

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

LANGUAGE USE IN THE HOME DOMAIN IN THE SEKONDI
TAKORADI METROPOLIS: A SOCIOLINGUISTIC STUDY

BY

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of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree
in English Language.

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

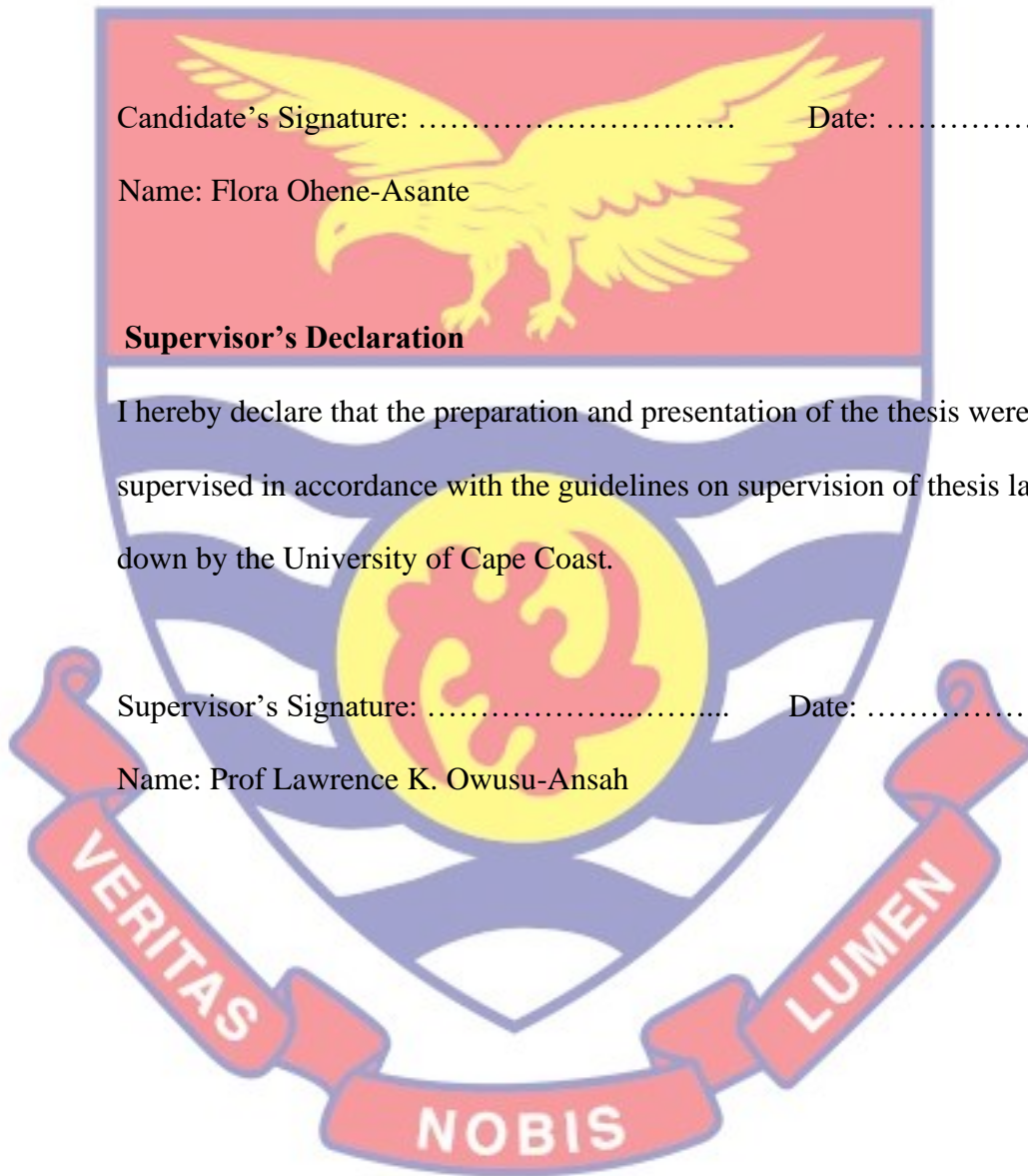
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Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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ABSTRACT

Ghana is a multilingual country with English as its official language. The use of English in Ghanaian homes is backed by anecdotal evidence, but very little is known about the extent to which this happens, and its overall effect on Ghanaian languages. This thesis, therefore, set out to investigate the use of language in the home domain, using Charles Ferguson's (1959) formulation of diglossia as a basis. It adopted the mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) research design, using the cross-sectional survey and descriptive analysis to generalize the research results and draw conclusion on language choice in the home. Data were gathered using the survey questionnaire, an unstructured interview guide and observation. Two hundred and twenty-nine individuals provided responses to the questionnaire and three households were observed for two weeks, during which members were interviewed informally. The study revealed that indigenous languages such as Fante, Twi, Ewe, Frafra, Ga and Hausa as well as the English language are used in the Ghanaian home, with the local languages being more frequently used than the English language. It was also found that the nature of the addressee as well as forms of communication determined code choice in the Ghanaian home. The present study serves as a basis for further research on language use in other domains in Ghana.

KEY WORDS

Code-switching

Diglossia

Ghana

Home domain

Language use

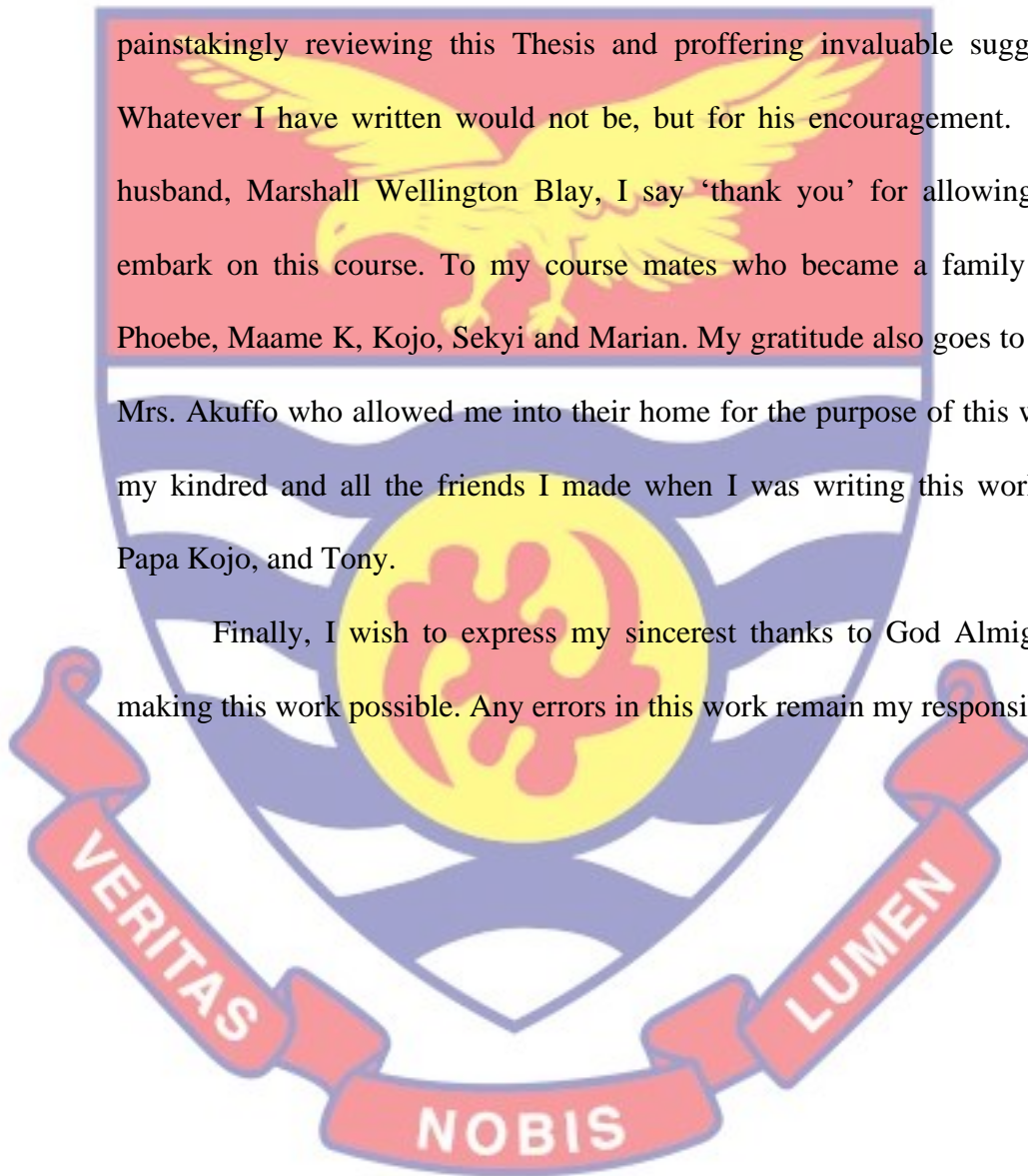
Multilingualism



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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my beloved children, Nana Ama, Papa Amihere,
Egya Sennie and Papa Yeboah.



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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This thesis investigates how language is used at homes. The chapter presents the background to the study, the problem statement, the research questions that guide the work, the study's significance, delimitation and the entire organization.

Background to the Study

Adika (2012) presents that Ghana, as a multilingual society has about 79 indigenous languages, co-existing with English as the official language. The Government of Ghana recognizes and supports nine of these languages: Akan, Dangme, Dagaare, Dagbane, Ewe, Gonja, Kasem, Ga and Nzema. Even among these, Akan is well recognized and has sub-dialects (Asante-Twi and Fante) which are orthographically official (Adika, 2012).

English language remains one of the most widely used and learned languages internationally. For decades, the language continues to be a powerful tool for almost everyone in the world. In Ghana, the English language, which is the official language, is a second language used at all levels of education. Ghana is gradually shifting from the use of our indigenous languages to the English language in the home domain (Anderson, 2006). This brings to bear Ferguson's (1959) work which sought to distinguish paired language varieties that have unique structural and practical relationships.

The English language has become the dominant and official language in Ghana and is used in almost every sphere. Some parents speak with their children in the English language instead of their own tongue. Trudgill (1983)

points out that language is a crucial means of forming relationship with different individuals. This confirms why the English language is used in some Ghanaian homes so that we as Ghanaians can communicate with others who do not speak our languages. Littlejohn (1992) posits that language is the core of nature. Without language, humans cannot communicate effectively.

According to Llamas and Stockwell (2007), factors such as geographical, social, mobility, age identity, relations, gender and power correlate with language variation. The English language has attached prestige and recognition to its speakers, making the language widely used. The English language has claimed recognition not only in Ghana but perhaps the world and continues to rule in the world of politics, education, work, entertainment and even some homes. It, therefore, comes as no surprise when some Ghanaians meet and use the English language regardless of gender, age and status.

Due to political instability in Ghana, the policies on language keep changing. From 1925 to 1951, the language-in-education policy stated that a local language be spoken as a medium of teaching at the very lower levels of education while the English language should be taught as a course. However, English should be the medium of instruction from primary four onwards. From 1956 to 1966, English was the only medium used for teaching. Within the period of 1967 to 1969, some Ghanaian languages were used to teach at the very basic level of the academic ladder. However, between 1970 and 1974, a Ghanaian language was the teaching tool for the first three years in one's academic life. From 1974 to 2000, a local language was used in the first three years of elementary school whilst English was taught as a subject (Owu-Ewie, 2006). In 2002, the Ghana government made English the official language of

tuition from the first year of primary education to the university level (Ansah, 2014). The rapid growth of the English language within the Ghanaian context is affecting some Ghanaian languages.

Due to the use of the English language in every sphere, it continues to gain priority in our homes, schools, offices and society at the expense of our local languages. Research has shown that a child picks a language within his/her immediate environment within the first six years. This means that parents, guardians or caregivers play important roles in the language the child uses in the home domain. Accordingly, Ellis (1985) argues that a learner's first language is a strong predictor in his or her second language acquisition (SLA).

Using two or more languages in a single conversation simultaneously by bilinguals or multilinguals has been popularized given the high mobility of contact between people. Liu (2010) opines that such situations in multilingual contexts makes code switching inevitable. Code switching simply means using two or more languages in a same interaction. Code switching is a neutral term which is exclusive from styles, creoles, pidgins, dialects and languages which are related and carries emotional attachment (Wardhaugh, 2010). Code switching is experienced more frequently in Ghana. The present study investigates language use in Ghana, focusing on the Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis.

Statement of the Problem

Multilingual societies present a fruitful ground for research on language use in specific domains and factors that determine language choice in such domains. In the past few decades, scholars of sociolinguistics interested in language use in multilingual societies have focused their research

predominantly on Asian countries such as Indonesia (Aziz et al., 2017; Gunarwan, 2001), Singapore (Saravanan et al., 1997), Hong Kong (Afendras, 1998), Malaysia (Stapa & Khan, 2016), Taiwan (Yeh, Chan & Cheng, 2004). Such studies have revealed that the choice of languages is contingent on factors such as educational level, addressee, and age (Gunarwan, 2001).

However, it is surprising that Africa has received limited scholarly attention on language use in specific domains, given the multilingual nature of African societies. In Ghana, in particular, research shows that there are about eighty indigenous languages, in addition to English, which is the official language. It will, therefore, be interesting to study how these languages are used in the home domain. It is, however, worrying to realise that previous studies on the linguistic situation of Ghana have largely concentrated on language shift (Bodomo, Anderson & Dzahene-Quarshie, 2009), with a few focusing on language use at home (Afrifa, Anderson & Ansah, 2019; Ahadzi, Ameka & Essegbey, 2015) and in other specific domains (Dzahene-Quarshie & Marjie, 2020). Even with Ahadzi, Ameka and Essegbey (2015), they focused on how language use at home affects students written English argumentative discourse and Dzahene-Quarshie and Marjie (2020) also focused on language use among East African migrant students in specific domains in Ghana. This shows that regardless of these studies, there is still a research gap on language use and factors that determine language choice in Ghanaian homes. In view of this, the present study investigates language use in the Ghanaian home, with particular focus on Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis.

Research Questions

This study purports to find out why some Ghanaian families use the English language at home instead of local Ghanaian languages. The study seeks to examine the following questions:

1. What language or languages are used in Ghanaian homes?
2. What factors predispose speakers to a particular language choice (over the other) in the homes?

Significance of the Study

This study focuses on exploring language use in the home. It has become necessary to undertake this research due to the inability of some Ghanaian children to communicate and reason in the local languages. Children should not only be able to speak the English language well but they should also speak and write well in the L1. Again, some Ghanaians prefer English language to the local languages, the reason being that they see it as prestigious. It is perceived that we know that some Ghanaian parents communicate via the English language in the home domain but we lack the knowledge of who, whom, when and how we use the English language.

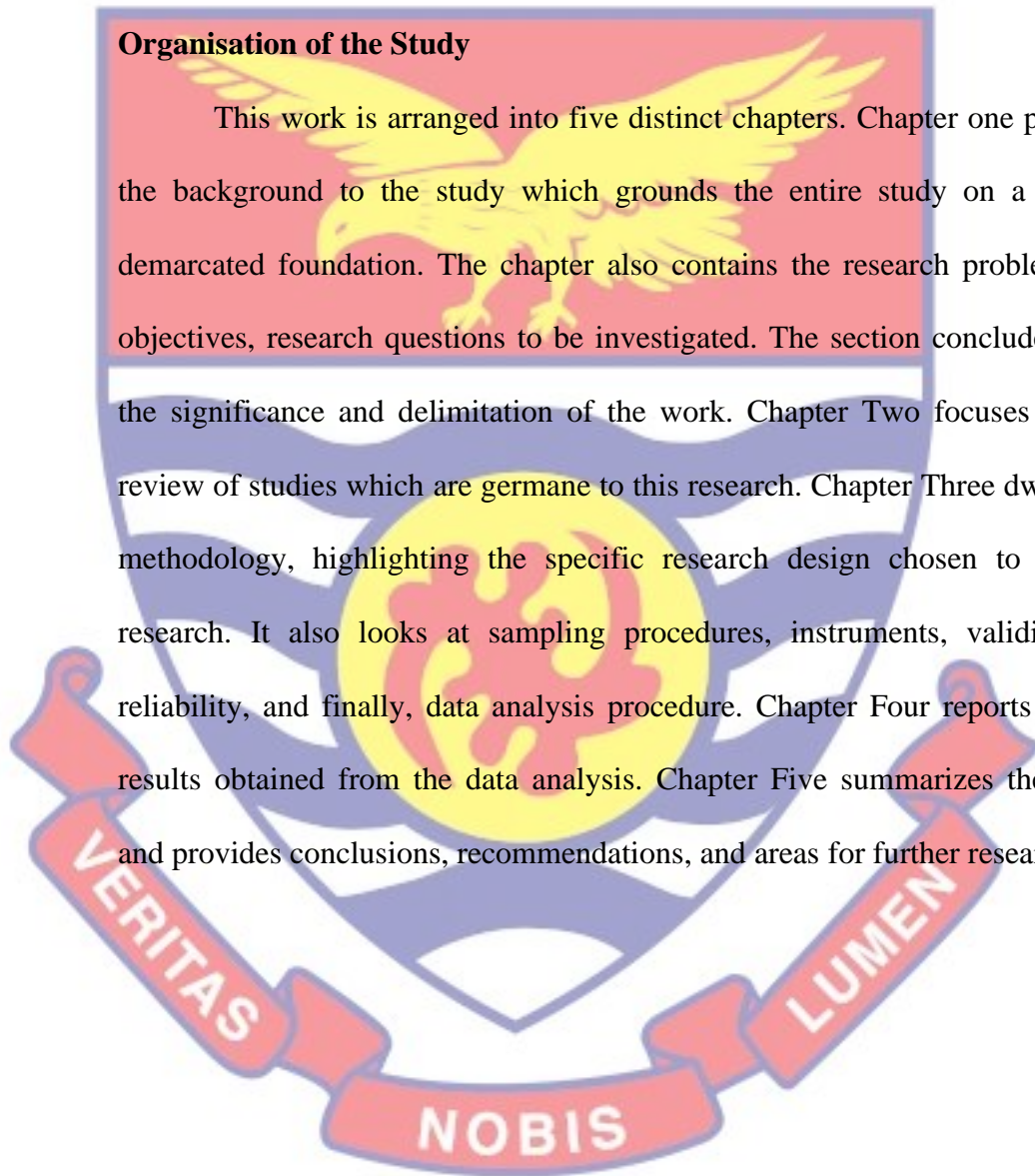
This study recommends family language policy which is backed by local language use led by parents in the home. Secondly, a positive outcome of this research will possibly lead to the avoidance of language loss and shift among Ghanaian children due to the growing influence of English in our lives. Again, results from this research will profit parents, guardians as well as language teachers and policy makers.

Delimitation of the Study

For the purpose of this research work, with reference to the concept of diglossia by Fishman (1972), the work is limited to homes where the language spoken varies from the local Ghanaian languages; that is, homes where the English language is used as a means of communication.

