation. One component of the program’s popularity is the enrollment of a large number of students, both annually and over the years. Another reason is the ability for the department to offer all the four basic courses, required by
many academic units for graduation, every academic term. This arrangement provides
students with the flexibility to continue their foreign language study requirement during
any academic term of the year. This flexibility is not found in many foreign language
programs and institutions. The trend in most programs is to offer the first level in the fall
quarter or semester, the second level in the second quarter or semester, and so on. In a
program where the four courses are not offered every quarter, a student who is not able to
take a subsequent course due to any reason is forced to wait until the next academic year,
and this may delay his/her graduation. The popularity of the program was one reason
why the researcher felt interested to investigate why college students at the research site
were motivated to enroll in the Kiswahili program.

Another factor that was of interest to the researcher was ethnic diversity. Although the research site institution is a predominantly White institution, the program attracted students from diverse ethnic backgrounds. In addition to enrolling African Americans (a main minority ethnic group on campus), the program also attracted students from Arabic and Asian origins. The researcher was interested in finding out whether responses to the questionnaire would vary based on ethnicity. African Americans provided an important component in this study in that since most claim African ancestry, the researcher wanted to investigate whether a majority of them would indicate cultural heritage and affiliation with Africa as major motives for studying Kiswahili.

Given the history of this country (characterized by segregation and discrimination), the researcher wanted to investigate whether a change in political set-up has translated into opening up foreign language programs to minority students. Before the 1960s, minority students were groomed to take some specific subjects and, as
LeBlanc (1972) stated, many were advised against studying foreign languages. The researcher wanted to investigate whether or not this trend has changed.

In order to investigate the above issues, the researcher conducted a library search to identify similar studies. This was an important step in identifying an instrument that could be used in the study. At the time of this study, the only published public instrument available that investigated motivation and achievement in a foreign language was the one developed by Gardner and Lambert in 1972, which was developed in Canada. The researcher adopted some of the items from this instrument and modified others (with assistance of a panel of research experts) to fit the current study.

5.5.2 Kiswahili instructors approach to student stereotypes about Africa and African languages

The work of a Kiswahili instructor, and probably of any African language instructor, goes beyond the teaching of language and culture. The reason for this expanded job description is that a majority of Kiswahili as a foreign language students come to Kiswahili study without basic ideas and knowledge of Africa, and if they have any information, it is usually either negative or incorrect. This lack of information is probably a result of failure to teach about Africa in K-12 educational level. In this section, some of the stereotypes held by American college students are presented and discussed. These stereotypes are a representative of some of the questions that college students have asked their Kiswahili instructors.

In an effort to deal with stereotypes that Kiswahili students bring to the classroom, Kiswahili instructors must apply culturally relevant teaching in their classes.
According to Ladson-Billings and Henry (1990), a culturally relevant teaching approach uses students’ culture to empower them to be able to critically examine educational content and process and ask what role they have in creating a truly democratic and multicultural society. It uses students’ own culture and life experiences to help them create meaning and understand the world. According to Ladson-Billings (1994), culturally relevant teaching theory is based on three broad propositions:

1) Conceptions of self and others that reflect beliefs in, and commitment to, students and their communities.

2) Classroom social relations that are equitable, reciprocal, and that foster community.

3) Knowledge that is shared and collectively constructed, viewed critically and in a multifaceted way, and built on the child’s own culture and experience.

The following is a discussion of some of the stereotypes and how Kiswahili instructors address them using a culturally relevant teaching approach.

Most of the students thought that Africa was one country and not a continent. The researcher assumes that this incorrect perception is based on the way the US is divided into states. This perception may also have been caused by the fact that there are so many countries in Africa and the size of some of them is the same, if not smaller, than some of the US states. Understanding that Africa is a continent with many countries and that the current political boundaries are a consequence of the scramble for Africa (resulting from the Berlin Conference of 1884/85) is important in comprehending the linguistic and cultural complexities found within one country. Kiswahili instructors often attempt to correct this misconception by bringing to the students’ attention the number and the location of the continents of the world. In addition, the instructors can give examples of
other countries in Europe, like Portugal and Sweden, which are even smaller than some African countries both in size and population. By giving these examples, students may get to know that the sizes of different countries of the world vary, and that the political boundaries of individual countries may have been predetermined by various factors, some of which could be beyond the control of the citizens of those countries. Such a historical and geographic exposure may make the students cease to use the US as a yardstick for measuring which geographical region and which does not qualify to be referred to as a country.

It is also common for most American students to think that Africans speak one language and that the differences in their language are dialectic. The source of this perception is hard to know for sure, but one could assume that it possibly emanated from the fact that to Americans, most Africans look the same. Why then shouldn't they expect Europeans to all speak the same language and yet to most of us they look the same? It becomes clearer to the students that there is linguistic diversity in Africa when they are presented with an African linguistic map. The students soon learn that Kiswahili is predominantly spoken in Eastern Africa, some parts of Central, and Southern Africa. Students also learn that Africans from different countries and linguistic background communicate with each other using a foreign language like English, French, or Portuguese. The use of foreign languages among Africans of diverse linguistic backgrounds is a result of colonialism. Colonizers imposed their languages on Africans and due to their influences those languages have maintained their official status even
after independence was granted in Africa. Those languages (e.g. English, French, and Portuguese) continue to play the role of international communication even within the African continent.