Organisation of the Study

This work is arranged into five distinct chapters. Chapter one presents the background to the study which grounds the entire study on a clearly demarcated foundation. The chapter also contains the research problem and objectives, research questions to be investigated. The section concludes with the significance and delimitation of the work. Chapter Two focuses on the review of studies which are germane to this research. Chapter Three dwells on methodology, highlighting the specific research design chosen to do the research. It also looks at sampling procedures, instruments, validity and reliability, and finally, data analysis procedure. Chapter Four reports on the results obtained from the data analysis. Chapter Five summarizes the study and provides conclusions, recommendations, and areas for further research.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter of the work discusses theories that underpin the study, the main concepts and the empirical review linking the main variables of the study. The Theory of Diglossia will be explored here.

Theory of Diglossia

To understand the use of language, the theory of diglossia is important as it assists in making sense of language choice. Diglossia was first propounded by Charles Ferguson. According to Ferguson (1959), diglossia implies relatively stable linguistic conditions whereby the primary dialect of a language may contain a divergent and highly codified variety, the carrier of a large number of respected written literature, whether it is early or other language communities, mainly learned through formal education, used for most written and formal purposes, but not used by any part of the field ordinary speech community. He recognizes four typical diglossic situations:

The co-existence of 'L' in Arabic dialect and literary 'H' in Arabic-speaking contexts;

The change of Katharevousa (H) and Dhimotiki (L) in Greek contexts;

The change of standardised French (H) and Haitian Creole (L) in Haiti; and

In Switzerland, the changing of standardised German (H) and Swiss German (L).

However, some scholarly works (e.g., Ennaji, 2002; Hudson, 2002) highlighted that functionally dividing languages or distancing them does not suffice to be an attribute of diglossic situations. Fishman (1967) later revised

and expanded Ferguson's (1959) original definition of diglossia. First, he stretched the phenomenon across conditions of several linguistic varieties. He further asserted, "diglossia exists not only in multilingual societies which officially recognize several 'languages', or societies that utilize vernacular and classical varieties, but also in societies which employ separate dialects, registers, or functionally differentiated language varieties of whatever kind" (Fishman, 1972, pp. 91-100). Likewise, he examined the correlation between individual bilingualism and diglossia and concluded with a typology of bilingualism/diglossia combinations:

- i. *diglossia and bilingualism*: when majority of the people in a speech community knows H and L, and the distribution of these varieties are typical of diglossia;
- ii. *bilingualism without diglossia*: when there are no differences between varieties of languages but there are several bilinguals in a community;
- iii. *diglossia without bilingualism*: a linguistic situation where two different groups with a society, where the ruling group speaks language H and the larger group usually speak language L only;
- iv. *Neither bilingualism nor diglossia*: a putative case where a small linguistically remote group lacks any sort of functional differentiation or societal bilingualism.

It is important though to highlight the fact that diglossia with bilingualism is the only stable combination out of the four typologies (Fishman, 1967).

Fasold (1984) stretched Fishman's ideas even wider. First, he explained the relationship between diglossia and standard vs. dialect variation by arguing the possibility of having several diglossic communities sharing the

same language. He also made an effort to settle controversies around binary relation in Fishman's and Ferguson's definitions by explaining multi-language disparity with the presence of binary *double overlapping* and *double-nested* diglossias. As well, Fasold attempted resolving the problem associated with how languages participating in diglossia are related. After scrutinizing a number of multilingual linguistic communities, he determined that people generally tend to reflect their intimate or formal views of a situation in their speeches. This can be achieved through a stylistic change in the same language, switching between two moderately different "dialects", or by choosing a completely different language. The social phenomenon is the same regardless of the nature of the language used to achieve it (Fasold, 1984, p. 52).

Based on his numerous examinations, Fasold (1984) proposes a definition of '*broad diglossia*':

Broad diglossia is the reservation of highly valued segments of a community's linguistic repertoire (which are not the first to be learned, but are learned later and more consciously, usually through formal education), for situations perceived as more formal and guarded; and the reservation of less highly valued segments (which are learned first with little or no conscious effort), of any degree of linguistic relatedness to the higher valued segments, from stylistic differences to separate languages, for situations perceived as more informal and intimate (p. 53).

Fasold (1984) places the classic definition of diglossia in his conceptual framework by identifying three types of broad diglossia:

- i. *classic diglossia*, which exists in divergent dialects;
- ii. *superposed bilingualism*, which refers to functional demarcation of separate languages;
- iii. *style shifting*, which occurs as stylistic differences between varieties.

There is no unanimity among scholars on what really constitutes diglossia as definitions from Ferguson, Fishman and others are inadequate in capturing a comprehensive picture of all linguistic situations which exist. Nonetheless, Helmer (2010) explains, “this result is not surprising if you consider the fact that diglossia is intimately linked to subtle perceptions such as attitudes, behaviors and political events” (p. 13). This situation reflects the diversity and complexities of the nature of language use.

According to Ferguson (1972), nine features characterize the description of diglossia: stability, functions, prestige, literary heritages, acquisitions, standardizations, grammar, phonology and lexicons. Ferguson’s (1959) sought establish the link between two languages of the same linguistic origin which birthed his conceptualization of the term diglossia. Accordingly, he aimed at demonstrating the prestigiousness and complexity of language H over language L when analyzing grammar, phonology and lexicon.

However, Myers-Scotton (2006, p. 86) stresses the fact that although extended diglossia which manifests in some speech communities are quite different from those showing classic diglossia, “they are not different in the consequences for a society for viewing one or more varieties as H and one or more as L.” Such communities use more than one language on their lists of languages for separate communicative functions. The main difference between classic and extended diglossia is the level of stability of the attribution roles of

the H and L variants. Myers-Scotton observed that, unlike the conditions of the relatively stable classic diglossia, it is difficult to maintain stability under the extended diglossia. Myers-Scotton argued that to ensure the stability of the extended diglossia, speakers who use H as a second language “have to maintain their *own L1 as the L variety alongside the L2* that they also know and to value mainly the H variety for status-raising [original emphasis]” (2006, p. 86).

Ghana as a multilingual country represents an instance of diglossia. The English language is widely used in Ghana. It is extensively used in virtually all facets of daily life and within several professions. As well, it is an important requirement in the Ghanaian educational space. This study focused on describing and explaining the diglossic situation of the English Language spoken in a non-native speaking environment in Ghana. While the L language is normally used in casual contexts, H language is used for official purposes. In Ghana, English has many H functions, but also some L functions. However, the indigenous languages are variants of L language. Conversely, the L function of the English language, which is used in most formal situations in Ghana, includes its use as a lingua franca for inter-ethnic communication. It as well serves as the main communication means for all formal interactions in corporate settings.

Conceptual Background

Having presented the theory used for the study, it is important to present a review on key concepts underpinning the study. These concepts include domain, and language attitude and choice.

Domain

Any discussion of diglossic and multilingual situations remains incomplete unless it tackles domain as crucial concept. Trudgill (1974) reveals the distribution of domain in the social realm, based on the specialization of functions between varieties of a language. For the distribution of domain, Trudgill believes that the H variety is officially deployed, for example, used as a language in popular media such as TV broadcast and newspaper editorial, academic purpose, or for political purposes. However, the L varieties are designated for use among family and friends. It was activated in political cartoons and used for folklore purposes. Each code is reserved for a specific field, or what is traditionally referred to as a 'domain' in the sociolinguistic scholarship.

According to Fishman (1972), domain remains:

a sociocultural construct abstracted from topics of communication, relationships between communicators, and locales of communication, in accord with the institutions of a society and the spheres of activity of a culture, in such a way that individual behavior and social patterns can be distinguished from each other and yet related to each other (p. 94).

Fishman (1972) argues that the language-domain is not a random linguistic option imposed by "momentary inclination" (p. 89), but the 'proper' use of language governed by societal rules which legalize one of the languages to be used in an interaction between individuals.

The idea of domain stretches beyond diglossic language situations; it is germane to multilingual settings as well. Domains include the family, school, streets, courts, churches, government administrations, military operations and

playgrounds. Multilingual situations are mostly wrought with contentions among the different languages; this often creates a competition between the languages by reason of maintaining and serving a particular domain (Fishman, 1972).

Edward (1982) presents that when a language is coerced to abandon or withdraw from a specific domain of use, if not impossible, the re-existence of the language in that domain becomes a problem. Likewise, Fishman (2000) reminds us that many languages have withdrawn from their past domains due to competition from new relocation codes (Lieberson & McCabe, 1982) and their restrictions on home domains. He asserted that the home domain plays a vital role in maintaining and protecting the evacuation language facing withdrawing from other domains. Although there is no guarantee that the local language will be used consistently in the home domain (Choi, 2003; Rubin, 1968), it is considered the only domain where a large number of minority languages still exist (Kouega, 2008). The multilingual speech community not only shares similar knowledge of usage patterns in the language domain, but members of the community display this fact notwithstanding the environment or linguistic experience have own (Myers-Scotten, 1982). The present study focuses on the use of language in the home domain.

Language Attitudes and Choice

Garrett (2010) contends that explaining the notion of attitude is quite complex, given the extent of the term and the significance of the diverse facets of attitudes. This notwithstanding, attitudes have been defined as encompassing three core components: cognitive, affective and behavioural (Garrett, 2010). The first denotes the influence of attitudes on an individual's

assessments of the world and specific incidents; the second comprises emotions concerning attitude while the third is about the interlocking of attitudes in behaviour (Garrett, 2010).

There is a common unanimity in the literature that acquiring and speaking a language is easier for persons with a positive attitude to the language and its original speakers (Garrett, 2010; Karahan, 2007; Zhang & Slaughter-Defoe, 2009). Accordingly, language attitudes also help predict people's reactions to the choice of language (Garrett, 2010). Baker (1992) recommends that in the life of a language, attitudes towards that language is vital in that they enable restoration, preservation, decay or death of that particular language. Holmes (2001) also discovered that positive attitudes inspired the speakers of the lesser language to use their language in various domains and this was useful to challenge slow shift to the conventional language. It can be hard, therefore, to preserve a language if there are negative attitudes towards it in a community.

Conversely, some scholars, such as Fishman (1967), have contended that language attitudes do not always foretell language maintenance or shift, as attitudes need to be connected to the language's position as a central worth in a particular community, or associated to other values, such as religious beliefs. Core values refer to the elements perceived as the most critical and important in establishing a group's identity and culture. In addition, Slavik (2001) pointed to the importance of the influential value of the language in maintaining that language.

Discussions on attitudes in the sociolinguistic literature have been usually associated with two types of prestige (overt and covert), as two kinds

of attitudes motivating linguistic classification and language use. Trudgill (1983) demonstrates how the non-standard speech variable encompasses elements of covert prestige to which upper and middle working class attach themselves. Toughness has been identified as a feature of covert prestige given that in-group loyalty consists of values that are hidden and shared among males of an upper of middle class (Edwards, 1982).

Baker (1992) describes that a respondent may change their attitude to make them look more popular with the audience in an interview and answering a questionnaire. In addition, the respondent may be influenced by the researcher and research goals. Therefore, the difference between reporting attitude and observation attitude should always be considered. There are three common methods for studying attitudes: social treatment research, direct measurement and indirect measurement (Garrett, 2010). Although the first two techniques use multiple methods to investigate attitudes towards language, the indirect method mainly relies on matching camouflage methods. In addition, the frequency of use of these three technologies is also different.

Social treatment research involves drawing conclusions about a participant's attitudes from policy documents, a media script, advertisement, and other reliable sources. The direct measure includes directly asking participants questions about their language attitudes. This method is also called evaluating preferences (Garrett, 2010). Questionnaires, interview guides and other surveys are usually used. The indirect method is done by provoking the language attitudes of using indirect questions (Garrett, 2010).

Empirical Review

The primary language, studied in the home, is particularly significant and serves as a basis for all future language development (Clarke, 2000). Clarke (2000) mentions that, “Children who develop proficiency in using their native language to communicate, to gain information, to solve problems, and to think can easily learn to use a second language in similar ways” (p. 183). If a child does not grow up with the influence of two languages from birth, and, instead, begins developing in one language and a new language is added after about age three, their foreign language learning is grounded in the functional knowledge they have already acquired in their L1 (Nemeth & Simon, 2013). This process, referred to as ‘additive bilingualism’ by Cummins (2001), allows learners to improve both eloquence and expertise in a foreign language while enduring to grow aptitude in the first. Additive bilingualism involves accumulation of a second language, not swapping the local language with the new language. Clarke (2000) explains, “For these children, then, second-language acquisition is not a process of discovering what language is, but rather of discovering what *this* language is” (p. 183).

López and Greenfield (2004) recently attempted to close the gap in ages studied previously by researching the inter-language relationships among 100 English-learning, native Spanish speaking, children attending a Head Start facility. Results corroborated the other studies, leaving López and Greenfield (2004) to suggest, “...strengthening the language and metalinguistic skills of these children in their first language as a tool for later acquiring the English language literacy skills.” (p. 1). It is not just the level of first language development that influences new language acquisition. However, contrary to

native language attainment, there appears to be several variant factors among individuals that impact the length of time and how rapidly multilingual learners develop their language skills. Clarke (2000), quoting McLaughlin (1984, p. 73), remarks “Ultimate retention of two languages depends on a large number of factors, such as the prestige of the languages, cultural pressures, motivation, [and] opportunities of use ...” (p. 183).

There have been several studies which indicate that multilingual children frequently possess language skills that are stronger in some areas than others (de Houwer, 2007; Pearson, 2008). It is falsely conceived that children are liable to be bilinguals because they are in such contexts, while no special support for such situation is required (Duursma, Romero-Contreras, Szuber, Proctor, and Snow, 2007). Duursma et al. (2007) further describe that in Pearson’s (2002) research,

She found that, for bilingual children, a 30/70% split in language exposure was sufficient to support conversational proficiency in both languages, but that the amount of exposure to a particular language was related to vocabulary growth in that specific language (p. 172).

The asymmetry that has been observed in additive bilingual learners has been studied by de Houwer (2007) who extensively researched caregiver-child language usage in multilingual families. De Houwer found that only a small portion of children, who grew up in families where bilingual socialization occurred, attained a native-like proficiency level in both languages whereas the majority of participants achieved a 75% success rate in the two languages. Clarke (2000) maintains “children will only continue to use two languages if doing so is perceived to be valuable. As children go through school, they

usually lose much of their ability in their native language” (p. 183). This may lead young children to experience ‘subtractive bilingualism’ (Cummins, 2001). Clarke (2000) points out that children’s attitudes towards second languages and people who speak the second language, and their attitudes towards the first language. These attitudes are important for a child’s success in learning a second language and preserving his or her language.

Observational studies present that babies who receive the most language input also receive the most authentic language input for language learning (Hart & Risley, 1995). For example, children with high socio-economic status (SES) are more often involved in family literacy activity (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002). Such activities include reading a shared book and other related parent-child conversation. These activities are categorized through the use of rich vocabulary, multi-faceted and information-intensive sentences, and semantically related discourse, that is, the kind of language that is generally believed to stimulate language development (Deckner, Adamson, & Beckman, 2006).

Besides, there exists a strong relationship between SES and the manifestation of extra bases of language development, such as viewing educational television programs and listening and singing songs (Schön, 1987). Some parents involve their children in several activities that builds the language skills. Given that these activities are not frequent in low SES families, children’s vocabulary in such families develop slower (Hoff, 2006). This has been the situation of children from low socio-economic background. Nonetheless, the the language input the children engage in differs when they come from a bilingual context.

Recently, some studies reveal that children from bilingual contexts engage in storytelling, conversation, joint book readings, and watching educational TV programmes which influences their vocabulary, comprehension and language use in such interactions. Furthermore, the studies agree that the proficiency of bilingual children relates to the amount of input for that language. This means that bilingual children's proficiency in each language is strongly related to the amount of input they engage with in that language. Thus, when children receive greater input in a particular language, they perform better writing, reading and vocabulary building of that that language (de Houwer, 2007; Duursma et al., 2007).

Studies on the monolingual environment found that children have a vocabulary of approximately 3,000 words when they go to school, and almost completely master the basic syntax (Brown, 1973; Chomsky, 1976). Babies learn to distinguish the sounds of language during early childhood development and learning at 6 months. In kindergarten, most children develop complex language systems. They go from identifying related sounds to expressing simple meanings in two-word utterances, to expressing abstract and complex ideas in multi-word sentences. The language is mainly learned through communication with older caregivers, who provide the one and two-words utterances to children's languages that are close to those of adults. In many families, children's language development at home is more abundant than at school. Children just talk to adults more frequently at home.

Some parents are aware that a song or story that is sang or told to a child lays a foundation for their language learning. A student who comes from a home where there is frequent interaction between adults and children see

such children being effective in learning. Such students demonstrate higher cognition, social, emotional and linguistic development. This follows their engagement with adults responsively, frequently and affectionately. This idea also applies to children who come from literacy-rich homes. A child's thought and language are facilitated in homes that are literate and demonstrate good orality. In these contexts, the child learns to be appreciative of the context since it forms the basis for his or her academic performance. A child who develops at a slower pace in language skills experiences learning difficulties. This alludes to the fact that when language skills are developed at an early stage, they affect the structure of the brain (Greenspan & Wieder, 1997).

Parents model the learning process of their children's communication (Lee & Smagorinsky, 2000). Snow (1972) reveals that a child, when grown, uses different linguistic resources as compared to the one their parent used when he or she was an infant. Parents tones when using a language expose a child to the language that correlates to his or her developing language skills. A child understands the language used by a parent and begins to practice in a similar manner using simplified speech. Snow (1972) hints that a parent changes their language to suit the development of their child.

Hoff (2006) defines a child-directed speech as language used by a caretaker when with children. He adds that using lengthier sounds and intricate words are characteristics of such speech. A parent's engagement in keeping the prestige of a language is very crucial. Brown (2011) reveals that a parent's involvement in the speech process is relevant than schools and cautioning children about importance of heritage languages. As well, the study advises that for immigrant parents to maintain their heritage language, they should

shun any interaction in the English language. Nonetheless, a parent can switch to English because of the lack of linguistic resources in the heritage language of a child. Moreover, the impractical use of a heritage language by children makes their immigrant parents convert to English. Supporting this theory, Brown (2011) provides that a parent expresses a desire for a child to acquire

and uphold a heritage language. On the other hand, students who were interviewed in Brown's (2011) study confirmed that parents do not practice such beliefs. Despite a parent's effort to maintain a child's heritage language, Hashimoto and Lee (2011) reveal that the lack of educational and social support curtails attaining this goal.

Moreover, Rohani, Choi, Amjad, Burnett, and Colahan (2006) accentuated that "parents, both consciously and unconsciously, create an environment that will either nurture or impair language acquisition" (p. 3). Accordingly, Hashimoto and Lee (2011) contest that the manner in which heritage language is marketed by parents plays a core role in encouraging the children. According to these scholars, "all the children were much more willing to interact with Japanese literacy when they were introduced to a greater variety of recreational Japanese texts, such as storybooks, manga, cartoon character cards, Game Boys, Game Boy strategy guides, and karuta" (p. 172).

Pearson (2002) defines five vital factors which habitually predict whether or not children become bilingual. These are: "input, language status, access to literacy, family language use, and community support" (Pearson, 2002, p. 400). The local language of a child is affected by the attitude, value and social situation (Pearson, 2002). Several factors affect the development of

language in children in bilingual contexts. There is a difference between children who learn two or more languages and those who learn a language. The simple reason is that a child who learns two or more languages earlier in their lives experience varied language environments, interacts in styles which challenge him or her to use varied means, and are sensitive to dissimilar cultural worlds.