Another stereotype is the feeling that Africans and their languages are inferior. This feeling about Africans among some other races in the world could be a carryover of slave trade, continued discrimination of the Black race in different parts of the world, and might even be related to the oppression from apartheid rule in South Africa which has been, fortunately, rendered illegal. For a long time in human history, race has been used to determine social, political, and economic success. Even though very explicit racial segregation and oppression have been brought somewhat under control legally, there still remain some elements of discrimination that may be attributable to race. According to Ladson-Billings and Tate (1995), race continues to be a significant factor in determining inequality in the United States. Unfortunately, the Black race is often associated with evil, crime, failure, poverty, laborers, and "hewers of wood and drawers of water." Why would a "superior" race concern itself with the study of a Black language and its culture, for example, Kiswahili?

It was racial discrimination in the United States that led to the birth of the concept of critical race theory, which grew out of the Civil Rights Movement of the 1950s and 1960s (Gay, 1983). Both Critical Race Theory and the Civil Rights Movement began as intellectual, academic forms of resistance to oppressive social relationships (Taylor, 2000). Taylor adds that Critical Race Theory is an eclectic and dynamic type of legal scholarship that matured in the 1980s over the perceived failure of traditional civil rights litigation to produce meaningful racial reforms in the United States. Even though Critical
Race Theory originally focused on legal injustices, it has now grown to incorporate all forms of prejudice on the basis of race. However, Critical Race Theory advocates seem to understand and appreciate the contribution of all race as part of the social, political, and economic well being of the society in general.

As far as African languages are concerned, there has been a feeling from the Westerners (and surprisingly even among some Western educated Africans) that African languages are deficient for expressing some thoughts and ideas. However, African languages, like other languages, have the potential to express all ideas. It is important to note that both during the missionary and colonial phases in African history, African languages were not given official status and this may have hampered their evaluation (Whitley, 1974). Historical alienation of African languages had adverse effects on their development. Incorporating these historical events in the language lessons and inviting specialists in these areas to give presentations has helped to correct the misconception.

Africa is often portrayed by both the print and the mass media as backward and underdeveloped. This image has contributed to enhancing student stereotypes about Africa. The wish is for the media to show that the major cause of the poor state of affairs in Africa often emanates from the West through exorbitant financial interests and exploitation of resources. Discussion of major economic co--operatives like Preferential Trade Areas (PTA), Economic Co-operation of West African States (ECOWAS), and revival of East African Community may help to change the distorted image of Africa, its people, and its languages.

Many publications still show the West as the "civilizer" of Africans thus supporting the attitude towards Africa and Africans as being inferior. Those publications
do not, however, mention the damages caused by slavery, slave trade, and colonial
cruelty; nor do they adequately describe the impact of colonization on African identity.
Kiswahili instructors often make an attempt to deal with this issue by incorporating
historical facts and showing that many African countries were freed from colonialism
only very recently. Kiswahili instructors who are native speakers also teach that African
countries are making progress in their economic development and that they still need
assistance in their efforts.

It was evident that the Kiswahili students knew more about African animals than
the people. This was not surprising because of their references to tourism and wildlife. It
is not surprising then that the Kiswahili word “safari” has come to be widely accepted as
an English word know by English speakers worldwide. Presenting tourism as an
economic activity, in addition to trade and agriculture, may help place the African people
ahead of the animals in the thinking of non-Africans around the world.

Although the effect may not have been documented yet, teaching of Kiswahili as
a foreign language may positively affect Kiswahili. Such benefits could occur in various
aspects such as lexicography (e.g. through loan words and idiomatic expressions). Even
though the influence of language contact may be both ways, given the position of English
in modern science and technology, Kiswahili is likely to benefit more in its lexicography
as its use expands beyond the Kiswahili-speaking region.

5.5.3 Personal perspective of this researcher

From its introduction in the American Academy, Kiswahili programs, along with
other African language programs, have grown in that many more institutions have
started teaching Kiswahili. A few research journals (e.g., Ufahamu³) accepts manuscripts written in Kiswahili language. Financial institutions and Foundations (e.g., The Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Foundations, and The World Bank,) continue to support research in Kiswahili and other African languages. One of the Kiswahili projects that has benefited from these institutions in the Kamusi Online Dictionary. This is a Kiswahili-English and English-Kiswahili dictionary that is accessible to all English speakers learning Kiswahili throughout the world. Recently, the US Department of Education awarded a grant for the establishment of a National African Language Resource Center, to be located at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. This resource center assists in the development and dissemination of teaching materials for African languages and the organization of professional development training opportunities for African language instructors. A few years ago, the African Language Teachers’ Association (ALTA) was formed. This association’s members meet annually in a national conference. Research papers about African languages, literatures, culture, and linguistics are presented at the conference.

Despite the progress so far made in Kiswahili and other African language programs, there is still a need for more work. The number of institutions that offer Kiswahili (and other African languages) in the US is very small compared to the number of universities and colleges in the country. Whether the institution is predominantly white or historically Black, starting an African language program would help American

³ The title of this journal Ufahamu is itself a Kiswahili word that means “comprehension”
students better understand Africa, its people, and cultures. Such an understanding may lead to interactions of human races and may go a long way in reducing tensions that lead to war between countries.