Evidence from the literature emphasizes the essence of home language to children's success in learning a second language (Cummins, 2001; Pearson, 2002). Cummins (2001) states "Children who come to school with a solid foundation in their mother tongue develop stronger literacy abilities in their school language" (p. 17). Thomas and Collier (2002) discovered that the most significant predictor of second language attainment is the amount of formal home language support children receive. A child educated in a bilingual course is likely to surpass another from a monolingual context when placed in a seven-year dual language programme. Children who were educated in bilingual courses often outclassed their monolingual counterparts in academic feat after a projected four to seven years in dual language programs. Likewise, Thomas and Collier (2002) realize that a child from a minority home language, mainstreamed into second language learning with little or no support performs poorly and quits schools in later years.

There is usually a connection drawn between the role parents play in children's bilingual language development and their role as home language facilitators (Cummins, 2001; De Houwer, 2007). Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal (2001) saw that extraordinary quality interaction, adults recast, (a form of correcting language blunders by correctly resaying the proper utterance to the

child) and concentrated language input in the home language by the parent are all instrumental in the degree of home language spoken by a child.

Pearson (2002) developed the input-proficiency-use cycle to illustrate how a home language is used and input. The cycles reflect the relevant impact of parents and the speech community in preserving and modelling the home language. She contends that linguistic input is a primary requirement to be provided by the community and specifically parents. For her, enough input automatically leads to learning. She also hypothesizes that when a child uses a language heard, he or she calls for more input; therefore, the cycle becomes profitable: “A greater amount of input leads to greater proficiency, which leads to more use, which invites more input and the cycle starts again.”

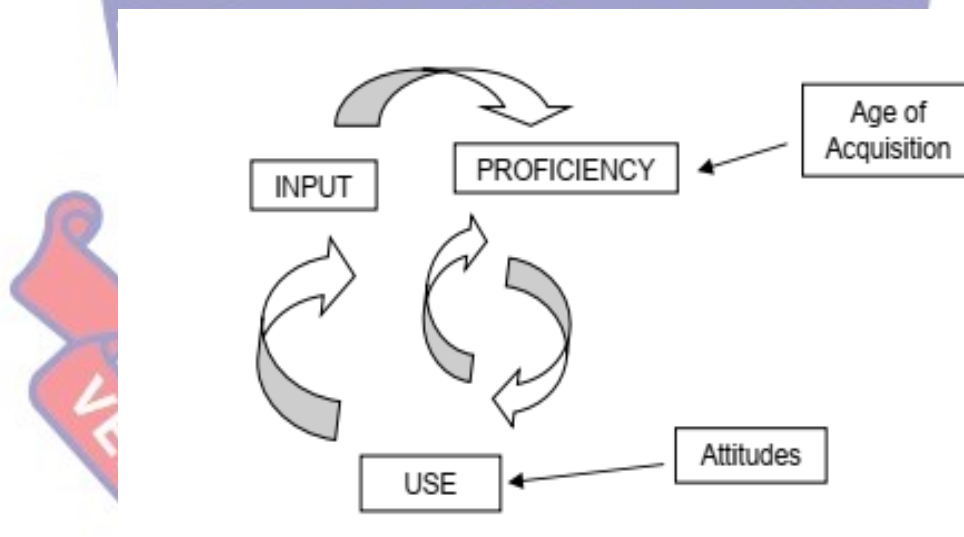


Figure 1: The input-proficiency-use cycle (Pearson, 2002, p. 401)

There are several ways to teach language to individuals who are deaf or find it hard to hear. Generally, language must be taught through some style of communication. As well, improved language exposure is meaningfully correlated with vocabulary, language, and cognitive development (Hart & Risley, 1995). Consequently, the language exchanges between parents and

children can be regarded as a succession of language instructions in which parents exemplify the method of language while presenting vocabulary and informational content. From such language lessons, young children start to decode language syntax and semantics.

In Hart and Risley's (1995) longitudinal study, they present that a child from a wealthy home hears nearly four times the number of words within three years than a child from a poor background. While impoverished children may hear fewer words, their variety of vocabulary is small as well. Hart and Risley resolve that the quantity and variety of expression used by parents with their child influences the child's development in language.

When parents are involved in their ward's tutoring, they increase their odds of chalking higher achievements in school. According to Keane (2013, p. 1), "Parental involvements improve the chances of children's success at school, yet research suggests that parent's participation may be on the decline". Keane affirmed that students' achievements embody more than just grades. A current report from the NSPRA reveals that parents' involvement in teaching a child results to better attendance, improved academic performance and better behaviours.

Hoff (2006) also inspected the quantity of language used by parents with their children. Similar to Hart and Risley's (1985) work, he explores how SES is related to a parent's language quantity. He observed sixty-six (66) dialogues between parents and their children through recorded conversations over ten weeks. He confirmed a correlation between SES, child-directed speech and quantity of language from parents. While wealthy parents produced much speech, lengthier utterance, and better varieties, parents from

impoverished background demonstrated less of these. A child uses complex lexicons and speech patterns in their utterances as a result of their parents longer expressions in interactions. Again, Hoff (2006) determined that the amount and varieties in a parent's utterance impacts their child's repository of vocabulary. A child uses artistic vocabulary because of the sophistication of their parents' longer utterances as compared to a child whose parent uses shorter expressions. Hoff (2006) further grounded that a child's knowledge in syntax or grammar is likely affected by the great amount of a parent's linguistic quantity and varieties. These findings were hinged on two conversations that were recorded.

Repetition and paraphrasing have been associated with greater word learning, as well as progressive language processing (Snow, 1972). Repetitions and paraphrases guide a child to understand the language of a parent (Snow, 1972). Also, a parent who uses redundant language constantly must allow the child enough time to process it. In this regard, when children paraphrase, they can understand the operations of the linguistic units and retain a complete meaning (Brodosky, Waterfall & Shimon, 2007).

The linguistic encounter permits a child to understand the structure of language, its uses, and meaning. Siegel (1993) shows that the language skills of a child increases through the specific context of the child-directed speech. The speeches from the parents comprise discussing the historic and future aspects of the language to encourage the child reflect on a tentative notion and event. A parent who generalizes an utterance provokes a child to think and discuss any abstract thing.

Siegel (1993, p.142) defines the generalization of the speech as “distancing” a behaviour or event which detaches children mentally from an immediate context of interaction. The behaviour is that which children need to react in relation to future, past or abstract language. In the generalisation of speech, a child must perceive an event that is above the one which is noticeable. A parent who includes distance in a conversation with a child helps the child retain sophisticated language skills and better literacy skills (Sorsby & Martlew, 1991). This means that how a parent combines a generalised speech with their child in communication at home promises to have permanent effect of their language and literacy skills, leading to improved academic performance.

Research has indicated that grandparents have an influential role in children’s language use. Since grandparents often have little or no L2 knowledge, children are provided with significant exposure to the L1. Furthermore, children must use their L1 to communicate with them. In fact, the presence of grandparents in the household has been shown to be related to L1 use by their grandchildren. Ishizawa (2004) found that children who lived in third generation homes tend to use their L1 as compared to those staying in second - generation households, based on data from the 2000 US Census Supplementary Survey. Using language samples from diaries of adolescents aged between 12 to 15 years, Lawson and Sachdev (2004) found that adolescents most commonly reported using L1 (Bengali) with family members, particularly older family members. Kondo (1998) conducted a qualitative study of the patterns of language use with different language contacts in Japanese-American students enrolled in university level Japanese

courses in Hawaii. Many respondents recalled their use of Japanese with their grandparents during their childhood. For example, one respondent reflected on using L1 solely with his grandma during his elementary years: “I didn’t speak Japanese at home except the times when I had to speak to grandma. I said only what I knew...simple words or sentences, like I’m hungry”. Another responded noted “I remember when I was in kindergarten, I was always with grandma and so I spoke Japanese a lot.” Use of L1 with other elder relatives has also been associated with proficiency in L1 among child L1’s (Raschka, Wei & Lee, 2002).

Siblings are also important interlocutors to consider within the family. Several studies have found that infants are inclined to speak significantly, L1 with their parents in comparison to their siblings or peers (Nguyen, Shin, & Krashen, 2001). Stevens and Ishizawa (2007) found that younger children were less likely to speak L1 at home as they grew older and are exposed to English outside the home compared with their elder siblings. In general, siblings tend to quickly adopt the majority language as the dominant language used between them. Nguyen, Shin and Krashen (2001) explored the language use of grade 1 to 8 Vietnamese L1 students in California and found that despite speaking a significant amount of L1 with their parents, only 15% use solely Vietnamese with their siblings. Similarly, in a survey of Vietnamese-American parents staying in California, respondents recounted how their infants speak only English among themselves (Young & Tran, 1999).

In a qualitative study involving young L1 learners (ages 6 to 10) in England, children reported using L1 with siblings at home, even when parents were unable to understand English (Pagett, 2006). Pease-Alvarez followed

Mexican-American children in a high Mexican L1 area longitudinally and found that siblings shifted from using more Spanish than English to more English than Spanish over time. Among Bangladeshi-British children, older siblings were found to use L1 and L2 in interactions or via book-sharing with younger siblings. This sharing of knowledge acquired at school and/or

L1 classes may facilitate L1's bilingual language and literacy development. L1 learners language use with cousins has been less studied. However, one study's analysis of the language diaries of adolescent L1 learners in the UK showed that English remained the dominant communicative tool when interacting with younger family members (Lawson & Sachdev, 2004).

As Kuo (1974) noted, family is "influential in language socialization, but not dominant" (p. 191). As the children grow older, exposure to language influences from outside of the home increases. For second-generation immigrants, contact with L2 speakers is typically high within the community. Additionally, children's social and educational activities in the community tend to take place in English.

When children reach school age, they are quickly made to learn the majority language. When in school, children with several linguistic and cultural backgrounds share same classroom. As described by Fillmore (2000), they soon identify their deficiency of majority language skills as a hindrance to social success and the formation of friendships. Clarke (2000) identified that children's desire to fit in with their English-speaking peers may experience "a stage where they are reluctant to speak the home language" (p. 29). As children make friends with non-L1 speaking peers, their use of L1 declines since interactions take place in the language they have in common

with their peers. English becomes the dominant language among friends. Use of English all or most of the time was observed even with other children with the same L1 (Kuo, 1974).

Based on data from the all-encompassing Language and Literacy in Bilingual children project, Oller et al. (2010) found that children's use and preference for L2 was influenced by peers in school. They concluded that "language preference can shift quickly, very early in life, apparently under the influence of schooling, and especially under the influence of peers in school" (Oller, et al., 2010, p. 95). Furthermore, association of peer language and L1 learners' speaking of L1 or L2 was demonstrated in Jia and Aaronson's (2003) longitudinal study of Chinese-speaking infants and adolescents that immigrated to New York City area between ages five and sixteen. Using different methods (comprising language testing, questionnaires, interviews with parents and children, observation at home and social settings), researchers found that younger participants (who arrived in the US before age 9) had more L2-speaking pals and small numbers of L1-speaking friends. This was in direct contrast to immigrant children who arrived after age 9, who teamed up and so had consistently high numbers of L1-speaking friends and low numbers of L2-speaking friends. To a large extent, children in the younger group spoke English with their friends, and were motivated to speak English fluently to avoid feeling different from their friends. Individuals are motivated to learn the language of the groups in which they want membership. The above findings suggest friendship choices as a provider of opportunities for L2 practice and input.

According to Luo and Wiseman (2000), when children from immigrant families grow up, the "search for extra-familial confirmation from peers is inevitable" (p. 319). It was noted that over time, with greater exposure to situational demands in the school and community, adolescents showed more inclination to use the majority language in their interactions. Raschka, Wei and Lee (2002) examined forms of L1 use within social networks among Chinese folks (34 children and their families) in Tyneside England. Standing on the study's findings, they asserted that the pressure to conform to the majority language is an influential factor in L1 maintenance. For children from immigrant families, there is the tendency to change to the language spoken by majority as "the preferred medium" (p. 23) within peer networks.

Similarly, Dewaele and Furnham's (2000) case study of a young girl learning French and Dutch in the home, and English in a multiethnic area in London found that by 5 years of age, she did not want French to be spoken by her father at school in the presence of her mates, preferring him to use English or whisper in French (Dewaele & Furnham 2000). Opportunities to use the L1 outside the home with friends or other L1 speakers have been associated with L1 maintenance. Friendships formed with children that share the same L1 can strengthen L1 maintenance (Luo & Wiseman, 2000; Oketani, 1997). Oketani (1997) found that in her sample of 42 second-generation Japanese Canadian adolescents and young adults (mean age of 20 years) in Toronto, the quality, proportion, frequency and stability of contact with friends who speak L1 was correlated positively with L1 language skills demonstrated on an oral proficiency test for bilingual students. Having friends who speak L1 also related to L1 literacy skills.

Tonami (2005) also identified interaction with L1 speakers as a factor which contributes to L1 maintenance in her research of the language histories of young Japanese-Canadian adults. Likewise, from their exploration of the language preferences, attitudes and language usage patterns of Chinese-American first and second-generation adolescents, Luo and Wiseman (2000) found a favourable association between influence from Chinese colleagues and degree of L1 maintenance, and an unfavourable association between influence from English-speaking peers and L1 maintenance. Using regression analyses, Luo and Wiseman (2000) confirm that the influence from Chinese peers was the variable most predictive of self-ratings of their own proficiency, followed by influence from peers who speak English.

Kondo (1997) administered a language survey to second generation Japanese-American bilingual undergraduate students in Hawaii. Those who had less developed L1 skills had fewer contexts in where Japanese was used and also had less extensive L1-speaking contacts than students with less developed Japanese skills. Similarly, in a sample of Mexican-American adolescents, contact with monolingual speakers of the L1 (Spanish) supported L1 development (Kenji & D'Andrea, 1992). The desirable influence of exposure to L1 peers was demonstrated by Skourtou's (2002) study that connected monolingual Greek children and Greek-Canadian L1Ls via the internet. Greek Canadian children in the study were found to have greater motivation to learn their L1 if they have contact with monolingual students in Greece.

In addition to use of L1 by adults in the household and by L1-speaking peers, other sources of L1 input include ties to L1-speakers in the home

country and visits abroad. Both have been found to predict L1 linguistic skill in L1Ls (Kondo, 1997). Church attendance has been identified as another source of L1 exposure through access to L1 print materials and L1-speakers and participation in cultural activities. In their autobiographies, L1learners recognized church as an important place for bilingual and bicultural learning (Hinton, 1999).

Technology and media are also sources of additional language input in L1 and English (Skourtou, 2002). English is prevalent in the media and popular culture. Children have been found to seek out further L2 input from media sources, in order to improve their friendships with L2 speaking peers (Jia & Aaronson, 2003). Jia and Aaronson (2003) found that over time, regardless of age, Chinese-American children in the study watched mostly English TV. Li (2006) conducted an ethnographic study of 3 children in British Columbia, Canada. A parent of one of the focal children speculated that his son's use of English at home was due to his media exposure: "Maybe because he seldom watches Chinese TV programs. He likes to watch English ones and he is used to it and English has become his language". (p. 371). Li (2006) found that cartoons and video games in English were a substantial aspect of children's daily lives.

However, L1 media experience, such as input from reading in L1 or watching TV has been shown to be helpful in maintaining L1. Hinton (1999) noted that viewing L1 TV programming was noted by adolescent L1Ls as helpful in maintaining L1. Hayashi's (2006) study involving Japanese-English bilingual students in the US and Japan reported listening to Japanese pop music. Similar sources of L1 exposure were identified by Tonami (2005) in

her ethnographic case studies of Japanese Canadian youth living in Toronto, Canada. Li's (2006) case studies of two young adult Korean-American L1Ls' participation in weblogs found that electronic literacy practices provided opportunities for L1 use and supported the development of a network of L1 users.

Afrifa, Anderson and Ansah (2019) investigated the use of English language in the home domain. The study was motivated by the desire to investigate the factors that contribute to the increasing use of the English language in urban and peri-urban homes in Ghana. The study focused on two communities in Accra (East Legon and Madina), each of which contributed 10 homes to the sample size. The researchers gathered data through observations, interviews and audio recordings from the 94 individuals that occupied the 20 selected homes. The study discovered that in Madina, language shift was predominantly from Guan and Ewe to Akan, while in East Legon, the shift was from indigenous languages to English. It was further revealed that people with lower educational attainment spoke fewer languages than those with higher education. In particular, people with higher educational attainments tended to use English in the home. It was also found that people with higher income levels tended to use English at home, compared to those with lower income levels. While this study investigated language use in the home domain in Ghana, it differs from the present study in some respects. Importantly, while this study focused on Accra, the present one focused on Sekondi Takorad. In addition, while Afrifa et al.'s study compared two communities, the present study is not comparative in nature.

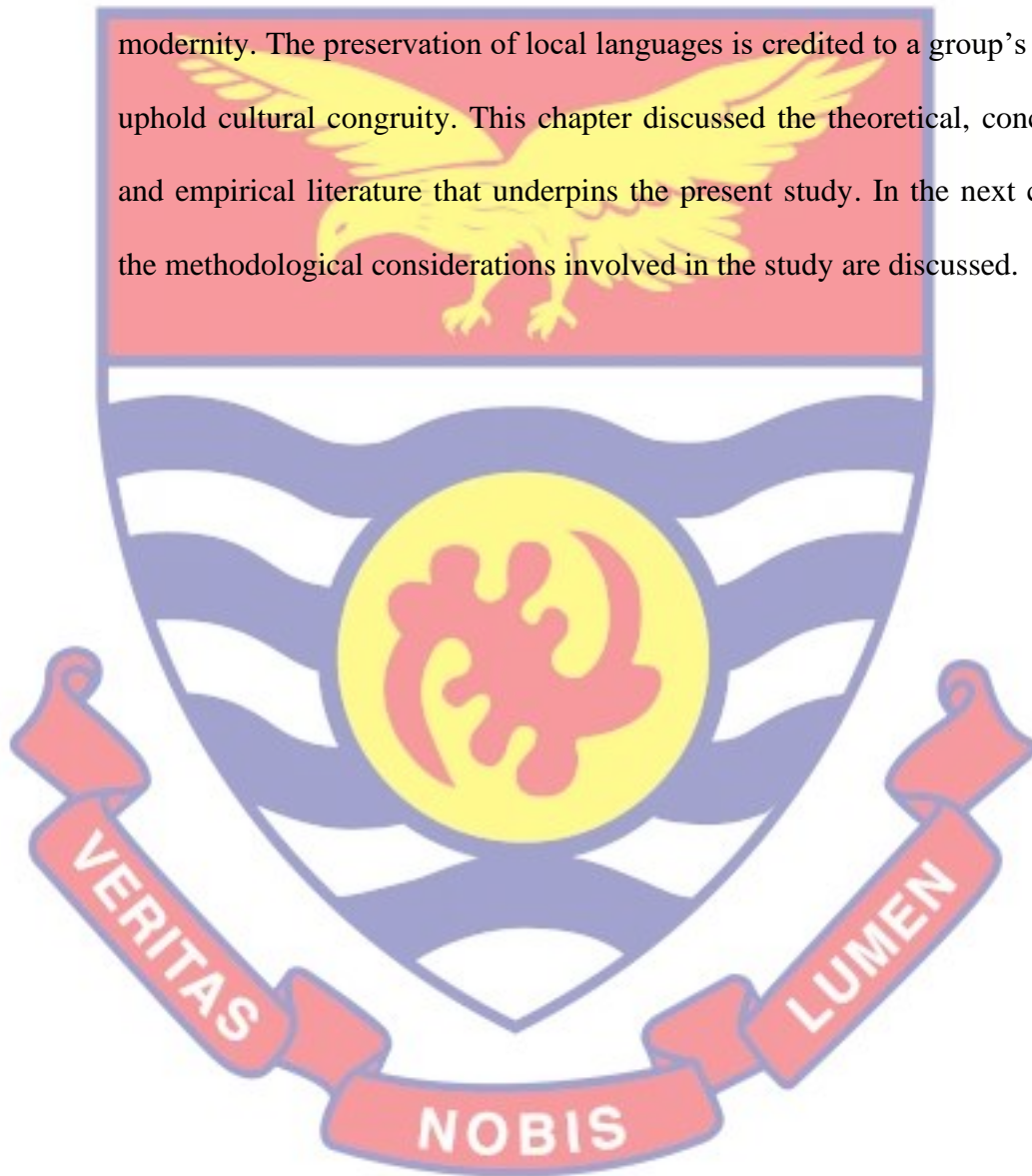
Bibiebome, Anderson and Jones-Mensah (2019) similarly investigated language shift in Accra. They specifically focused on the degree at which people are shifting from the use of Ga or maintain the use of Ga. The study concentrated on four areas: Labadi, Osu, Labone, and Legon-Achimota area. The study collected data through questionnaires containing both open-ended and close-ended questions, as well as interviews. The study revealed that in the selected communities, a significant number of people used Ga at home, indicating that children will grow up learning the Ga language as their mother tongue. It was also discovered that in non-typical Ga areas, the respective mother tongues of individuals are maintained in the home domain. It was, however, observed that Twi and English were infiltrating into some domains in the Ga society. Like Afrifa et al. (2019), Bibiebome et al. focused on Accra. On the other hand, the present study focused on Sekondi Takoradi.

Dzahene-Quarshie and Marjie (2020) also investigated how East African immigrant students use language in various domains in Ghana to negotiate communication challenges. Questionnaires were used to collect data from 33 migrants from four regions in Ghana: Greater Accra, Eastern, Western, and Ashanti. The study found that in the home and work environment, the dominant language used was English followed by Kiswahili or other East African languages, while English was used exclusively in the market domain. These patterns of language use differed from their home country, where they used Kiswahili and other East African languages predominantly in the home, the workplace and the market. While this study focused on immigrants, the present one did not focus on immigrants.

Moreover, this study focused on three domains (home, workplace, and market) while the present study focused exclusively on the home domain.

Chapter Summary

In post-colonial language contact condition, one of the topics that organize the dynamics between languages in multilingualism societies is modernity. The preservation of local languages is credited to a group's need to uphold cultural congruity. This chapter discussed the theoretical, conceptual, and empirical literature that underpins the present study. In the next chapter, the methodological considerations involved in the study are discussed.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the research method selected for investigating the problem under study. This chapter is sectionalised into research design, population, sample and sampling technique, statistical procedure, and instruments. The data collection and analysis procedures are discussed as well. The ethical consideration undertaken is also presented.

Research Design

Kerlinger (1986) posits that the essence of a research design is to serve as a framework to assist the researcher to answer the research questions or hypotheses in as valid, objective and accurate manner as possible. The research design chosen for this study is descriptive cross-sectional survey approach, gives a deep understanding of the under studied phenomenon as it is experienced by several individuals. Hough and Sanchez (1998) point out that descriptive research includes any work that presents facts about the characteristics of any entity, which can be an object, person, event or any other phenomenon of interest.

In this study, the nature and status of the home domains were determined. This design was chosen because it helps gather information from a larger population and provides descriptive information on the main variables related to the study. It provides knowledge about the current state of a variable under study. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) state that descriptive survey aims at observing, describing and documenting parts of a phenomenon in their natural environment. The design allows the researcher to gather data from respondents

included in a study using a questionnaire and an interview guide at several homes.

The selection of these instruments demands the use of the mixed-method approach in the study. The approach gives the researcher an opportunity to provide description of the phenomenon through statistical and subjective means to answer the questions. An argument is put forth by Hair, Babin, Money and Samuel (2003) who opine that a researcher should provide relevant information which relate to the research objectives which make it credible to adopt qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Among the several qualitative research approaches, case study is found to be appropriate for this study. It is selected because case study research enables a researcher to study phenomena that are not adequately explored by other research methods. It is appropriate when the researcher wants to answer a descriptive or an explanatory question. In contrast, qualitative research is considered flawed because of the researcher's personal interpretation, the resulting bias, and the difficulty of generalizing the research results to a large group of people due to the limited number of participants in the research (Creswell, 2021).

The mixed-method approach allows qualitative and quantitative means of collecting and analysing data to achieve wider results (Creswell, 2021). With the publication of many texts dealing specifically with mixed-methods, it has become popular to use mixed-methods separately from qualitative or quantitative methods (Creswell, 2021).

Based on the general purpose of the research and the outlined research objectives, the study adopts a mixed-method approach through case study

design and relates it to the use of English language at home domains. I chose the mixed method in this study because it allowed for a deeper exploration of the phenomenon, *the use of English language in the home domain*. The mixed-method research has been defined as a philosophical-supported inquiry model that combines qualitative and quantitative approaches so that evidence can be mixed and knowledge can be added in a more meaningful way than any model can achieve (Creswell, 2021). This method of inquiry was most suited for addressing the aims of this research. Collins et al. (2006), in support of the mixed methods in a case study, indicated that it gives the researcher the opportunity to use different techniques for recruiting participants for the research thereby ensuring that each participant is appropriately selected for inclusion in the study. Through the mixed-method approach, it can be concluded that there is a facilitation of thick and rich data which intensifies explanations and credible results.

Study Area

Sekondi Takoradi Metropolitan area is chosen as the study area. It comprises one of the fourteen MMDAs in the Western Region of Ghana. Covering an area of 219km², it is the administrative capital of the region. It shares borders with Ahanta West District to the west, Mponohor Wassa East District to the north, Shama District to the east, and Gulf of Guinea to the south. The Metropolis is located on the south-western part of Ghana, about 242km west of Accra, the capital city. It is also approximately 280 kilometres from the La Cote d'Ivoire border in the west.



Figure 2: Map of Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis

Source: GIS Cartographic Unit (2018)

According to the level of urban services and income, three general residential areas are divided. The income level of the metropolis is quite high, but the spreads are skewed. The highest-income people are concentrated in a few settlements such as Chapel Hill, Beach Road and Anaji. The indigenous people are predominantly Ahantas. The Fante language is widely spoken in the Metropolis although there are other languages like Nzema. The native people display a high degree of cultural uniformity in the areas of lineage organization, inheritance and succession.

In the metropolis, people with second-cycle education account for almost 14% of the adult population, which is lower than the national average of 17%. The illiteracy rate in metropolitan areas is about 27%. The metropolitan is home to numerous first and second cycle schools, such as, St. John's High School, Archbishop Porter Girls' High School, Takoradi High

School, Ghana High School Technical School, Fiji High School, Adiembra High School, Sekondi College, and Bompeh High School. Several basic schools are located in the metropolis, but concentrated in the central and eastern regions. In recent times, a lot of people have moved into the Metropolis due to the economic promises.

Population

Population, as defined by Sekaran and Bougie (2019), is the entire group of elements or entities that are of interest for investigation by a researcher. Polit and Hungler (1991) define population as the aggregate of entities that meet a requirement of a study. In simple terms, population is a target group from whom information is sought from and conclusions are drawn to. The target population for the study was all homes in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. However, the reachable population was, therefore, all elite homes in the metropolis and where their children attend school. The total population of the Metropolis is 371,791 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

Sample and Sampling Procedures

Sampling is the selection of a suitable number of elements from a target population. By studying and understanding the characteristics of the sample, the characteristics of the sample can be extended to the target population (Sekran & Bougie, 2019). Therefore, the sample is part of the population purposed for inspection. The sample is a subset of the larger group. If the important feature is distributed proportionally, then it is a representative of the population (Bryman, Bell, Mills, & Yue, 2007). According to Patton (1990), determining the sample size of a descriptive survey may be more difficult than a quantitative survey, because there are no certain rules to

follow. It depends on the purpose of the investigation, what is at stake, what is useful, what is credible, and what can be achieved with the time and resources available. Using such fixed resources, people can choose to use smaller or larger sample sizes to study specific phenomena in depth.

Sekaran and Bougie (2019) state that it is the accessible population that consists of persons selected from the target population. “It is the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that the study of the sample and understanding of its properties and characteristics would make it possible for one to generalize such properties or characteristics to the population elements” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019, p. 267). As such, a sample comprises a smaller group drawn from a target population. Observing a sample group and their characteristics, a researcher can infer and make credible conclusions to capture the population. Given the large target population of 371, 791, the researcher adopted a sampling technique to draw an accessible sample for the study.

The study selected respondents from home domains only who speak the English language as medium of communication. Identification and selection of participants were carried out using an observation of the children in their various schools (St. Peters International School; St. Francis of Assisi School; Morning Glory International School; and Reverend Osam Pinnako School which is a government/public school). All children who indicated that they only speak English in the home were those sampled for the study. A sample of 229 respondents was, thus, chosen for the research.

According to Malhotra and Birks (2007), for descriptive surveys, larger samples are mandatory. Creswell (2021) argues that the most used

approach for deciding the sample in a descriptive study is to stipulate the exactness of approximations preferred and then to determine the sample size necessary to ensure it. Therefore, the accessible population was arrived at using the sample size table provided by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). For a population of 371,791, using the table, the sample size estimated from the total population was 229. The researcher chose the multistage approach to select the sample. In all, the stratified sampling, purposive sampling, simple random sampling and proportionate stratified sampling methods were used to select the sample.

The stratified sampling was employed to zone the Metropolis into 3 geographical zones namely, Northern, Middle and Southern Zones. The stratified sampling is a process whereby subjects are selected from a strata or groups of the population (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). It increases the tendency that key characteristics of persons in the population are included in the same percentage in the sample.

The purposive sampling was adopted to choose the home domains from each zone. Purposive sampling is used to ensure that the elements which satisfy some predetermined criteria, for instance, possessing certain characteristics relevant to the study is selected (Nworgu, 2015). Since the researcher is interested in a category of respondents, it is therefore necessary to select an area where the respondents may possess the characteristics that the researcher needs for the study. This therefore makes the purposive technique appropriate to use.

The stratified sampling and proportionate stratified sampling helped to get the gender dynamics of the population. The stratified sampling was used to

put gender into male and female for the study. The proportionate stratified sampling is used to select corresponding numbers from various strata to ensure equal or proportional representation. Finally, the researcher employed the use of the Proportionate Random Sampling Technique by again adopting the lottery method to select individual members. According to Creswell (2021), the random sampling gives room for equal chances of selection without bias for the final sampling.

Data Collection Instruments

Collection of data was carried out using the questionnaire, unstructured interview guide and observation in order to investigate language use in the home domain. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2019), a questionnaire comprises written items, questions or statements that demands responses from participants. They are less expensive for the collection of data and can measure dependent and independent variables of interest as well. It proves useful to the researcher given that the desired responses can be acquired.

The questionnaire for this study was a self-developed, close ended questionnaire. This was used to gather information that provided an insight into the research questions. The questionnaire was composed of two parts. Part A elicited responses on the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. Specifically, the questions in this section were on gender, age, level of education, marital status, and number of children. Part B contained questions focused on language use at the home domain. Among other things, the questions in Part B focus on which languages are used in the home, which people are addressed in which language, how often are particular

languages used, in which communicative situations are particular languages used, etc.

The importance of using questionnaires as a data collection tool is that it is cheap and time-consuming. Compared with other forms of data collection tools, it also guarantees that there is no bias. According to Mouton (1996), collecting data through questionnaires allows researchers to collect information from a large sample, and it can be easily managed. Since the researchers dealt with a large sample of 229 respondents, it is reasonable to use the questionnaire. Questionnaires can easily analyze information and provide participants with an opportunity to answer accurately.

Though the questionnaire has several advantages, Mouton (1996) discusses that it has presents a lower response rate. Amedahe (2002) reveals that given the fixed nature of the questions, quality data cannot be obtained. Regardless of these shortcomings, the researcher believed that the questionnaire was the most appropriate in achieving the purpose and objectives of the study.

Fontana and Frey (2005) state that interviews are broadly utilized instruments to choose people's encounters and their deepest recognitions, states of mind, and sentiments of reality. The interview guide is isolated into three categories: structured, unstructured and semi-structured interview. A structured interview incorporates a set of pre-determined questions that are addressed to all respondents. The standardization is expected to play down any frame of inclination. The structured interview is comparative to survey, but that they are managed verbally instead of in writing. A semi-structured interview is more adaptable. A guide is developed comprising open and

closed-ended questions where the interviewer can manipulate the questions and their sequence based on the context of respondents.

Minichiello et al. (1990) reveal the freedom associated with the unstructured interview. The questions are not pre-determined. The interaction between the respondent and researcher is deemed necessary. It presents opportunities to unravel behaviours of respondents any classification limiting the scope of the study (Punch, 1998). In the present study, I used a semi-structured interview guide for the data collection. Like the questionnaire, the semi-structured interview guide was structured in two sections. While Section A focuses on demographic information, Section B focuses on language use at the home.

Qualitative observations involve the researcher taking notes on some behaviours of interest at the study site. Observational methods are useful for understanding a people's way of life, their roles, actions and behaviour and how these can change in reaction to situations over time. According to Griffiths, Ewing, and Rogers (2010), when participants in a study are observed, certain skills and actions are revealed. In the present study, observation was used to study the language behaviour of respondents in their homes.

Pilot Test of Instrument and Data Collection

A pre-testing exercise was carried out in Cape Coast as a means of refining the questionnaire and the interview guide using twenty (20) home domains because they had similar characteristics similar to those in the main study. As stipulated by McMillan and Schumach (2006), pilot test brings about a casual appraisal of individual items as they are organized as well as a

pilot test of the complete questionnaire. Pilot test was meant to allow the investigator to eliminate irrelevant, vague and confusing items before the final administration of questionnaires. Additional information requiring the appropriateness of the general layout of the questionnaire was obtained.

The timing for the data collection exercises was monitored to ensure that the actual data collection exercise does not take lengthy time to discourage the respondents from giving much data to enhance the findings of the study. All the experiences during the pre-testing exercises were used to improve the final research instruments for the actual data collection exercise. Thus, some of the questions were rephrased, others were taken out, while some were added. The ordering of some of the questions were also changed to reduce sensitivity in the collection of data.

The actual data collection involved several steps. Before the data collection exercise, the investigator obtained a letter of introduction from the Department of English, University of Cape Coast to the selected schools for the observation. When the researcher and her team arrived at the schools, the purpose of the study was clarified to the assistant heads of the schools. In collaboration with the assistant heads, two weeks was given to me to do my observation and also interact with the children to know their backgrounds and also know the mode of communication in the house.

The researcher conducted a preliminary observation in four schools (St. Peters International School; St. Francis of Assisi School; Morning Glory International School; and Reverend Osam Pinnako School which is a government/public school) to know whether the children communicate in the English language and it is being done in the home domain. The reason for

choosing these schools stemmed from the fact that they are international schools where English is the only mode of communication and those that attend these schools are mostly from the middle and upper class homes and are familiar with the English language unlike the Reverend Osam Pinnako School which is a government/public school. At this school, the mode of communication is a blend of the L1 and the English language. Having identified the target students who used English at home, their parents were contacted, with the purpose of the study explained to them. Appointments were scheduled with those 229 parents who accepted to be part in the research for the administration of the questionnaires.

Questionnaires were administered by the researcher and her trained assistants to 229 respondents in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis. Administration and collection of the questionnaire as well as the conduct of interviews were not carried out on the same day but continuously over a period of two months (March – April 2020) since the researcher had to go to all the zones earmarked in the region. At each home, respondents were briefed on the purpose. With all necessary ethical issues addressed, the questionnaires were given to respondents to fill in, and they were collected after they were filled out. All the respondents filled out and submitted the questionnaires. However, some respondents left some questions unanswered, resulting in incomplete questionnaires. On using incomplete questionnaires for research, Kitchenham and Pfleeger (2003, p. 24) have noted:

Sometimes we can use all the questionnaires, even when some are incomplete. In this case, we have different sample sizes for each question we analyze, and we must remember to report the actual

sample size for each sample statistics. This approach is suitable for analyses such as calculating sample statistics or comparing mean values but not for correlation or regression studies.

Following this recommendation by Kitchenham and Pfleeger (2003, p. 24), I used all the 229 questionnaires for the study, though some were incomplete. In view of this, in the presentation of results in Chapter 4, I report the actual sample for each question.

In addition, three families accepted to be interviewed and observed. The interviews were conducted in the homes of the informants. On average, each interview lasted for about 30 minutes. Similarly, I visited the homes of respondents to collect observation data. Notes were taken during the observation.

Validity and Reliability of Instrument

The validity of an instrument denotes the extent to which it actually measures what it promised to measure (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019). Siniscalco and Auriat (2005) state that an instrument has content validity when an agreement is gotten from a board of judges or experts on a topic that the statements in the instrument relate to what they are supposed to measure. The concept of validity is described with varied terms in qualitative studies. This concept is no single, fixed or universal idea “rather a contingent construct, inescapably grounded in the processes and intentions of particular research methodologies and projects” (Winter, 2000, p.1). Although some qualitative researchers believe that the validity of the term is not suitable for qualitative research, they have realized that some kind of qualification check or measurement is required for their research. For example, Creswell (2021)

believes that effectiveness is affected by the researcher's perception of research effectiveness and his/her choice of paradigm propositions. Therefore, many researchers have created their own concepts of validity, and often produce or adopt terms that they consider more appropriate, such as quality, rigour, and credibility.

The discussion of quality in qualitative research introduced from concerns about validity and reliability in quantitative tradition which “involved substituting new term for words such as validity and reliability to reflect qualitative conceptions” (Seale, 1999, p. 465). The interview guide and questionnaire were given to experts who are well versed in research for scrutiny, taking into consideration how well the items are developed and whether the aims of the study, research questions and hypotheses including the variables of interest. This helped to ascertain the face and content validity of the instrument. This purpose was to examine whether the items are related to the research objectives and also if they comprehensively cover the content needed to provide appropriate response to the research questions. In addition, it is to determine if any of the items is ambiguous and misleading. Recommendations and rectifications made were adopted and fused into the questionnaire to increase validity.