Research journals dealing with languages, literatures, and cultures should encourage manuscripts written in African languages. Many Africans shy away from submitting articles in African languages for fear of being rejected. In case the existing journals do not welcome articles written in African languages, African scholars both abroad and in Africa ought to devise ways to establish journals for and about African languages. One such journal (*Mutiri*) is already published in Kikuyu. Others may also exist.

One major hindrance in research in Kiswahili and other African languages is lack of funding. Many institutions that do not have African language programs may want to start one, but due to lack of funding, such a move may not start. Even those institutions that already have programs in African languages may face difficulties in efforts to expand their programs. However, there may also be a lack of the willingness and commitment by administrators to establish and/or expand of African language programs in schools and universities. If the importance of African languages and cultures, just like those of other parts of the world, were universally shared, money would be made available to sponsor more African language programs.

Another major issue is personnel. Many universities rely on graduate assistants to teach African languages. Such graduate assistants may be studying in fields completely unrelated to foreign language pedagogy. Such a heavy reliance on graduate assistants might undermine the African language program due to lack of skills of instructors.
There is a need for institutions to hire more full time professionals. Such a step would ensure commitment and dedication in the program from the teaching staff. It is possible that implementing the above steps would ensure support for the Kiswahili language programs in the US, and probably the establishment of such programs in institutions where such programs do not currently exist.

5.5.4 Qualitative versus quantitative research

In qualitative research participant observation is characterized by two-way interaction with respect to the researcher-subject relationship, parity of status, and relative lack of control by investigators over the research (Sandstrom and Sandstrom, 1995). This approach differs from other research designs such as survey (which the researcher utilized in this study) in that the interaction is typically one-way, statuses are relatively asymmetrical, and investigator control is high (in case of experimental approach). According to Oldman (1981), the choice of a quantitative or qualitative is in keeping with the decision to adopt a more or less asymmetric relationship between the research and the subject. Some researchers (e.g., Oldman) view the quantitative research approach as an emphasis on offering explanations over understanding.

While this researcher recognizes the strength of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches, he deliberately chose to use the quantitative approach because of its replication nature and the ability to quantify responses, even though he also recognizes the limitations inherent in the methodology. In addition, the quantitative approach was deemed appropriate given the nature of the research problem and the research questions designed to address the problem. The researcher was interested in obtaining Kiswahili
students’ perspectives on selected topics, and a one-time survey served the purpose of getting the required responses. Further study could, of course, involve qualitative research such as interviews and case studies. As noted in the recommendations for further research, specific studies in the Kiswahili program should be investigated using qualitative research approach. The current study was designed to serve as a starting point for additional studies in Kiswahili as a foreign language programs at the college/university level.

5.6 CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The main objective of this study was to describe the reasons for which college students study Kiswahili as a foreign language and whether there existed any correlation between Kiswahili achievement and motivation (reasons for enrollment) in relation to ethnicity, gender, age, prior foreign language experience, and college ranking. Another objective was to describe how Kiswahili students evaluated a particular Kiswahili program, instructors, their teaching methods, instructional materials, in-class and out-of-class assignments, and oral exams. Finally, this study aimed at designing a framework that could be used for improvement of the particular Kiswahili program in the future. Based on these objectives and the findings of the study, the following conclusions can be reached. A higher percentage of minority students are getting exposed to foreign languages even before they get into college. This finding contradicted the results in the 1970s and early 1980s. However, none of the students surveyed had taken an African language. Spanish, French and German were the dominant foreign languages studied,
according to this study. Like the previous studies, African Americans continued to perform lower than White-Americans as is evident in the grade distribution by ethnicity (Figure 4.3).

In terms of gender, female respondents outperformed male student respondents. This study also found that many students (12.3%) enrolled in college Kiswahili study for curiosity reasons. This was an important finding because previous studies had categorized reasons or motives behind studying a foreign language as either instrumental or integrative. Curiosity did not fall in either of these categories. This means that there could be other factors that were either omitted or misplaced by the instrumental-integrative motivation dichotomy researchers. The second major reason for studying Kiswahili was to fulfill a foreign language college graduation requirement. Although some students chose to take Kiswahili because they heard it was easy, they subsequently mentioned in their comments that it was not as easy as they had previously thought. Therefore it can be concluded that Kiswahili as a program offered challenge to students like any other academic program at the college level.

As per the correlations between academic achievement and other variables, different levels of correlations were found. This study found a moderately weak correlation between motivation and Kiswahili achievement. These findings might have been as a result of the size of the population and the variables. More research with a larger population is needed. There was, however, a low correlation between gender and academic achievement. The researcher recommends a qualitative study of gender bias in the program. It is important to conduct such a study so that safe conclusions can be made
as to why females performed better than males. Age had a negative correlation with Kiswahili achievement. College ranking did not seem to be a major factor in Kiswahili achievement of the subjects.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As already noted, much of the research in the field of second and foreign language education has not focused on less commonly taught languages. There is need to address various aspects in this field, focusing on less commonly taught languages, for example African languages like Kiswahili. It is possible that there might be issues that are language specific that only studies addressing those languages could address. For example, some African languages like Kikuyu and Yoruba are tonal languages. There is need for studies of how to teach a tonal language to adult speakers of non-tonal language. In addition, some African languages like Kikuyu have different past and future tense aspects that mark how far past and how far future. Some of these unique futures need to be studied so that better teaching methods could be proposed. Research in the field of second/foreign language education is needed that can focus on minority students. Minority students might have issues that could affect their learning of foreign languages. Such issues could be socio-economic and/or political. Further research in this area with minority students addressing different aspects of foreign language acquisition is needed.