Reliability means how dependable and accurate the research methods and techniques of data collection is. Reliability is a measure of how the method will provide researchers with similar results if it is repeated under similar circumstances. If a method is unreliable, it also lacks validity, but high reliability does not automatically mean high efficiency. Using one method can provide researchers with exactly the same results in different situations

without actually measuring the expected results (Yin, 2003). According to Denscombe (2003), reliability simply means whether the research tool is neutral, and similar research will achieve the same result. Reliability, as indicated by Sekaran and Bougie (2019), is the steadiness and stability of a measuring instrument irrespective of the stability of test takers. Stangor (2004)

specifies that the reliability of a measuring instrument is the extent to which the instrument is free from error; thus, measuring consistency over time, variables of interest.

Ethical Considerations

It is fundamental for each researcher to consider moral issues concerning an examination. This is because of the way that social scientists need to set themselves up as far as all moral issues in the plan of a review to fabricate a sound moral practice (Neuman, 2006). In this review, the respondents' protection was esteemed by first looking for their assent. One of the principles in friendly exploration requires deliberate support of respondents. In such manner, there was a clarification of the destinations of the review, just as its importance to upgrade respondents' intentional cooperation. There is a typical conviction that presenting respondents to noting things in a survey could make physical and enthusiastic mischief them. Consequently, proclamations in the poll and the meeting guide were outlined in a manner that introduced an assortment of choices and unrestrained choice to respondents so that, they could choose things suitable to them. Respondents were ensured namelessness and private. The scientist uncovered her character to members to get their personalities free from all questions and disarrays about the review.

To keep away from literary theft, the specialist guaranteed that thoughts, works and compositions acquired were properly recognized and referred to suitably. Prior to going to the field to gather information, the analyst looked for leeway from the Head of Department. Data collection process was carried out upon receipt of the ethical leeway.

Data Processing and Analysis

The analysis, organisation and summarisation of data becomes useful when it is used to determine the statistical relationship or pattern of responses (Osborne, 2008). The researcher converted the data into soft copy for analysis. Editing, sorting and cross-checking was done before feeding the SPSS (Version 21.0) with the data. Therefore, the statistical program used for data analysis and interpretation is the Social Science Statistics Package (SPSS) version 21.0. Before analysis, code the copy of the questionnaire. Use descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, average, and standard deviation to describe demographic characteristics and answer some research goals.

According to Osborne (2008), it is in the interest of researchers to determine the frequency of occurrence of a certain phenomenon, the average of the collected data, and the degree of instability between variables. The purpose of using descriptive statistics as an analytical tool is to describe phenomena of interest (Sekran & Bougie, 2019). In addition, descriptive statistics allows the conversion of new data into a form that can provide descriptive information about the factors of a particular situation, which is achieved by sorting and manipulating the collected raw data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2019). In this study, data management was considered on the grounds

of storage of the gathered data. The completed survey was kept under key and lock after ensuring that all ethical issues have been considered and appropriately addressed. A stipulated period of five years was assigned and programmed such that after five years, the data would be automatically deleted. Notwithstanding, the results of the study would be revealed to respondents and the entire public through publication.

Field Challenges

Some of the challenges encountered in the process of the data collection exercise were hitches in securing appointments with the parents due to their busy daily schedules while some were reluctant to partake in the study. Again, many of the observation sessions were interrupted due to the absence of respondents in the home. This is because the parents send their children on errands or parents come home late after work. This made the observation difficult because the aim was to observe how communication takes place in the home. Every attempt to record respondents proved futile for the fear that it will go viral.

Some of the respondents complained that researchers use them to get money, while others did not want to be voice recorded. The researcher explained to them that the study was for academic purposes and findings of the study could not be traced to them. Respondents who did not want to be voice recorded had their responses recorded through writing.

Summary

The aim of the researcher in this chapter of the work was to attempt explaining methodological concerns relating to the study, mixed methods approach in the work. The subsequent chapter reports and discusses findings of the study.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Introduction

This section presented and discussed data gathered from participants on the use of the English language in the home instead of our local Ghanaian languages in Sekondi Takoradi Metropolis. It also examined the purpose and magnitude of English language use along with the Ghanaian language in the home. Tables are displayed to provide descriptions to the analysis of the research questions. The discussion on each table is separated with findings from the related literature compiled with its implications where possible. The instruments used to collect the data was the questionnaire and interview guide.

In all, 229 participants were selected for the study. However, some pupils were also selected and interviewed to know the forms and types of languages they use in the home domain. The statistical tool chosen for analysis data in this work was the Statistical Package for Social Services

Y6H-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic information of respondents is centered on gender, age, ethnic background, marital status, religious association and academic qualification. On gender, data collected indicated 129 males (56.3%) and 100 (43.7%) females, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Gender Distribution of Respondents

Gender	No	%
Male	129	56.3
Females	100	43.7

Source: Field survey, (2018)

Results in Table 1 depict a slight majority of males (56.3%) participating in the study as against females (43.7%). Thus, based on the result presented, it can be concluded that there were more males than the females. This also reveals that more male respondents speak the English language than the females

Table 2: Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Frequency	%
17-22	16	7.0
23-28	76	33.2
29-34	74	32.3
35-40	39	17.0
41-46	16	7.0
47-52	7	3.1
53 and above	1	0.4
Total	229	100

Source: Field Survey, (2018)

Of the respondents chosen for the study, 76 (33.2%) were between the ages of 23-28; this is the highest and can be attributed to the fact that the young adults use the English language often than the rest. 74 (32.3%) were also between ages 29 and 34, 39 (17.0%) were between the ages of 35 and 40 while 16 (7.0%) were between 17-22 and 41-46 years of age. The above age ranges specify that all the participants were in a position to know the kind of language they speak in the home domain with their peers and children. The age differences between respondents determine the language use. It was, therefore, hoped that the true information would be given due to their

maturity. The respondents had an adult work force with a mean age of 31.17 and a standard deviation on 6.954.

Table 3: Level of Education of Respondents

Level of education	Frequency	%
Basic	11	4.8
Sec/Voc./Tech	47	20.5
Tertiary	145	63.3
College	24	10.5
Others	2	0.9
Total	229	100

Source: Field Survey, (2018)

From Table 3, out of a total of 229 respondents, 145 (63.3%) had attained tertiary education, 47 (20.5%) had a certificate either from a secondary school, vocational school or a technical school. Again, 24 (10.5%) had attained a college certificate while 11(4.8%) had basic education.

Table 4: Academic Qualification-Sex Cross Tabulation

Level of Education	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Basic	8	3	11
Sec/Voc./Tech	25	22	47
Tertiary	83	62	145
College	11	13	24
Others	2		2
Total	129	100	229

Source: Field Survey, (2018) f=frequency

The table above demonstrates the frequency distribution of academic qualification-sex cross tabulation of respondents. The result reveals that majority of the respondents within the study location had educational qualification above the basic level and (f=11) had attained the basic educational level. It can be noted that majority of the respondents are males who had acquired tertiary education level against 62 females who had tertiary education qualification while 25 males and 22 females had attained secondary education qualification. Only 8 males and 3 females had, at least, basic education qualification with few (f=11) of the males having college education qualification as compared to that (f=13) of females who had attained college education. The results indicate that individual residents in urban areas are more likely to have attained higher education than those at the rural areas and thus are likely to use English language as their primary and first language. Apparently, respondents who had attained tertiary education preferred the use of the English most both in the home domain and in social interactions.

Table 5: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	%
Married	82	35.8
Divorced	5	2.2
Widow	3	1.3
Separated	3	1.3
Single	136	59.4
Total	229	100

Source: Field Survey, (2018)

Again, on the whole, 35.8% of the respondents were married. Specifically, unmarried respondents were mainly 136 (59.4%), compared to the 5 (2.2%) who are divorced. It was also revealed that 205 (89.5%) of the respondents were Christians as against 9(3.9%) of their counterparts who were Muslims. Furthermore, 88 (38.4%) were ethnically Fantes. This figure stemmed from the fact that the study was conducted at a place where the main language is Fante. Also 30 (13.1%) were Ewes. About 31.4% percent of the respondents were employed in the formal sector. Many of the respondents do not have large family size. The findings are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Family Size of Respondents

Number of Children	Frequency	%
1-3	192	84.0
4-6	37	16.0
Total	229	100

Source: Field Survey, (2018)

From Table 6, majority of the respondents had at least one child or two children. Of this number, 192 respondents representing 84% have between 1 and 3 children. Again 37 respondents representing 16% have between 1 to 6 children. This was very significant to the work as the investigator sought to examine the mode of communication in the home domain although some of the respondents indicated that they were not married. Upon further investigation by the researcher, it was revealed that, although they were single, they had a child or children with their former husbands or boyfriends. Some of the respondents also indicated that because they were co-habiting with their friends, they got pregnant and decided to have the child.

Languages Used in the Ghanaian Homes

This subsection presents the results on the first research question. The analysis focuses on languages spoken by respondents, languages learnt by respondents, and codemixing/switching.

Language(s) Spoken by Respondents

Table 7 displays the frequency distribution of language spoken by respondents.

Table 7: Spoken Language by the Respondents

I speak	Frequency
English only	12
English and Fante	18
English, Ewe and Fante	20
Fante only	40
Ga, Fante, Twi and English	50
Twi and English	20
English and Frafra	10
English and Ewe	10
English, Twi and Fante	21
Fante and Hausa	13
Ga, Twi and English	15

Source: Field Study, (2018)

The total number of respondents who use the mother tongue in the home domain was high. Out of the number, 40 of the respondents indicated that they normally use only Fante as a mode of communication in the home domain while 20 said they used both Twi and English in the home because

they wanted their children to master both languages. Consequently, English language usage was minimal as 12 of the participants disclosed that they use only the English language in all their dealings.

This result confirms Bodomo et al. (2009), who stated that indigenous languages in Ghana are divided into major groups. Obeng (1997) agrees that the Akan language group is spoken by 60% of Ghanaians as a native and second language. The language is important for trade and communication outside its borders in Ghana. Accordingly, one of the noticeable parental roles that stimulate child development and learning is the language model. Research specifies that speech forms mothers use with their young children differ from the language they employ when speaking with adults. During an interview session with one of the children participants, she stated:

My parents speak Fante with me but in school, we speak purely English. Our teachers do not encourage the use of vernacular in the school. When I told my parents, they told me that they want me to be able to speak our local language fluently (interview session on Friday, 26th September, 2018).

Brodsky, Waterfall, and Shimon (2007) posit that parental involvement is the most significant factor that inspires heritage language maintenance. Brown (2011) also argued that parents expressed a strong desire for their children to develop and maintain their heritage language, hence the use of indigenous dialects along with English by the participants in the study area. Moreover, Rohani, Choi, Amjad, Burnett, and Colahan (2006) elucidated that “parents, both consciously and unconsciously, create an environment that will either nurture or impair language acquisition” (p. 3). Accordingly, Hashimoto

and Lee (2011) contend that how heritage language is enhanced by parents plays a chief role in the children’s inspiration.

Table 8: Frequency Distribution of First Language Learnt by Respondents

I speak	Frequency	Percent
English	39	17.0
Ghanaian Language	190	83.0
Total	229	100

Source: Field Study, (2018)

The outcome of the study reveals that many (83.0%) of the respondents learnt their various Ghanaian languages first, with only few (17.0%) learning the English language as their first language. Although some native languages are used at corporate settings and some can be regarded as lingua franca, Dako and Quarcoo (2012) posit that Akan, Ga and Ewe are used in government offices to perform business. Some experts hold that some level of competency in two languages is enough to be called bilingual. Diebold (as cited in Engen & Kulbrandstad, 2004) states that when a person comprehends expression of a new language, he or she will become bilingual. Vygotsky (1962) emphasizes the important role of social communication in the growth of language, considering language acquisition as the center of inter-relationships for communication. The child has the opportunity to improve a language in daily interaction with peers, parents and/or teachers; that may be more knowledgeable linguistically and culturally. This constant participation is internalized and assimilated gradually and become part of the own child.

Frequency of Mixing Ghanaian Languages with English Language by Respondents

The findings reveal majority (63.4%) of the respondents as ‘sometimes’ mixing Ghanaian languages with English language while about 30.4% ‘Always’ mix Ghanaian language with English language when communicating. Only 6.2% of the respondents ‘Never’ mix Ghanaian language with English language when communicating.

Table 9: Frequency of Mixing Ghanaian Languages with English Language by Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Always	69	30.4
Sometimes	144	63.4
Never	14	6.2
Total	227	100

Source: Field Data, (2018)

Table 10: Frequency Distribution of the Respondents Switching from Ghanaian Languages to the English Language or Vice Versa

	Frequency	Percent
Always	53	24.0
Often	26	11.8
Sometimes	120	54.2
Occasionally	15	6.8
Never	7	3.2
Total	221	100

Source: Field Data, (2018)

The results show that majority (54.2%) of participants ‘sometimes’ switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa when communicating. While 24.0% of the respondents ‘Always’ switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa when communicating, about 12% of the respondents ‘Often’ switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa when communicating. Only 6.8% of the respondents ‘occasionally’ switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa with 3.2% of the respondents ‘never’ switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa when communicating.

The numerical data is supported by the qualitative data collected from Homes A and B. Homes A and B were multilinguals because the members of the family speak different varieties of the local languages, the dominate Fante language of the environment and the English language. In certain situations of their living, the family members code-switch from English language to L1 and vice versa. This was made possible because the members of the families were literate in the English language. The English language undertakes the role of the high variety (H) while the L1 shoulders the role of the low variety (L) making the situation a perfect diglossia. A sister in the language diary indicated using code-switching in her conversation with her younger brother.

Kiz, its 5:30am, ” sor na ko guraa ”

Make sure you clean your teeth well, or ” wo anum be bon! ”

Another instance is when respondents were watching TV and there seemed to be a misunderstanding between the interpretation a brother was giving her

sister so upon probing, he code switched and said *'wonn̄tse ase!*' You didn't watch from the beginning. The sister responded, *'yoo matse', I hear.*

Diglossia and code-switching are linked to oral communication, but in this study, I asked respondents to write everything down in their language diary. The topic of communication predicts the choice of code. In the above instances, the dominant Fante language of the community was used in the code. This language pattern was observed when parents or older siblings were assisting the younger children at home with their assignments or giving commands.

Generally speaking, I observed that though both parents used the English language, the fathers used the English language more in their interactions with members of the family than the mothers do. A respondent wrote in the diary,

"My dad hardly spoke any local language"

This shows perfectly that in some Ghanaian homes, the English language is gradually becoming a home language. This implies that diglossia is gradually taking over our Ghanaian homes.

Since the members of the family have two or more varieties of the L1, the dominant Fante language became the high variety (H) while the other L1 varieties became the low (L) in the natural situation of their daily living. I also observed the use of code-mixing in the interactions of both parents and children. While the parents and children were using the L1, some words from the H language were employed in the interactive activities. As a result, code-mixing was prevalent in their speech. An instance is when a grandmother used Ga in asking her grandson a question he answered by using both Ga and Fante.

Ga: “aso ny3 tawo noko?” but we replied

“daabi” using Ga and Fante;” y3n p3 hwee” since dad was not around.

Code-mixing may take the form of using words and phrases from one language to another language during interactive activities. Bamiro (2006) states that code-mixing entails those instances where there are lexical transfers from one language to another language during interaction or performance. Similarly, Wolff (2006) explains that it is any instance of interchanging usage of two or more languages within the same conversation or discourse by the same multilingual speaker. An example is when a brother asked the sister to greet the grandfather:

“kad3” good evening grandpa. Say good evening grandpa.

In the example above, the speaker used Fante along English language. The Fante word in this speech signifies the use of mix-coding.

Another instance is when a respondent, together with her sibling, was cooking and she asked him to get her equipment for grinding.

“Get me the earthenware pot and the “tapoli” for grinding.

Here too, there is a Fante word “tapoli” which means spatula for grinding. This same example shows how speakers sometimes accommodate to language choice. Again, we can also say that the English language is used more often than the L1. Interestingly the same speaker shifted back to complete her sentence with the English language.

Frequency of Mixing Ghanaian Languages with English Language by Respondents

The findings reveal majority (63.4%) of the respondents as ‘sometimes’ mixing Ghanaian languages with English language while about

30.4% ‘Always’ mix Ghanaian language with English language when communicating. Only 6.2% of the respondents ‘Never’ mix Ghanaian language with English language when communicating.

Table 11: Frequency of Mixing Ghanaian Languages with English Language by Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Always	69	30.4
Sometimes	144	63.4
Never	16	6.2
Total	229	100

Source: Field Data, (2018)

Table 12: Frequency Distribution of the Respondents Switching from Ghanaian Languages to the English Language or Vice Versa

	Frequency	Percent
Always	53	24.0
Often	26	11.8
Sometimes	120	54.2
Occasionally	15	6.8
Never	7	3.2
Total	221	100

Source: Field Data, (2018)

The results show that majority (54.2%) of participants ‘sometimes’ switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa when communicating. Whiles 24.0% of the respondents ‘Always’ switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa when

communicating, about 12% of the respondents 'Often' switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa when communicating. Only 6.8% of the respondents 'occasionally' switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa with 3.2% of the respondents 'never' switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa when communicating.

Factors that Predispose People to the Use of Specific Languages

This section focuses on the second research question. Accordingly, the section presents results on the factors that predispose people to the use of a particular language at home.

People whom the English Language is Spoken to by Respondents

The table below shows the frequency distribution of the various people of whom English language is spoken to by participants. The outcomes indicate that majority (77.2%) of the respondents speak English language to 'colleagues' than any other persons. Another most important people of whom English language is spoken to are 'people of the same academic qualification' representing 72.4% of the responses. Respondents also speak the language mostly to their 'superiors' and 'strangers' representing 61.4% and 61.0% respectively of the responses. This gives the indication that an official language is usually spoken to people of higher ranks in offices and to strangers than the use of any other language. The result also shows that some 59.2% of the respondents speak the English language to 'people of higher academic qualification' more than they do with 'people of lower academic qualification' 34.6%. Few 47.4% of the respondents also communicate in English language with their 'children' at home.

Table 13: People to whom the English Language is Spoken by

Respondents

Item	Frequency	Percent
Children	108	47.4
Other members of the family	72	31.6
House help	20	8.8
Colleagues	139	61.0
Older people	53	23.2
Younger people	85	37.3
Colleagues	176	77.2
Subordinates	114	50.0
Superior	140	61.4
Church members	102	44.7
People of the same academic qualification	165	72.4
People of lower academic qualification	79	34.6
People of higher academic qualification	135	59.2
People of my ethnic group	56	24.6
People outside my ethnic group	88	38.6
Others	56	24.6

Source: Field Data, (2018)

According to Crystal (2003) and Jenkins (2007), about 80% of English speakers in the world are non-native speakers. They have an enhanced English language proficiency. English language remains a superior lingua franca, with its “enormous functional flexibility” (House, 2003, p. 243). English in Ghana, as an external circle phenomenon, has been undergoing innovation, adaptation, and maintenance of standards over the years. The unique Ghanaian linguistic and cultural coloration continues to permeate the English language on all levels, including vocabulary and pronunciation (Adika, 2012). According to

Bloom (2000), language learning depends on the child’s genetic embodiment and social interactions.

The investigator further sought to ascertain if the respondents spoke the Ghanaian language with others. Their responses are presented in Table 10.

Table 14: People whom Ghanaian Language is Spoken to by Respondents

Item	Frequency	Percent
Children	80	34.9
Other members of the family	165	72.1
House help	68	29.7
Strangers	92	40.2
Older people	139	60.7
Younger people	99	43.2
Colleagues	98	42.8
Subordinates	67	29.3
Superior	55	24.0
Church members	119	52.0
People of the same academic qualification	71	31.0
People of lower academic qualification	81	35.4
People of higher academic qualification	50	21.8
People of my ethnic group	124	54.1
People outside my ethnic group	75	32.8
Others	71	31.0

Source: Field Data, (2018)

The finding reveals that most (72.1%) of the respondents speak Ghanaian language to ‘other members of the family’ than Ghanaian language spoken to ‘children’ (34.9%). Another most important people of whom Ghanaian language is spoken to are ‘older people’ representing 60.7% of the responses. This gives an indication that most people prefer communicating with older people in the local language with the perception that their degree of

expertise in the English language is low as compared to that of Ghanaian language. Again, the older people are seen as the custodians of the Ghanaian languages. Respondents also speak Ghanaian language mostly among ‘church members’ representing 52.0% of the responses. Also, some of the respondents speak Ghanaian language mostly with ‘people of their ethnic group’ 54.1% than ‘people of higher academic level’ 21.8%. This shows that respondents are conversant with the Ghanaian language when interacting with people of the same ethnic background. Moreover, few respondents speak Ghanaian language to ‘people outside their ethnic group’, ‘people of the same academic qualification’ and ‘people of lower academic qualification’ representing 32.8%, 31.0% and 35.4% of the responses respectively. About 40% of the respondents also speak Ghanaian language to strangers.

People whom Respondents Mix Ghanaian Language with English Language or Vice Versa to when Communicating

Table 14 shows the frequency distribution of code mixing of Ghanaian language with English language or vice versa to when communicating. The results show that most (74.6%) of the respondents mix Ghanaian language with English language when communicating with ‘my age group’. Also, the next group of people respondents mix Ghanaian language with English with are ‘Other members of the family’ representing (71.2%) of the responses. About 71% of the respondents mix Ghanaian language with English language when communicating with ‘my colleagues’.

Similarly, some 69.6% of the respondents mix Ghanaian language with the English language when talking with ‘younger people’, while 68.8% of the respondents mix Ghanaian language with English language during interaction

with ‘children’. The results also show that 66.5% and 65.4% of the respondents mix Ghanaian languages with the English language when communicating with ‘people outside my ethnic group’ and ‘people of the same academic qualification’ respectively. Moreover, about 62% of the respondents mix Ghanaian language with the English language when speaking with ‘church members’ while 62.2% of the respondents mix Ghanaian language with the English language when engaging in exchanges with ‘house help’.

Table 15: People whom Respondents Mix Ghanaian Language with English Language or Vice Versa when Communicating

Item	Frequency	Percent
Children	154	68.8
Other members of the family	153	71.2
House help	135	62.2
Strangers	122	57.0
Older people	103	47.9
Younger people	149	69.6
Colleagues	159	74.6
Subordinates	152	71.0
Superior	124	57.9
Church members	112	52.1
People of the same academic qualification	141	61.6
People of lower academic qualification	140	65.4
People of higher academic qualification	118	55.4
People of my ethnic group	116	55.0
People outside my ethnic group	125	59.8
Others	139	66.5

Source: Field Data, (2018)

In his study, Grosjean (1985), found that individuals in groups displayed the use of a second language in monolingual situations and natural

translation, behaviors regarded inappropriate and thus typical of language mixing. This implies that people usually mix their first language with a second language in a context that they found themselves and in a spontaneous manner.

The Use of the English and Ghanaian Language in Different Forms of

Communication

According to Fishman (1967), it is important to expand the idea of diglossia to include exogenous languages in contact settings, where languages from different genetic origins are disseminated diglossically to different functional domains. This assertion necessitated the asking of participants in the study on the use of both English and the Ghanaian languages in communicating. Their responses are tabulated below.

Table 16: Frequency Distribution of the Use of the English and Ghanaian Language in Different Forms of Communication by Respondents

	Conversation		Arguments		Discussions	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Ghanaian Language	93	43.9	115	54.8	72	34.5
English Language	108	50.9	88	41.9	129	61.7
Both Language	11	5.2	7	3.3	8	3.8
Total	212	100	210	100	209	100

Source: Field Data, (2018)

The finding indicates that most (50.9%) respondents use the English language in conversation, about 44% of the respondents use Ghanaian language as a means of conversation. Only few 5.2% use both languages as a

means of communication during conversation. The result also reveals that many (54.8%) of the respondents use Ghanaian language in argument, while 41.9% use the English language as a vehicle of interaction when arguing, with only 3.3% using both languages in arguments. This indicates that most respondents in the study area prefer the use of the various Ghanaian languages when they are involved in an argument. It was also noted that most 61.7% of the respondents use the English language when they are having a discussion as compared to those 34.5% who use the various Ghanaian language when they are having a discussion. Only 3.8% of the respondents use both languages when they are having a discussion. It can be observed that Ghanaians use the English language more than they use Ghanaian languages.

Forms of Communication where Ghanaian Language is Switched to the English Language or Vice Versa by Respondents

Table 17 shows results on the frequency distribution of the various forms of communication whereby Ghanaian language is switched to the English language by respondents.

Table 17: Frequency Distribution of Forms of Communication where Ghanaian Language is Switched to English Language or Vice Versa by Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Having a conversation at home	152	67.6
Having a conversation outside home	49	21.8
Having an argument	22	9.8
Giving orders	2	0.9
Total	221	100

Source: Field Data, (2018)

The result displays that most (67.6%) of the respondents switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa once 'Having a conversation at home'. The results again show that about 22% of the respondents also switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa once 'Having a conversation outside home' with few 9.8% of the respondents switch from Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa while 'Having an argument'. The table shows 0.9% of the respondents switch from the use of Ghanaian language to the English language or vice versa at the time they are 'Giving orders'. The result of this study is in line with a research done by Perceman (1984). His study reveals that code switches and natural conversions in the speech of bilingual aphasics can have many causes. He attests that some people mirror the language and conceptual deficits, but others are the results of conscious, deliberate communicative strategies of the patients. This results in increased occurrence of code switching.

Muñoz, Marquardt and Copeland (1999) assert that code switching shown by aphasics thus, may not be an unsuitable behavior, rather an uncharacteristic and unruly increase in the frequency of use of normally occurring code-switching patterns. Their research was conducted on people with aphasia. This implies that code-switching patterns does not only depend on the type of communication pattern but can be due to individual characteristics.

Becoming an accepted member of a speech community requires allowing members' beliefs about communicative resources, including how they can be used to acquire and display knowledge, express emotions, perform

actions, constitute persons, and establish and maintain relationships. Moreover, the functions of English in employment and education are obvious and prevalent in the Ghana. According to Hanapiah (2002), people with academic qualifications, computer or technical skills and good proficiency in English can expect to find jobs easier and faster than those who are merely having qualifications. The development of English in Ghanaian education and the home is vital. From the past two decades until now, the government has shown superior commitment in creating awareness about the importance of mastering good English with respect to education from primary to tertiary level (Hanapiah, 2002).

Observations and interviews were used with the participants in the English language. I made sure participants were around so I could observe interactions among family members. The interviews were intended to find out why instead of our local Ghanaian languages some parents prefer to speak English as a means of communication in the home domain. Since the researcher stayed with the respondents in the home and beyond she was able to communicate freely with them. This helped to find out the language practices of family members during various communicative events with other people outside the home. The interviews sought to find out the selected homes' opinions regarding English language use as a means of communication.

I realized that most of the male respondents speak English with their children at home rather than their local languages. It is noteworthy that both the educational background and place of work affect a person's choice of a particular language. Of the three homes of the respondents, three had tertiary

education, two had secondary education and one had elementary education. All the targeted respondents were Civil/ Public servants who speak English with their children in the house. When interviewed why the respondents used the English language instead of the indigenous languages, they gave the following reasons: it would “help the children ‘fit in’, when they travel abroad”; respondents spoke the English language with their children because it would “enable them get good jobs when they become adults”. Another reason respondent gave was that it is “the Language they speak and understand”.

In addition to the reasons stated above, respondents also gave the following reasons:

- for my children to further their education,
- for him to pass his pre-preparatory interview,
- it is common to both of us as parents because we don’t speak the same L1,
- it is a well-known language in the world,
- Education does not recognize our local languages at certain stages.
- I don’t want my children to be ridiculed because they can’t speak English.

It is worth noting that parents who work in the educational institutions and who are believed to know the benefit of speaking the mother tongue with their infants rather spoke English language with their children at home. Out of the 5 respondents, 2 spoke Akan, 1 spoke Ewe whiles 2 spoke Ga. It was observed that most Ghanaian parents speak different languages with different people, depending on the relation between them. Majority of the respondents spoke their mother tongue with their relatives and other languages with their

friends but used the English language when talking with their children confirming the assertion that most people in recent time speak English with their children in the house. During the interview, most parents said they spoke English with their children because they thought it could "improve their performance in school". Others said they spoke English with their children because "it is the language used by most children in the area".

Another reason the respondents gave was that they spoke the English language with their children because they thought "it is associated with educated people" in the society. Respondents spoke the English language with their children because it makes "the children and family to be respected and recognized in the society". Again, respondents spoke the English language for good pronunciations, grammar, and vocabulary and for fluency. In L1 children are not permitted to say certain things unlike the English language which makes them vocal. This confirms the assertion that people are gradually shifting from their mother tongue to another language and the English language is their preferred choice.

Respondents also gave the following as some of the benefits for speaking English in the house. Majority of the respondents said that speaking English with their children has helped them in their education especially during examination. As quoted by a respondent saying "My children always get 100% during examination". Others also said that it has improved their children's vocabulary and has helped them to be fluent. A respondent said he feels proud when children speak the English language in public. He asked, "Madam how would you feel if your child in a Speech and Prize Giving Day is awarded with the best in English language?" Respondents also said that it

helps their children in socialising with other children in school and the community as a whole. In general, respondents said communicating in the English language with their children is easier and faster.

In one of the homes, the respondent spoke the English language and Ga with their relatives who came to visit. Some of the respondents spoke Akan and the dominant L1 with their relatives. It was observed that most Ghanaian parents spoke different languages with different members in the home. In the home of my first respondent (C), I observed that everyone in the family used only the English language. To this family; the children will naturally learn a Ghanaian language as they interact with other children in the external environment. According to them, it is important for them to prepare the children for good interaction at school in the English language. Surprisingly, the house help who is not educated could speak the English language. This, according to the father, happened when they realized that their first son could not communicate effectively due to the language spoken in the home and the other languages outside the home. He went on to say that, the son's construction of sentences is poor and so he would not encourage the rest to suffer nor speak "bad" English.

Baker (2001) recounted that educators still tell families to speak only English with their children because children might become confused by two languages and will integrate more successfully at school. Perhaps this is one of the reasons why parents who have migrated to Sekondi- Takoradi speak English as a tool of communication in the home to avoid their children being confused. Rickford (2010) observes other dialects continued to be understood, misdiagnosed, disrespected, and under assisted in their efforts to add Standard

English language to their linguistic collection and they have also been restricted in their school success and occupational mobility. No wonder our Ghanaian languages are rated L and the English language H.

Although my research is not centered on the attitude(s) of some Ghanaian parents towards English language adoption at home, I think there is the need to consider that. Parents or guardians most of the time fail to consider the type of English language their children speak but are quick at accusing them of not speaking good English. I observed that these members in the home have learnt the English language naturally by imitating and so have acquired its use the way almost perhaps everyone speaks. Unfortunately, I observed the wrong use of the word “Put” whenever the mother uses it in her conversation. For example, she asked if her son has put his snack in his bag.

Mum: Fred have you “putten” your snack in your bag?

Fred: Yes mum.

At times too, she uses “On and Off” wrongly. For example, when she wants any of the children to either “Put on or Put off” something;

Mum: Fred “on the T.V.”.

Fred: Yes mum.

In the home of these respondents, the English language was a home language because they fail to speak any other language aside the L2. It was interesting to know that a Fante teacher was contracted to teach Fred when he was preparing to write the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE).

Though the remaining two families used the English language in my observation, I realized that they sometimes switched from the English language to the Fante as they interact. To this, the children persistently

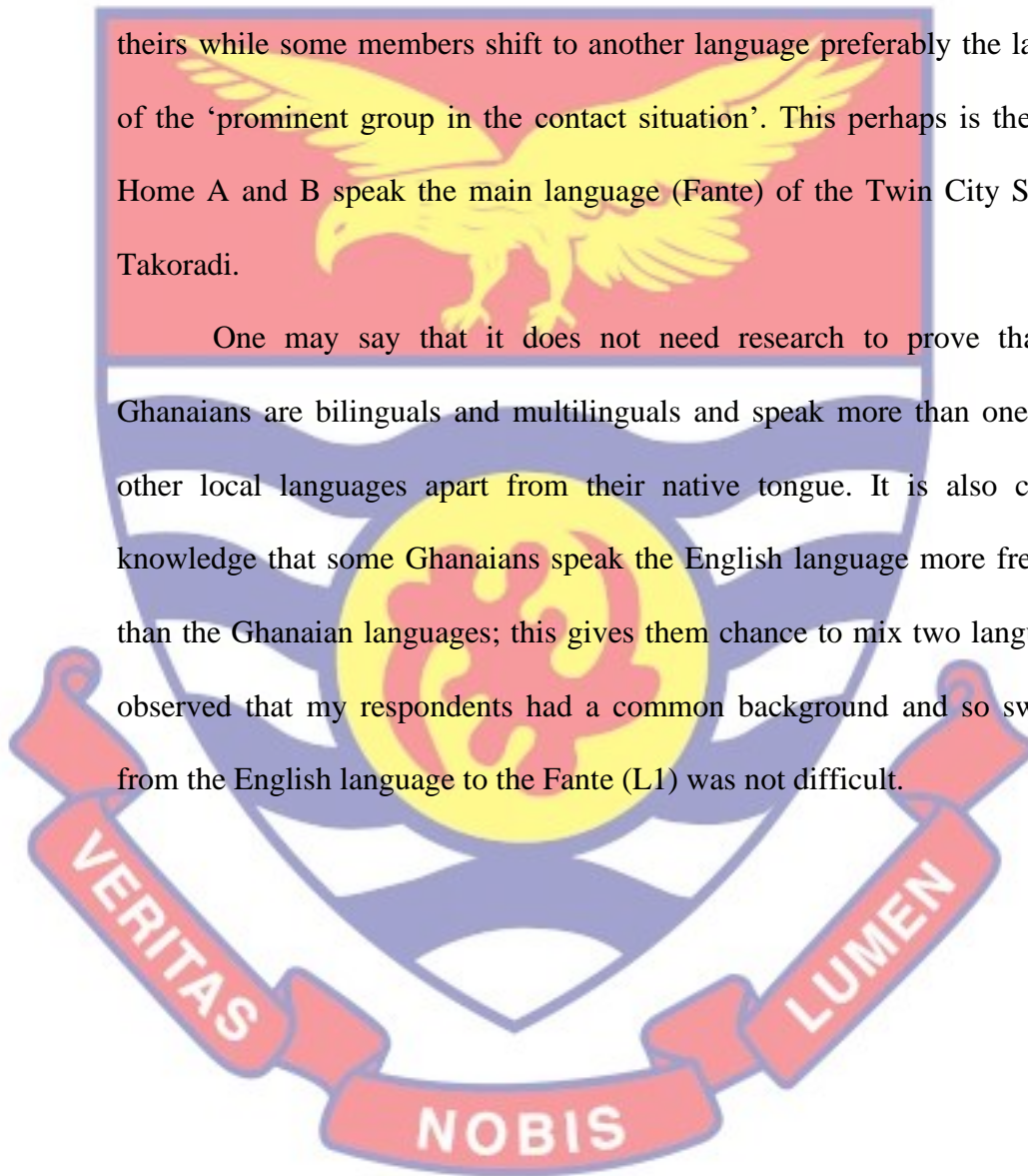
responded in the English language. The researcher observed that these children apart from the home are learning the Fante from school, peers and neighbours. This was due to the fact that these families had mixed ethnic backgrounds and English language has become the means of interaction to them. Again, Fante was the dominant language used in the various communities and it was also taught at school.

The most fascinating part of the current study perhaps was that the older siblings of these families spoke some other local languages in their repertoire which the younger ones as well as their parents did not have. For example; in one of the homes, the grandmother on consistent basis had been communicating with the grandson in Ga and so he could speak the language. In all this, I observed that the dominant language used was the English language because of its prestige, official use, the power attached to it and also its use at school. Due to the mixed ethnic background and the presence of the dominant language Fante, Home A and B sometimes code mixed or code switched. This brings to bear that every Ghanaian is a bilingual or multilingual, a feature that prevails in diglossic situations.

Since I was almost always with my respondents, I observed that the social context of an individual largely predicts the language the person chooses. This I say with an authoritative voice depended on the time, type of communication, place, occasion and topic under discussion. This was done consciously or unconsciously. Trudgill (1983) implies that diglossia constitutes any linguistic situation where switching takes place. Wallwork (1978) adds that diglossia is akin to bilingualism. Bilingualism was a feature that prevailed in these two households. Wu (2005: 2387) explains bilingualism

as “two languages of an individual.” Thus, these two homes were bilinguals who used the English language as the H variety and the dominant Fante language of the community as the L variety even though they are not indigenes. Thomason (2001) posits that when people migrate to new environments, they learn languages of that new community in addition to theirs while some members shift to another language preferably the language of the ‘prominent group in the contact situation’. This perhaps is the reason Home A and B speak the main language (Fante) of the Twin City Sekondi-Takoradi.

One may say that it does not need research to prove that most Ghanaians are bilinguals and multilinguals and speak more than one or two other local languages apart from their native tongue. It is also common knowledge that some Ghanaians speak the English language more frequently than the Ghanaian languages; this gives them chance to mix two languages. I observed that my respondents had a common background and so switching from the English language to the Fante (L1) was not difficult.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In this chapter, the significance of the research and findings obtained by the study are carefully summarized. This section summarizes the entire work. It contains conclusions drawn, recommendations made and also suggestions for further studies.

Summary

Anyidoho (2018) confirms that Ghana is a multi-lingual country with over eighty (80) languages. However, about eleven are taught and studied in our schools. The probability of one developing an attitude towards any of the languages depends on the person. Despite our numerous languages, it is very common to hear some Ghanaian parents speak the English language to their children at home. Obviously, the educational backgrounds of parents determine English language use as a channel of interaction in the home domain. The study purported to find out language use in Ghanaian homes, guided by the following research questions:

1. What language or languages are used in Ghanaian homes?
2. What factors predispose speakers to a particular language choice (over the other) in the home?

To achieve the above objectives, the descriptive survey design was chosen to execute the research. Being a descriptive study, the mixed methods (questionnaire and interview guide) was used and frequency tables and percentages were employed to report the gathered data. The purposive

sampling was employed to collect data from 229 sampled respondents. The key findings of the study are presented in the next section.

Key Findings

This section presents the key findings of the study, according to the research questions.