Another area that needs to be studied is the goals of foreign language programs at college level and student FL achievement. Many universities require one or two years of foreign language before graduation. However, it might be interesting to follow up graduates of various programs and assess how much of what they learned has been
retained over time and how many still utilized the skills they gained. If retention is found to be low among students who achieved high grades while in school, then there might be a need to rethink and revise the programs. A study of Kiswahili attrition is needed.

The current study focused on the correlation between prior foreign language study experience and Kiswahili achievement. However, it did not investigate the correlation between a study abroad experience and Kiswahili achievement. It might be important to evaluate the role of study abroad programs in the development and retention of a foreign language. If a positive correlation is found, then such a program could be made part of the foreign language program for Kiswahili.

It is evident that the study of foreign languages, especially where a content-based approach is applied, helps in the achievement in other subject areas. It might be of research interest to establish how much of the foreign language transfers to other subject areas. Specifically, qualitative research that relates Kiswahili college students’ language study to their academic majors is needed. Impressionistically, the researcher feels that students majoring in language-related fields like linguistics, speech and hearing, and journalism are advantaged than those who major in non-language related fields. Studies in this area may provide suggestions for a different foreign language trend for those majoring in language-related fields.

It was assumed that students who were majoring in African American and African Studies would logically take an African language as part of their study. Another logical choice would be Kiswahili because it is a popular African language in America. It might
be of research interest to investigate whether students majoring in African American and African Studies in college were studying other foreign languages, and probably establish why they did not choose Kiswahili.

A quantitative study of college students' official grades in their Kiswahili classes, their overall grade-point average, and a motivation index measured by a reliable instrument such as a semantic differential longitudinal is also needed. In addition, a quantitative study of Kiswahili college students of Kiswahili to identify their motivation, achievement, and learning preferences is needed.

More in depth qualitative research utilizing case studies and observations among other approaches are needed. Such studies could give a better understanding of real experiences of Kiswahili learners. Inquiry grounded on qualitative research gives the researcher a better understanding of the setting.

5.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study had several limitations. One of the limitations was that the study did not consider other intervening variables such as aptitude and attitude, which may also have an effect on students' Kiswahili achievement. According to DeCosta (1987), differences in language aptitude results in differences in the extent to which students can acquire second language skills. Another limitation was that students were asked to self-report their grades from their previous Kiswahili classes. Some of the students may have forgotten what grade they received, while others may have unintentionally given incorrect grades. In either case, the researcher may not have been totally accurate. The data for this study were collected at a large public mid-western
university in the U.S., and therefore, results may not be generalized to other institutions that offer Kiswahili as a foreign language program because the sample was not randomly selected. At the same time, this study focused only on Kiswahili students. The results of this study may not be applied to other African languages (e.g., Zulu, Hausa, Shona, Twi, Yoruba) also offered at the research site and at other American universities. In order for such a generalization to be applied more qualitative studies incorporating these languages and with larger samples need to be conducted. In addition, generalization is not warranted because motivation and the measures of Kiswahili achievement may be language specific. Location, material and teacher factors may also make generalization unwarranted. Another limitation was the use of student’s grade-point average (GPA) as a basis for assessing student level of achievement in a foreign language. This is a limitation because different instructors may have applied different criteria when assigning a grade. Finally, the Kiswahili GPA of all respondents was used for analysis and yet the students were at various course levels in the Kiswahili program. Each course level had different subject matter content that may have posed complexities that could have affected one the students’ grades and Kiswahili GPA.

Summary

This chapter presented a summary of the study. The purpose of the study, research questions, and a summary of data collection, analysis procedures, and an overview of the findings were also presented. The chapter also presented issues facing the teaching of Kiswahili as a foreign language, and proposed a Kiswahili model. Key elements of the model and how it works were presented. The research’s personal
experience as an African teaching Kiswahili as a foreign language was also presented. Implications and recommendations for further study are presented. The chapter ends with limitations of the study.
REFERENCES


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Kunz, P. S. (1996). *University students' beliefs about Foreign language learning with a focus on Arabic and Swahili at the USA.* Unpublished dissertation, University of Wisconsin, Madison.


APPENDIX A: COVER LETTER
Hi,

My name is John Kiarie Wa'Njogu. I am one of the Kiswahili instructors in the Department of African-American and African Studies. I am also a doctoral student in the department of Foreign/Second Language Education. I am conducting a study for my dissertation on students' motivation in Kiswahili classrooms and how motivation correlates with achievement. I am, therefore requesting you to complete the attached questionnaire to make this study a success. I assure you that all the information you provide will only be used for data analysis and will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you very much for your participation.

Sincerely yours,

J. K. Wa'Njogu
Instructions: Please respond to ALL items
Your responses will ONLY be used for data analysis and will be kept anonymous

PART 1
Personal information

1. What is your name

2. What is your gender? (Please circle one)
   (b) Female

3. What is your age? (Please circle one)
   20--------24  25--------29
   35--------39  40 and above

4. What is your major (area of study)?

5. At what level of college education are you in? (Please circle one)
   (a) Freshmen   (b) Sophomore   (c) Junior
   (d) Senior     (e) Graduate school

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6. (a) Have you taken another foreign language? (Please circle one)
   NO
(b) If your answer to 6 (a) above is ‘YES’, what language(s) have you taken?