In terms of the languages used in the home domain, the study revealed that indigenous languages such as Fante, Twi, Ewe, Frafra, Ga and Hausa, as well as the English language are used. The total number of respondents who use the mother tongue in the home domain was high. Out of the number, 105 of the respondents indicated that they normally used only Fante as a mode of communication in the home domain while 70 said they used both Twi and English in the home because they wanted their children to master both languages. Consequently, English language usage was minimal as 90 of the participants disclosed that they use only the English language in all their dealings. The study also revealed instances of code mixing and code switching in the home domain.

In terms of the factors that predisposed people to the choice of a particular language, the study made interesting discoveries. First, it was found that the use of a particular code in the home domain was determined by the nature of the addressee. For instance, it was found that majority of the respondents speak English language to ‘colleagues’ than any other persons, while most of the respondents speak Ghanaian language to other members of the family. Similarly, code mixing was employed when communicating with members of one’s age group. In addition, individuals employed different codes for different forms of communication. Here, it was found that most families

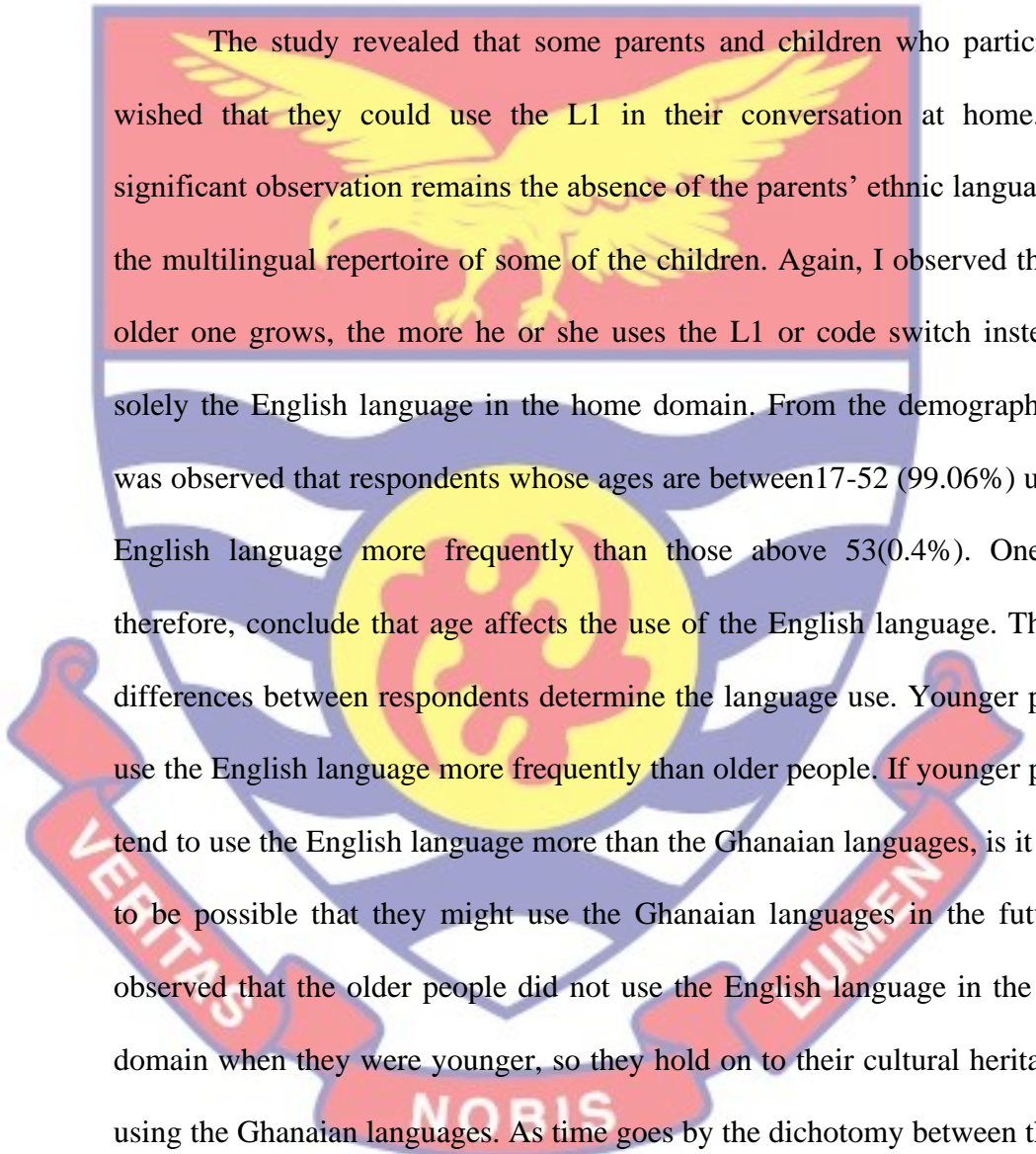
prefer to use the English language in conversation, while Ghanaian languages were favoured in arguments.

Conclusion

As stated above, the study looked at language use in the home. The conclusion drawn from the study is that some Ghanaian parents speak the English language as a communicative tool for various reasons. It was seen that the English language plays a crucial role in the lives of Ghanaians. Recently, the English language is not used only as an official language but also as a home language. Another important reason for the use of English language in the home in recent time is for the children to fit into the society. This can only be possible if they are able to speak the English language. A parent added, “It is the language used by most children in the vicinity and at church”. With regards to their social life, the English language is the preferred choice. As a result; according to respondents they do not often use the Ghanaian languages in their routine communication.

I noticed that children who have acquired and could speak the Low languages do not have ample opportunity to use them. This in a way has affected the level of proficiency in them and has rendered the Low languages dormant. Ellis (1985) affirms that it is a popular belief that second language acquisition (SLA) is strongly influenced by the learner’s first language. It is, therefore, important and fair if every Ghanaian child could be bilingual or multilingual instead of monolingual. I, therefore, share the view reported by Ahadzi et al.’s (2015) monolingual approach to language use at home is not advantageous in multilingual Ghana. Parents wherever possible, should be encouraged to raise their children multilingually in the language on offer in the

environment –English and other indigenous Ghanaian languages. In other words, every child should use or adopt more than a language. There are several possibilities that the younger generation might not use the L1 in the future. This is because most of them have not rediscovered the Ghanaian languages.

The logo of the University of Cape Coast is a watermark in the background. It features a yellow eagle with its wings spread, perched on a shield. The shield is divided into four quadrants by a blue cross. In the center of the shield is a yellow circle containing a red stylized figure. Below the shield is a red banner with the Latin motto "VERITAS NOBIS LUMEN" in white capital letters.

The study revealed that some parents and children who participated wished that they could use the L1 in their conversation at home. One significant observation remains the absence of the parents' ethnic languages in the multilingual repertoire of some of the children. Again, I observed that the older one grows, the more he or she uses the L1 or code switch instead of solely the English language in the home domain. From the demographics, it was observed that respondents whose ages are between 17-52 (99.06%) use the English language more frequently than those above 53 (0.4%). One can, therefore, conclude that age affects the use of the English language. The age differences between respondents determine the language use. Younger people use the English language more frequently than older people. If younger people tend to use the English language more than the Ghanaian languages, is it going to be possible that they might use the Ghanaian languages in the future? I observed that the older people did not use the English language in the home domain when they were younger, so they hold on to their cultural heritage by using the Ghanaian languages. As time goes by the dichotomy between the old and young may disappear because, the young might not have any language apart from the English language. The study, therefore, concludes that Ghanaians should use both their local languages and the English language in the home to avoid language shift or extinction of the Ghanaian languages. In

years to come, we will not have any of our generation speaking any of our Ghanaian languages in our own homes or in the country. Just as if the last tree dies the last man also dies so will our cherished Ghanaian languages. If the theory on diglossia is not used as it was propounded, then it has defeated its concept; where the English language is seen as the H (high) and the Ghanaian languages as L (low).

It was also clearly seen that of the eleven children in the selected homes, most had bilingual (30.4%) and multilingual (30.4%) abilities. These children, when alone, spoke the dominant language of the community, in this case, Fante. Children who have acquired minority languages do not use them often in their routine communication. This in a way makes the languages dormant. Similarly, Afrifa et al (2019) aver that the English language is extensively used in Ghana. According to them, it is the language of government, medium of instruction, language of trade and the language toward which Ghanaians in the urban communities are shifting to. It is, therefore, not surprising that Sekondi-Takoradi, which is an urban center, also uses the English language as a home language. They conclude that the second language on the Ghanaian linguistic structure per their study is Akan. Likewise, the researcher also in her findings observed that Fante (Akan) of the Sekondi-Takoradi seems to be the dominant Ghanaian language which most settlers are shifting to. It is therefore the desire of the researcher that stakeholders of education would consider the outcome of this study and design a home language policy in Ghana where attention would be given to the use of the L1. I do not claim to have the final word on this subject. Perhaps this study

may set the pace for other researchers to investigate further into the theory of diglossia.

This study concludes that low domain (home) should attract the use of both L1 and L2 to avoid the loss of some of the Ghanaian languages. Additional studies are needed to understand the precise extent of the effect of

English language use in the home domain. Finally, the theory of diglossia has to be modified. Although the English language is still a high language, it is being used as a low language. Therefore, the home domain cannot be conceptualized as a low domain. Theoretically it exists but in practice it does not. This contradicts Sey's (1973) claim that English is a school language.

Based on this the theory should be revised or retheorized so that in future researchers will have a firm stand on using the theory. If not, then the theory is not diglossia and must be given a different name.

Recommendation

Based on the findings of the research why some Ghanaians use the English language is for their children to 'fit in', 'for my children to further their education', 'it's a well-known language in the world'. Even though some of these reasons deduced by parents or guardians are strong, they are bent on ensuring that their wards use the English language. It is, therefore, the opinion of the researcher to recommend that these Ghanaians code switch the Ghanaian language and the English language in their daily conversation. This, the researcher believes, will sustain or halt the L languages from total loss or extinction.

Since the dichotomy between H and L no longer exists because the H is moving into the L domain, parents or guardians who use the English

language as a home language should endeavor to use 'good' English in their daily conversations. Again, the government, through the Ghana Education Service should, formulate regulations to enable the use of L1 alongside the English Language in basic schools so that students will acquire both languages. Though chiefs and other traditional leaders are custodians of the traditions and culture of the people of Ghana, it is incumbent upon them to ensure the use of L1 and L2 during durbars and fora so that everyone present would understand.

Directions for Further Studies

We used to think that only educated Ghanaians spoke the English language but I realized that uneducated Ghanaians spoke the English language as well. Due to this the H language has intruded into the L domains such as the market, home, and informal gatherings. This thesis sought to explore the use of the English language in the home domain. Informed by the conclusions drawn, I, therefore, suggest that interested researchers should research the use of the English language in other domains as well. Though the researcher used the descriptive approach in analyzing her work, other researchers can also use narrative and analytical approaches to draw their conclusions.

I further propose that future studies can embark on the use of the English language in the urban centers for wider coverage in Ghana to arrive at reliable results for generalization. Also, further studies such as attitudes of Ghanaians towards the use of the English language in the church or other social gatherings should be researched. The extent of the effect of the use of the English language on some Ghanaian languages may also be researched.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES

FACULTY OF ARTS

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TOPIC: THE USE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE HOME

DOMAIN

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire has been designed to gather information for a research work being undertaken on the topic above. You have been selected as one of the participants. The information you provide will not be made known to any other person or institution. Please kindly respond to the items/statements in this questionnaire by filling in the spaces provided.

Please do not write your name on any part of the questionnaire. I look forward to your participation and appreciate your effort in this important effort.

Consent to Participate in Research:

I understand that any information I share will remain confidential and that when the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal my identity. I am 18 years of age or older. By agreeing to continue with the survey and submit a response to the researcher in question, I am giving consent to participate in this study.

I consent to participate in this survey: Yes No

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Instruction: Please, place a tick (✓) in the appropriate columns to indicate your response.

1. Gender: Male (); Female ()
2. Age: 17-22 (); 23-28 (); 29-34 (); 35-40 ();
41-46 (); 47-52 (); 53 and above ()
3. Level of Education: Basic (); Sec/Voc./Tech (); Tertiary ();
College (); Others ()
4. Marital Status: Married (); Divorced (); Widow ();
Separated (); Single ()
5. Number of Children: 1 (); 2 (); 3 (); 4 ();
5 (); 6 ()

SECTION B: LANGUAGE(S) USED IN THE GHANAIAIAN HOME

6. What language(s) do you speak in the home domain:
English only (); English and Fante (); Fante only ();
English, Ewe, Fante (); Ga, Fante, Twi, English (); Ewe ();
Twi and English (); English and Frafra (); English and Ewe ();
English, Twi, Fante (); Fante and Hausa (); Ga, Twi, English ()
7. The language you first learnt in the home domain
English () Ghanaian Language ()
8. Can you read and write in your first language:
Yes () No ()
9. Which language do you speak to the following people:

Please tick the applicable ones

	English	Ghanaian Language
Children		
Other members of the family		
House help		
Strangers		
Older people		
Younger people		
Colleagues		
Subordinates		
Superior		
Church members		
People of the same academic qualification		
People of lower academic qualification		
People of higher academic qualification		
People of my ethnic group		
People outside my ethnic group		
Others		

10. What language do you use in communication?

(please tick the applicable ones)

	Ghanaian Language	English Language	Both Languages
Conversation			
Arguments			
Discussions			

11. Do you mix Ghanaian language with English in the home domain?

Always ()

Sometimes ()

Never ()

12. I code mix the language with: (please tick the applicable ones)

Children	
Other members of the family	
House help	
Strangers	
Older people	
Younger people	
Colleagues	
Subordinates	
Superior	
Church members	
People of the same academic qualification	
People of lower academic qualification	
People of higher academic qualification	
People of my ethnic group	
People outside my ethnic group	
Others	

13. How often do you switch from Ghanaian languages to the English language or vice versa?

Always ()

Sometimes ()

Never ()

Often ()

Occasionally ()

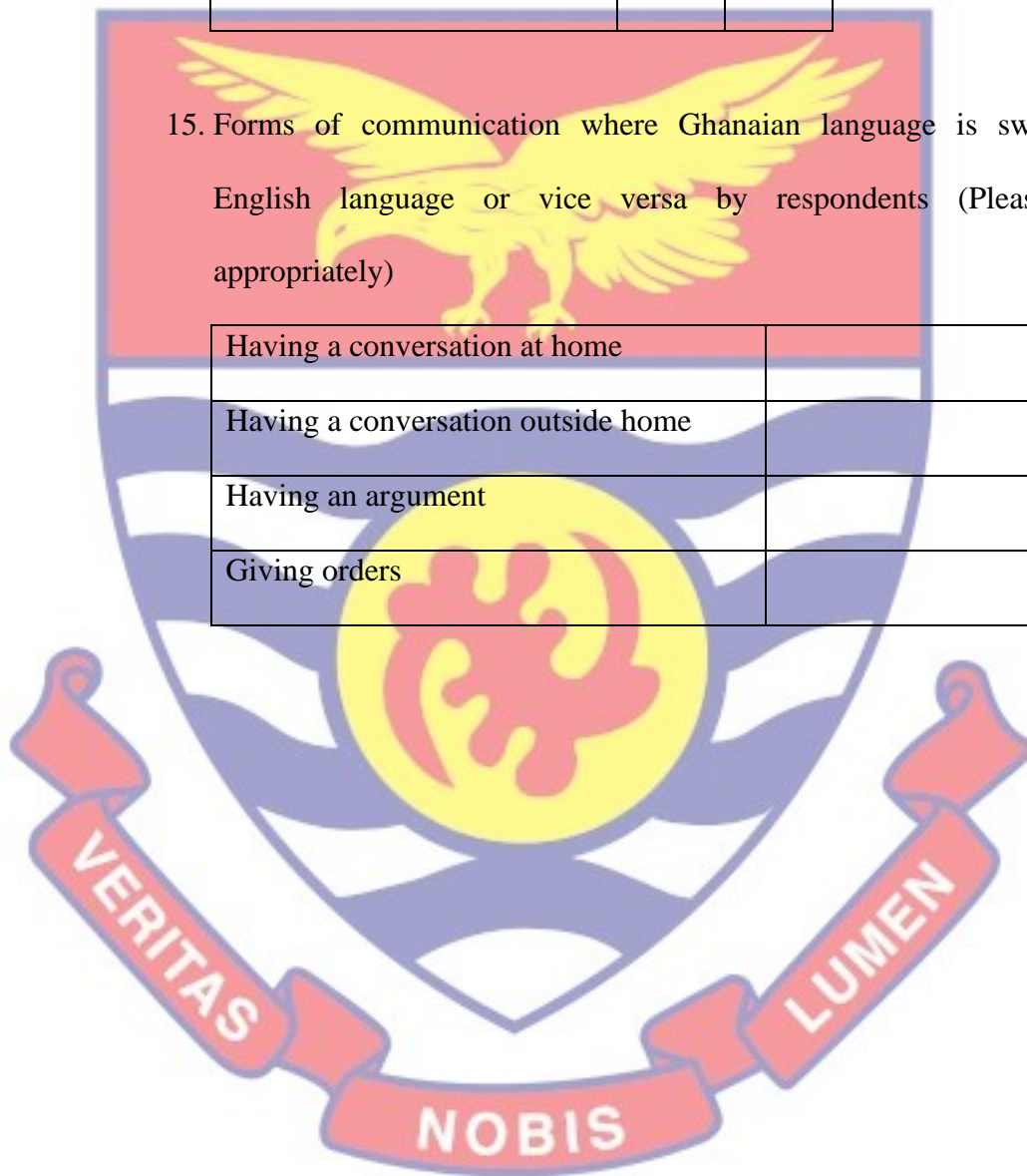
14. Do you think it is appropriate to mix Ghanaian language with English when talking to?

	Yes	No
my children		
my family members		
my house help		
strangers		
Females		
males		
older people		
younger people		
my age group		
my colleagues		
subordinates (juniors)		
superior (seniors)		
married persons		
church members		
people of the same academic qualification		
my people of lower academic qualification		

people of higher academic qualification		
people of my ethnic group		
people outside my ethnic group		

15. Forms of communication where Ghanaian language is switch to English language or vice versa by respondents (Please tick appropriately)

Having a conversation at home	
Having a conversation outside home	
Having an argument	
Giving orders	



APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES

FACULTY OF ARTS

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

TOPIC: THE USE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE HOME

DOMAIN

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

Dear Respondent,

This interview guide has been designed to gather information for a research work being undertaken on the topic above. You have been selected as one of the participants. The information you provide will not be made known to any other person or institution. Please kindly respond to the items/statements in this questionnaire by filling in the spaces provided.

Please do not write your name on any part of the questionnaire. I look forward to your participation and appreciate your effort in this important effort.

Consent to Participate in Research:

I understand that any information I share will remain confidential and that when the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal my identity. I am 18 years of age or older. By agreeing to continue with the survey and submit a response to the researcher in question, I am giving consent to participate in this study.

I consent to participate in this survey: Yes No

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Instruction: Please, place a tick (✓) in the appropriate columns to indicate your response.