7. What is your ethnicity? (Please circle one)
   a) White-American  b) African-American
   c) Native-American  d) Hispanic  e) Other (please specify) _______

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**PART 2(a)**

**Experience in the Kiswahili program**

8. How did you learn about Kiswahili program? (Please circle one)
   (a) From a friend       (b) From my adviser
   (c) From an advertisement  (d) From course bulletin/masterschedule
   (e) Other (please specify) __________

9. What Kiswahili level are you in currently? (Please circle one)
   (a) 101       (b) 102       (c) 103
   (d) 104       (e) 401       (f) 402

10. When did you take other Kiswahili courses? (please state quarter and year. If you are in Kiswahili 101, please go to question # 12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quarter</th>
<th>101</th>
<th>102</th>
<th>103</th>
<th>104</th>
<th>401</th>
<th>402</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11. What grade(s) did you earn in your previous courses (if you are in 101 go to question # 12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course level</th>
<th>101</th>
<th>102</th>
<th>103</th>
<th>104</th>
<th>401</th>
<th>402</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. Why did you choose to take Kiswahili? (Please circle all that apply to you)
(a) It was required for my major.
(b) I wanted it for professional development.
(c) I heard it was easy.
(d) It was a way of tracing my cultural heritage
(e) I took it for curiosity.
(f) I plan to visit Africa and thought I might need it.
(g) I thought it would help me to identify with Kiswahili speakers.
(h) Other (please specify) ________________________________

13. Based on your current course level, how do you feel about your goal satisfaction in taking an African language? (Please circle one)
(a) Fully satisfied.
(b) Partially satisfied.
(c) Not satisfied.
(d) I do not know.
### Part 2(b)

**Thinking about the Kiswahili program, please answer the following questions**

14. How do you rate the Kiswahili program in general? (Please circle one)
   - (a) Excellent
   - (b) Good
   - (c) Fair
   - (d) Poor

14. How do you rate your Kiswahili instructors? (Please circle one)
   - (a) Excellent
   - (b) Good
   - (c) Fair
   - (d) Poor

16. How do you rate your instructors' teaching methods? (Please circle one)
   - (a) Excellent
   - (b) Good
   - (c) Fair
   - (d) Poor

17. How do you rate your Kiswahili textbook and other teaching materials? (Please circle one)
   - (a) Excellent
   - (b) Good
   - (c) Fair
   - (d) Poor

18. How do you rate your Kiswahili quizzes and other in-class examinations? (Please circle one)
   - (a) Excellent
   - (b) Good
   - (c) Fair
   - (d) Poor

19. How do you rate your Kiswahili homework and other out-of-class assignments? (Please circle one)
   - (a) Excellent
   - (b) Good
   - (c) Fair
   - (d) Poor
**PART 3**

*Based on your experience in Kiswahili program, please comment on the following:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Please comment on Kiswahili program in general?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Please comment on your Kiswahili instructor(s)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Please comment on your Kiswahili instructors' teaching methods?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Please comment on your textbook and other teaching materials?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Please comment on your in-class quizzes and other written exams?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Please comment on your homework and other out-of-class activities?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27. Please comment on your oral examinations?

Thank you very much for your participation.
Kiswahili 101 Syllabus

Instructor: ___________  E-mail: ______________
Office: _______________.  Tel. _______________
Main Office: _______________  Tel _____________
Title: Elementary Kiswahili I
Credit Hrs: 05  Office hrs: _______________
Call #: _______________  Location: _______________
Days: _______________  Time: _______________

1.0 Course Objectives:

The course aims at developing basic Swahili communicative skills at the threshold level. Greetings, basic questions and answer patterns, time frames and counting systems will be learned. Emphasis will be heavily placed on oral language skills. Reading and writing skills will be gained through assignments.

2.0 Course Requirement

2.1 Class participation:
In order to be able to participate effectively in class, daily attendance is encouraged.

2.2 Doing assignments and reading the text:
All readings and due dates for assignments must be strictly adhered to.

No late assignments will be accepted.

3.0 Evaluation

3.1 There will be one midterm examination that will include oral and written parts.

3.2 Final examination will also include written and oral parts. Written examinations will take place in class, while the orals will be conducted in my office (unless otherwise stated).
4.0 **Grading**

Your final grade in the course will be determined by the total number of points earned in:

4.1 Midterm examination:
   - Oral 15 points
   - Written 15 points

4.2 Final examination:
   - Oral 15 points
   - Written 15 points

4.3 Assignments and Quizzes 20 points

4.4 Attendance & participation 20 points

**TOTAL:** 100 points

5.0 **Letters assigned will have the following numerical values**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>95 - 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-</td>
<td>90 - 94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B+</td>
<td>87 - 89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>83 - 86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B-</td>
<td>80 - 82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C+</td>
<td>77 - 79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>73 - 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-</td>
<td>70 - 72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D+</td>
<td>67 - 69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>63 - 66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>62 - 60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Note:** There will be no make-up examinations, quizzes, or assignments except for very exceptional cases for which documentary evidence will be required.
WEEKLY SCHEDULE

WEEK 1: Somo la 1: General Introduction
A brief History of Kiswahili
Greetings: Singular
Hujambo?
Habari gani?
U hali gani?
Shikamoo?
(ndugu, dada, bibi, bwana, mwalimu, mwanafunzi)
Salamu katika nyakati tofauti (greetings at different times of the day
and periods of time): Habari za asubuhi, mchana, jioni, kutwa, leo, tangu jana, tangu
juzi, siku nyingi.

Quiz & HW # 1

WEEK 2: Somo la 2: Greetings: Plural
Hamjambo wanafunzi
Hatujambo mwalimu
Habari gani?
Nzuri, safi, salama, njema.
Habari za: masomo, nyumbani, kazi n.k.
Mimi - sisi
Wewe - Ninyi/nyinyi
Yeye - Wao

Quiz and HW #2

WEEK 3: Somo la 3:
Salamu kuhusu wengine (Greetings about other people):
Singular: Mama hajambo? Baba hajambo? Ndugu hajambo?
Dada hajambo?
(shangazi, mjomba, nyanya babu)
Plural: Baba na mama (wazazi) hawajambo?
Shangazi na mjomba hawajambo?
Watoto hawajambo?

Quiz # 3

WEEK 4: Somo la 4 & 5: Kumkaribisha mtu (Inviting somebody)
Hodi
Karibu, tafadhali karibu kiti, karibu ukae

**Kujitambulisha:** Jina langu, jina lako, jina lake
(Ninaitwa, unaitwa, anaitwa)

**Kuagana:** Kwaheri, kwaheri ya kuonana, nenda salama, tutaonana kesho, tutaonana baadaye, tutaonana tukijaaliwa, tutaonana Mungu akipenda.

**Quiz & HW #4**

**WEEK 5:** Review and Midterm Examination

**WEEK 6:** **Somo la 6:** Introduce someone else: Huyu ni ___ na Yule ni ___

**Kutoka wapi?** Mimi ninatoka ______ Sisi tunatoka ______
Wewe unatoka ______ Ninyi mnatoka ______
Yeye anatoka ______ Wao wanatoka ______

Kukaa wapi? Barabara gani? Nyumba namba ngapi?

Namba: 1 - 20

Dira: Kaskazini, Kusini, Mashariki, Magharibi

Kusoma nini? Kusoma wapi?, Sema lugha gani?

**Quiz & HW # 5**

**WEEK 7:** **Somo la 7:** Taifa gani? (Nationality)

**Kuzaliwa wapi?**
-ote (all): Sisi sote, Ninyi/nyinyi nyote, Wao wote

Viongozi/Maraisi wa nchi za Afrika ya Mashariki
Fanya kazi wapi? Fanya kazi gani?

**Quiz & HW # 6**

**WEEK 8:** **Somo la 8:** Kukubali na kukataa: Ndiyo na hapana/la
Negation of verbs covered

**Quiz & HW # 7**

**WEEK 9:** **Somo la 9 & 10:**-Njia za usafiri (means of transport)
Kuja na kwenda _____ kwa njia gani?, Penda kufanya nini?, Saa

**Quiz & HW# 8**

**WEEK 10:** Review, Evaluation & Final Examination

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Kiswahili 102 Syllabus

Instructor: ___________  E-mail: ___________
Office: ________________  Tel. ________________
Main Office: ________________  Tel ________________
Title: Elementary Kiswahili I
Credit Hrs: 05
Call #: ________________  Location: ________________
Days: ________________  Time: ________________

1.0 Course Objectives:
The course aims at building on the knowledge gained in the preceeding course (Kiswahili 101) by promoting oral proficiency and reading comprehension in the language. The instructional emphasis will be on language production while writing skills will be gained through homework and quizzes.

2.0 Course Requirement
2.1 Class participation:
In order to be able to participate effectively in class, daily attendance is encouraged. You will lose two points each day you miss class.

2.2 Doing assignments and reading the texts:
All readings and due dates for assignments must be strictly adhered to.

No late assignments will be accepted.

3.0 Evaluation
3.1 There will be one midterm examination that will include oral and written parts.
3.2 Final examination will also include written and oral parts. Written examinations will take place in class, while the orals will be conducted in my office (unless stated otherwise).

4.0 Grading
Your final grade in the course will be determined by the total number of points earned in:

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4.1 Midterm examination: Oral 15 points
    Written 15 points
4.2 Final examination: oral 15 points
    Written 15 points
4.3 Assignments and Quizzes 20 points
4.4 Attendance & participation 20 points
    TOTAL: 100 points

5.0 Letters assigned will have the following numerical values
A = 95 - 100
A- = 90 - 94
B+ = 87 - 89
B = 83 - 86
B- = 80 - 82
C+ = 77 - 79
C = 73 - 76
C- = 70 - 72
D+ = 67 - 69
D = 63 - 66
E = 62 and below

a. Textbooks

Note: There will be no make-up examinations, quizzes, or assignments except for very exceptional cases for which documentary evidence will be required.
WEEKLY SCHEDULE

WEEK 1
- Week 1 - General Introduction
  - Review of Kiswahili 101
  - Time frames
  Quiz #1 & H/W #1

Week 2 - Chapter 11
- Readings and conversational exercises
- Prepositional forms
- Object markers
Quiz #2 & H/W #2

Week 3 - Chapter 12
- Readings and conversational exercises
- Reflexive "Ji"
- Numerals
Quiz #3 & H/W #3

Week 4 - Chapter 13
- Readings and conversational exercises
- Past and future tenses - positive and negative
- Kuwa na = to have - past and future tenses
- kuwa = to be - past and future tenses
Quiz #4 & H/W #4

Week 5 - Review and Midterm Examination

Week 6 - Chapter 14
- Review midterm
- Majina ya makundi (noun classes)
- Locatives
- Readings and conversational exercises
Quiz #5 & H/W #5

Week 7 - Chapter 14
- Viashiria (demonstratives)
- Readings and conversational exercises
Quiz #6 & H/W #6

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Week 8 - Chapter 14
   -- Vimilikishi (Possessives)
   - Article "of"
   - More conversational exercises
   Quiz #7 & H/W #7

Week 9 - Chapter 15
   "me" and "ja" tenses
   - 'mesha' tense
   Quiz #8 & H/W #8

Week 10 - Review, Evaluation Final Examination
Kiswahili 103 Syllabus

Instructor: ___________ E-mail: ______________
Office: ________________ Tel. ________________
Main Office: ____________ Tel________________

Title: Elementary Kiswahili I
Credit Hrs: 05
Call #: ________________ Location: ____________
Days: ____________________ Time: ______________

1.0 Course Objectives:
The course aims at building on the knowledge gained in the proceeding courses (Kisw. 101 and 102) by promoting oral proficiency and listening comprehension in the language. Instructional emphasis will heavily be on oral language production, while reading and writing skills will be gained through assignments and homework.

2.0 Course Requirement
2.1 Class participation:
In order to be able to participate effectively in class, daily attendance is encouraged. You will lose two points each day you miss class.
2.2 Doing assignments and reading the text:
All readings and due dates for assignments must be strictly adhered to. No late assignments will be accepted.

3.0 Evaluation
3.1 There will be one midterm examination that will include oral and written parts.
3.2 Final examination will also include written and oral parts.
Written examinations will take place in class, while the orals will be conducted in my office (unless stated otherwise).

4.0 Grading
Your final grade in the course will be determined by the total number of points earned in:
4.1 Midterm examination: Oral 15 points
Written 15 points
4.2 Final examination: oral 15 points
Written 15 points
4.3 Assignments and Quizzes 20 points
4.4 Attendance & participation 20 points
TOTAL: 100 points
5.0 Letters assigned will have the following numerical values
A  =  95 - 100
A-  =  90 - 94
B+  =  87 - 89
B   =  83 - 86
B-  =  80 - 82
C+  =  77 - 79
C   =  73 - 76
C-  =  70 - 72
D+  =  67 - 69
D   =  63 - 66
E   =  62 - and below

6.0 Textbook

Note: There will be no make-up examinations, quizzes, or assignments except for very exceptional cases for which documentary evidence will be required.

Ratiba ya Kila Wiki
(Weekly Schedule)

Wiki ya Kwanza: Utangulizi kwa Jumla
- Introduction to the course, course outline, and expectations
  - Marudio ya Kiswahili 102

Chemshabongo #1 na kazi ya kufanyia nyumbani #1

Wiki ya Pili: Somo la 16
- Kusoma na mazoezi ya kuzungumza
  - Sifa (Adjectives) jumla
  - Sifa za rangi
  - Sifa za idadi
  - Maswali yenye: -a nani? na -a namna gani au -koje?
  - Chemshabongo #2 na kazi ya kufanyia nyumbani #2

Wiki ya Tatu: Somo la 16
- Kusoma na mazoezi ya kuzungumza
  - Vimilikishi - wingi (possessives plural)
  - Jinsi ya kutendwa (passives)

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- Kiishio -ni (Suffix -ni) K.M. mezani, nyumbani, mfukoni, n.k.
Chemshabongo #3 na kazi ya kufanyia nyumbani #3

Wiki ya Nne: Somo la 17
- Kusoma na mazoezi ya kuzungumza
- Nyakati Me/ja/mesha/ta/li - marudio (Me/ja/mesha/ta/li tenses - review)
- Vikati vya mtendewa- majina mengine ya makundi (More on object markers - other noun classes)
- Viambishi-ngeli - majina mengine ya makundi (Subject prefixes - other noun classes)

- Chemshabongo # 4 na kazi ya kufanyia nyumbani # 4

Wiki ya Tano: Marudio na Mtihani wa Katikati ya Muhula
(Review and Midterm Examination)

Wiki ya Sita: Somo la 18
- Marudio ya mtihani wa katikati ya muhula
- Kusoma na mazoezi ya kuzungumza
- Kujibu maswali yenye viulizi: 'gani?' na 'ngapi?'
- Hali ya hewa, misimu, mavazi, shughuli mbalimbali kutegemea misimu
- Sifa zaidi: -ingine, ingi, chache

- Chemshabongo # 5 na kazi ya kufanyia nyumbani # 5

Wiki ya Saba: Somo la 18
- Kusoma na mazoezi ya kuzungumza
- Wakati wa lika mara "HU-") (habitual tense "HU-")

Chemshabongo # 6 na kazi ya kufanyia nyumbani # 6

Wiki ya Nane: Somo la 19
- Kusoma na mazoezi ya kuzungumza
- Viashiria - hicho na kile (Demonstratives 'that' and 'that over there')
- Maswali yasoyo ya moja kwa moja - Uliza ... kama ... (Indirect questions - ask ... whether ....)

Chemshabongo # 7 na kazi ya kufanyia nyumbani # 7

Wiki ya Tisa: Somo la 20
- Kusoma na mazoezi ya kuzungumza

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- Matumizi ya -ka- kuonyesha mfululizo (au mfuatano) wa vitendo
- Sehemu za mwili
- Kueleza maumivi katika sehemu mbalimbali za mwili.
- Ni lazima (to show an obligation)- positive and negative

Chemshabongo # 8 na kazi ya kufanya nyumbani # 8

Wiki ya Kumi: Marudio, tathmini, na mtihani wa mwisho wa muhula (Review and Evaluation Final Examination)
Kiswahili 104 Syllabus

Instructor: ___________ E-mail: ___________
Office: _______________ Tel. ___________
Main Office: _______________ Tel ___________
Title: Elementary Kiswahili I
Credit Hrs: 05 Office hrs: ___________
Call #: _______________ Location: ___________
Days: ___________ Time: ___________

1.0 Course Objectives:
The course aims at further development of listening, reading, speaking, and writing skills. However, heavier emphasis will be on reading and writing. In order to achieve this goal, there will be short essay writing and reading comprehension exercises from Hinnebusch and Mirza: Kiswahili: Msingi wa Kusoma, Kusema na Kuandika, and periodic handouts. There will also be further exposure to Swahili culture and traditions through reading of current newspapers, short stories, plays, novels and poetry and traditions.

2.0 Course Requirements
2.1 Class participation:
In order to be able to participate effectively in class, daily attendance is encouraged. You will lose two points of your total grade each day you miss class.

2.2 Doing assignments and reading the text:
All readings and due dates for assignments must be strictly adhered to. No late assignments will be accepted.

3.0 Evaluation
3.1 There will be one midterm examination that will include oral and written parts.

3.2 Final examination will also include written and oral parts. Written examinations will take place in class, while the orals will be conducted in my office (unless otherwise stated).
4.0 Grading
Your final grade in the course will be determined by the total number of points earned in:

4.1 Midterm examination: Oral 15 points
          Written 15 points
4.2 Final examination: oral 15 points
          Written 15 points
4.3 Assignments and Quizzes 20 points
4.4 Attendance & participation 20 points
TOTAL: 100 points

5.0 Letters assigned will have the following numerical values
A = 95 - 100
A- = 90 - 94
B+ = 87 - 89
B = 83 - 86
B- = 80 - 82
C+ = 77 - 79
C = 73 - 76
C- = 70 - 72
D+ = 67 - 69
D = 63 - 66
E = 62 - 60


Note: There will be no make-up examinations, quizzes, or assignments except for emergencies (illness, death in family, etc.) cases in which official documentary evidence will be required.

WEEKLY SCHEDULE

Week 1  General introduction
         Course outline
         Review of 103 materials
         Quiz # 1# H/W #1

Week 2  Somo la Ishirini na Moja (chapter. 21)
         Subjectives: aliniambia - nisome
                          - niende
                          - nijifunze

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- ni lazima
- si lazima
* Mjadala (wanafunzi wachague mjadala waujadili
Quiz # 2 & H/W #2

Week 3  Somo la Ishirini na Mbili (Chapter 22).
More on subjectives
- enye (with different noun classes)
- na + mimi = nami etc.
- demonstratives (-le)
Quiz # 3 & H/W #3

Week 4  Somo la Ishirini na Tatu (chapter 23)
Reading comprehension
Desturi za arusi (pp. 158-160)
Ramani- kutoa na kupokea maagizo.
Quiz # 4 & H/W #4

Week 5  Somo la Ishirini na Nne (Chapter 24)
Imperatives (commands and orders) - fungua - fungueni
- funga - fungeni
- leta - leteni
- soma - someni

Review and midterm : Oral - April 29th and 30th 1998
Written - May 1st, 1998

Week 6  -ote = whole (with singular nouns)
= all (with plural nouns)
- o- -ote = any
Composition
Quiz # 5 & H/W #5

Week 7  Somo la Ishirini na Tano (Chapter 25)
Msamiati (vocabulary)
Mazungumzo
Kusoma na kusikiliza hadithi
Arusi huku (Amerika) na Kule (Afrika ya Mashariki)
Kuandika
Quiz #6 & H/W 6

Week 8  Somo la Ishirini na Sita (Chapter 26)
Sarufi: -po ya mahali KM sikuwapo
- po- ya wakati KM Ulipokuja sikuwapo
Kusoma mashairi (Ufahamu)
Msamiati

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Quiz # 7 & H/W #7

Week 9
Somo la Isirini na saba (Chapter 27)
Sarufi: O-rejeshi (na majina ya makundi)
Kusoma
Kuandika
Quiz # 8 & H/W #8

Week 10
Somo la Ishirini na Nane (Chapter 28)
Sarufi: -amba-
Mazungumzo
kusoma (ufahamu) ---- Miji ya Afrika ya Mashariki
-Ki- ya masharti
Msamiati
Course evaluation

Review and final