Gender: Male () ; Female ()

Age: 17-22 () ; 23-28 () ; 29-34 () 35-40 ()
41-46 () ; 47-52 () ; 53 and above ()

Level of Education: Basic () ; Sec/Voc./Tech () ; Tertiary ()
College () ; Others ()

Marital Status: Married () ; Divorced () ; Widow ()
Separated () ; Single ()

SECTION B

1. What do you understand by the term language choice?
2. What language(s) that do you use in the home domain?
3. How often do you use English language in your communication with others?
4. Do you use both the local language and English language at the same time in your communications?
5. Why don't you speak your indigenous language or any Ghanaian language but English?
6. Do you speak to your children in English and why?

APPENDIX C

OBSERVATION NOTES

The survey began on the 7th day of August 2017, I wanted to spend two weeks to survey.

Day 1

I listened to pupils conversing as they waited for their parents, I waited for almost 40 minutes and saw a boy who was still waiting so I engaged him in a chat so that he will not feel lonely. His name was Fred.

Day 2

Went to the school and waited for my friend Fred. This time we had a long conversation about his family, he is a Ga and hails from Teshie but his father works in Sekondi while the mother works is a nurse. I kept him company till his chuffer came to pick him up.

Day 3

Today Fred asked me why I am always there when I am not attending their school. I told him I am there to visit his school and know more about the pupils.

Day 4

Today I went earlier than the usual time to survey the school compound. I realized that it was well planned international school. They had lab ridge as well but at a different place. As I was waiting, my target came to me and we had a conversation. I told him I wanted to use him as my respondent so I needed to talk to his father. Surprisingly, he asked me to wait and that he will rather talk to his father. I waited again for his car to arrive before leaving.

Day 5

Apart from my respondent, I had a chat with most of the pupils who I saw playing as they waited for their parents and asked why they were speaking the L2. According to them, it was a rule on the school compound else you will be punished. According to one boy, at home he speaks both English and Fante.

Unfortunately, Fred's dad did not come but his uncle so I could not tell him. I bid him good bye and promised to see him on Monday so he should tell his parents.

Day 6-Monday

Though my aim was to find a home for my work, I decided to visit my respondents' class today. I made my intention known to the teacher who was teaching French. Based on my observation, I realized that the teacher used both code-switching and code-mixing in her class. After school, I asked Fred why the teacher did that. He explained that, the teacher does that for the pupils to understand the lesson better. He asked me to see his father today. Mr. Annang soon arrived and I introduced myself, my aim of using his son to him. We had a conversation and they departed.

Day 7

Since an acquaintance has been built already, today when my respondent came, I asked him if his parents will be willing to allow me visit their home so that I will stop coming to the school. He accepted because that will help us have enough time. I told the father and handed him one of my questionnaires.

Day 8

Today, not much was said. We exchanged pleasantries and asked if I could come. He asked for a little time to discuss with the wife. I took his phone number to call him later.

Day 9

I waited for my respondents to close from school. Together we waited for the father. He took long in coming but it was worth it. He came with the wife and I declared my intention to them of using their home for my research work. I assured them that for ethical reasons, no name would be used. The wife wanted to know more about me and the research since they were inviting me to their home because I am a stranger to them.

Day 10

Today was my last day on the school compound. I went there because I had promised my little friend so he could trust me. We waited for a while till the father came to pick him. A day was set for the visit to their home which was Sunday.

Day 11: 20th August, 2017 at Nkroful

I was welcomed to the home of my respondents. My aim for today was to observe their conversation at home and to tell them if they wouldn't mind me lodging there for two weeks.

In their home, I realized that they had another child who attends a different school. In my observation that day, the parents left me with the children and went to their room. The conversation that day was with the children. I left later in the evening and enquired if I could call in the evening concerning the request I made.

School 2 (St. Francis of Assisi)

Pupils are still on vacation classes

Day 1: 21-08-2017

The school gate was closed and the security personnel informed me I needed an identification card of the pupils before talking to them. Since I had none, I waited outside the school premises. I realized I could not get anyone to talk to if I don't change my time. No target for the day because it was after school.

Day 2

Today I decided to go in the morning to survey if I could get anyone. I saw a pupil walking to the school so I stopped and parked my car. I walked to her to have a conversation with her. We spoke L1 (Fante). I intentionally switched using both L1 and L2. She was not ready to have a conversation with me. To convince her I had no bad intention, I handed her my car keys to put in her bag so that when we get to the entrance of the school she will give it to me. We did exactly that.

I realized that I could visit two schools in a day. I went to St. Francis of Assisi in the morning and in the afternoon go to Morning Glory School.

Day 3: St. Francis of Assisi

I went to wait for my target (Nana Ama- not the real name). We walked together as we conversed. I asked her about her family and observed that she could express herself more in the L2 than the L1 so we spoke in the L2 throughout our conversation till we departed at the school gate.

Morning Glory School – 23-08-2017

Day 1

It is a well-planned and equipped school which is nicely fenced. I met a parent waiting for her ward and decided to use her as my respondent so I waited nearby. Soon the child came. There were few pleasantries between mother and child.

Day 4 (St. Francis of Assisi)

As usual, I waited for my respondent and informed her that I would want to go to her house after school. She resisted but later asked that we walk. Her class will end at 1:30pm.

Day 2: Morning Glory School

In order to make the boy out, I picked the mother's car number. I went there early so that I can make it to the appointment at St. Francis. It is worthy to note here that the two schools are close to each other.

The car came and I went to talk to the woman. I introduced myself once again and my aim to her. Fortunately she was also a student writing her project work at TTU. She was a nice woman.

Day 3: Morning Glory School-25-08-2017

I waited for the respondent and realized that the brothers were two. The woman was their elder sister. I gave her one of my questionnaire and explained certain portions to her. We exchanged numbers and I told her that I will visit them soon.

Since the respondent was ready to receive me, I did not go to the school again for the survey.

Day 4: St. Francis of Assisi)

Nana was waiting when I got to our meeting place so we walked to her home. I met her grandmother and uncle at home. Her parents were working abroad. I introduced myself and my aim of visiting their home. Unfortunately, the grandmother refused my request of using their home for my research with the fear of kidnaping her granddaughter. I was so hurt and disappointed.

Observation (respondent 1)

04-09-17

Much was not done on this day as I couldn't go early. I met the children doing their homework with their father. There was their grandmother there who had come for a visit. I slept with the grandmother and the little girl.

In the morning of the next day, 05-09-17, I overheard the husband and wife conversing in Fante. In seeing me, they code-switched to English. The children were much comfortable when conversing in English. They either code-switch or code-mix when talking with their grandmother.

I observed that sometimes the parents over-acted on their parts when I was around and this to me did not seem natural. All attempts to reword our conversations with the family proved futile since the respondents will not allow.

The children were on break from vacation classes so we were at home. This gave me enough time with the family. I went out with the children and decided to speak the L1 but whenever I tried, they responded in the L2.

I questioned them but they told me that was the instruction from the parents.

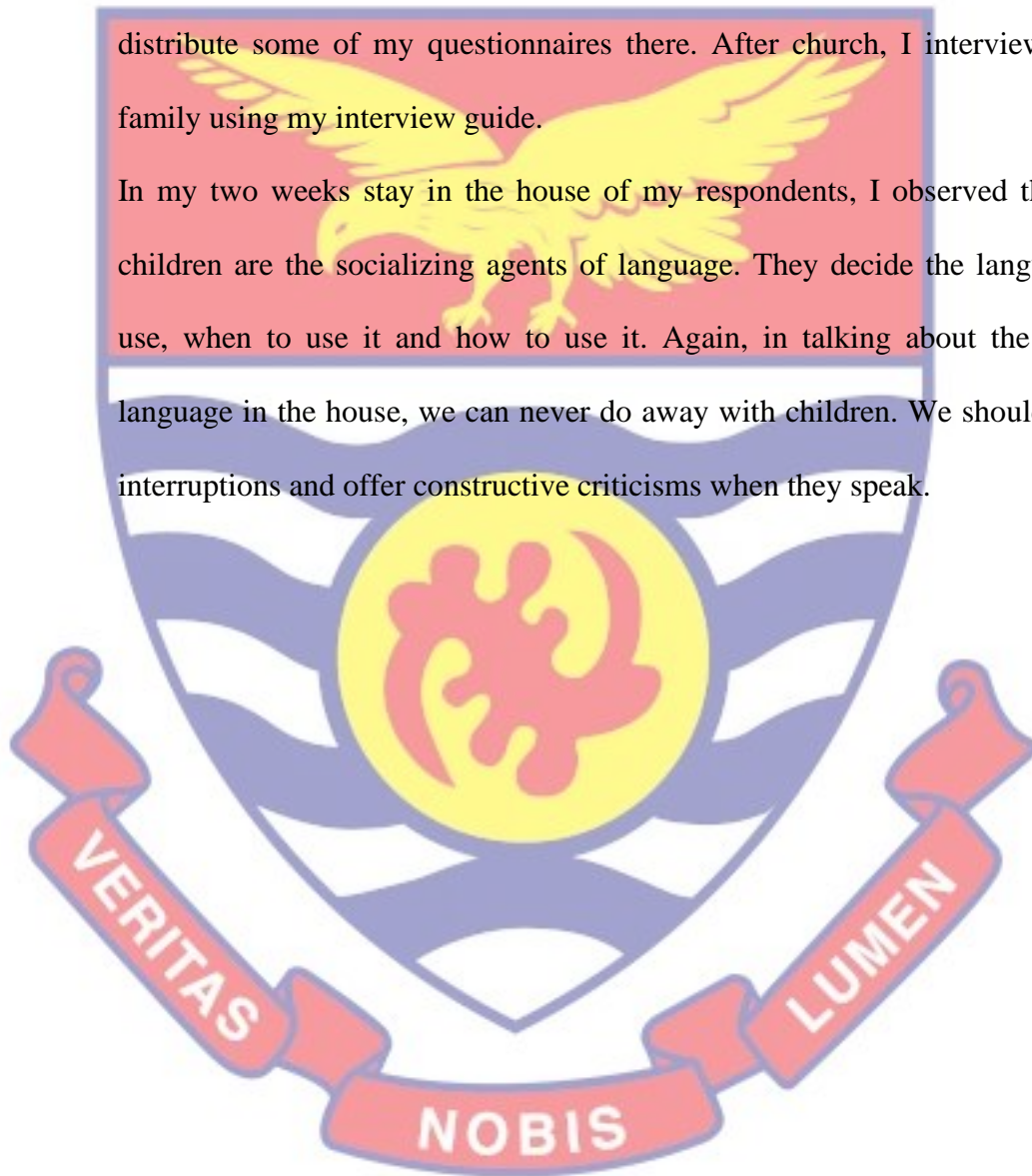
I also observed that since the children use English language at home, their expression of certain things were easy. Once a while, in the absence of their parents, they spoke the L1 (not their mother tongue-Ga).

At church, I observed that almost all the children spoke the English Language.

It was their medium of instruction and worship. This paved the way for me to

distribute some of my questionnaires there. After church, I interviewed the family using my interview guide.

In my two weeks stay in the house of my respondents, I observed that, the children are the socializing agents of language. They decide the language to use, when to use it and how to use it. Again, in talking about the use of language in the house, we can never do away with children. We should avoid interruptions and offer constructive criticisms when they speak.



APPENDIX D

RESPONDENT A (LANGUAGE DIARY)

Day 1

I used code mixing during this sentence I used a Ga word in an English sentence because I wanted to express myself very well when I was communicating with my grandma.

Later that afternoon I asked my aunt (Madam Flora) if she wanted to eat pawpaw. After she replied in English I also replied in the Ga dialect, I did this because I heard her speaking Ga to grandma.

That night I went to my Grandpa's house. I had to use the Fante dialect to greet him in order to show him respect. I asked my little sister to greet grandpa too so I said

"kad3" good evening.

Day 2

Saturday morning I met an old friend. During our conversation I spoke a Fante word

That same morning, during breakfast I asked my Grandma to pass the fruit salad. I spoke the Ga dialect but used "fruit salad" which was an English word in a Ga sentence

When I was out playing with some new found friends, I had to use the Fante dialect because I didn't want them to feel different from me.

Day 3

Sunday morning my grandpa spoke in a Fante dialect asking me to wash my uniform. I replied using a Fante sentence since I wanted him to understand what I fully meant.

Later that afternoon, I was sent to a local shop down the street to buy food stuff. Once again I had to use the Fante dialect because the shop owner barely understood what I said in English.

So in total most of the sentences I used that weekend were almost all code mixing.

Day 4

Monday morning before school I had a call from my mom who had travelled to Italy. She asked me about my studies and I replied in Fante because she was speaking the Fante dialect.

That afternoon when I was taking a car back home from school I spoke with the driver using the Fante dialect” gy3 wo sika”

Later that evening I was helping my grandma when she was preparing dinner, we spoke English throughout that night.

Day 5

This is on Wednesday Afternoon after class, a classmate of mine asked me to wait for him. He asked in Fante dialect when he was talking with me but I replied using English.

Later that late afternoon, I was asked by a senior if I could speak the Fante dialect. I said “yes” but he thought I was joking so I proved him wrong by answering all his questions in Fante.

Day 6

Thursday morning when I woke up, I was greeted by our neighbor when I was on my way to school so I replied in Fante.

That same morning when I took a taxi to school, I told the driver that I was getting off at next junction using the Fante dialect.

Again that same morning, I was asked by a woman who had a baby in her lap to give her money because the child was sick in Fante. She said “ma me sika”

Day 7

Friday morning, before I left for school, my cousin came to me to borrow a brush but I also couldn't find mine so I told him that using Fante.

That afternoon while I was taking my pen from a classmate who sat behind me, the pen fell so I asked her to pick it up for me. I said this in English without using the Fante dialect.

Day 8

Saturday morning I was helping my grandma with the preparation of breakfast. She asked me to bring her a saucepan so that she could use it to fry the eggs. I said “matse”

Saturday afternoon I went to watch a football match which involved my favourite team “Chelsea”. My friend made a bet with me so I obliged using the Fante dialect.

Day 9

Sunday morning, I went to church and after we closed, I was asked by an old woman if I could buy her a bottle of water, I nodded and went to buy the water and while I was buying the water I used Fante.

That afternoon I came home for lunch but the food was served late so I asked my aunt (Madam Flora) why the food was served so late. I asked this using English but she replied with Fante so I had to reply back with Fante

Sunday evening was a great night because we had a family gathering. Lots of questions were asked and most of them were in Fante so I had to reply using the Fante dialect

Day 10

Monday morning, I had to wake up early because I had school and I had to study early before I left for classes. My aunt called me when I was studying. She asked me to come fix the TV channel because she wanted to watch BBC news. While I was fixing it, I had a conversation with her and it was full of

Fante.

That afternoon when my dad returned from his trip we spoke English, he hardly spoke any local language except Ga sometimes with grandma.

Day 11

Tuesday morning at school, a senior asked me if I could speak Fante she asked me a question in Fante and I also replied in Fante, she was so shocked and that made me chuckle a bit.

That afternoon on my way home I met a friend on the railway we spoke English throughout the whole conversation.

Day 12

Wednesday morning when I was ready to go to school I was sent by my grandma to go to a nearby store to buy some foodstuffs. I talked to the employee using the Fante dialect

That afternoon while I was waiting for dad after school, I had a call from my mom we spoke in Italian and said some words in Fante.

That same afternoon I told my grandma about the call I had from my mom. I used Fante, Ga and English to explain everything to her in detail.

Day 13

Thursday morning, we were on mid-terms, which meant I could sleep till 9: 00 am sadly that didn't happen because my grandma woke me up around 5: 30

am and I had to explain it to her that were on mid-term using Fante. Going back to sleep was really tough.

That afternoon, I needed a new phone charger because I had misplaced mine. Luckily there was a shop and I told the employee about the phone I had and he gave me the appropriate charger. Our conversation was filled with English.

Day 14

Friday morning, still on mid-terms, I decided to do some laundry. Fortunately for me there wasn't much laundry to do. But I was helped by my aunt (Madam Flora). She had been a really great help whenever it came to laundry. We had a conversation which was filled with both English and Fante.

That afternoon I spent most of my time playing games with my cousin, we talked using the Fante dialect but immediately my little sister joined us, we started speaking English she didn't understand Fante.

Once in a while my grandma would come upstairs to check on us if we needed anything in Ga : “aso ny3 tawo noko?”

but we replied

“daabi” using Ga and Fante;” y3n p3 hwee” since dad was not around.

RESPONDENT B (LANGUAGE DIARY)

Respondent – code switch and code mix

Gender: Female

Age: 28 years

Date: Wednesday

Time: 11: 50

Topic of conversation: homework

Activity: I was explaining a mathematical concept to my eight year old brother who didn't seem to get it so I had to code switch

Duration: 30 minutes

Why did you switch language: to make understanding better and clearer to my younger siblings.

Day 2

Day: Friday

Time: 5: 00 pm

Topic of conversation: cartoons

Activity: while watching TV program (cartoons), Lion King. I had to code switch several times with both brothers aged 12 and 8 with some terms or vocabularies they did not understand.

Duration: 1 hour

Why did you switch language – for a free flow of conversation and understanding.

Day 3

Day: Tuesday

Time: 6: 30 pm

Topic of conversation: watching cartoons on TV with elder brother

Activity: discussion on what we were watching. There seemed to be a misunderstanding between the interpretation he was giving me so upon probing, he code switched and said 'wontse ase!' You didn't watch from the beginning. I responded, 'yoo matse', I hear.

Why did you code switch: To assure him I had understood all that he was trying to explain to me.

Day 4

Day: Friday

Time: 7: 00 pm

Topic of conversation: Homework on creation

Activity: explaining the daily creations of God to my little brother. On the first

day of creation, God created the heavens and the earth (osor nye asaase)

Why did you code mix: for better understanding and clarification.

Day 5

Day: Saturday

Time: 2: 00 pm

Topic of conversation: The Simpsons, A cartoon series.

Activity: Both brothers code switch from English to Fante through the whole time they watched the episodes with some words (new vocabularies used in movies).I asked my little brother to get up from the couch,

Kiz it's 5:30 am 'sor ko guraa,make sure you brushed your teeth well or wonum be bon'

Why did you code switch: for better and fluent conversation between them.

Day 6

Day: Sunday

Time: 9: 00 am

Topic of conversation: Sermon

Activity: Pastor uses new vocabularies such as passion, ulterior motive etc. I had to explain this term to my younger brother since he asked me what it was.

I explained in Fante and English at the same time.

Why did you code switch: for clearer understanding

Day 7

Day: Sunday

Time: 5: 00 pm

Topic of conversation: cooking

Activity: while cooking, I wanted the earthenware pot to grind garden eggs, so

I sent my brother to get me the things and I said “Get me the earthenware pot and the “tapoli” for grinding.

Why did you code switch: I didn’t know the English name for “tapoli” grinder so I code mix for easy identification on the part of my brother.

Day 8

Day: Tuesday

Topic of conversation: discussions about life

Activity: we were sharing lots of ideas on what they want to become in future.

“I want to be a doctor so that “mew] pandze” I can inject patients. My little brother added”ami nso demaa” me too. It was funny. We just laughed it out and brushed it over.

Why did you code switch – for fun

Day 9

Day: Friday

Time: 2: 00 pm

Topic of conversation: playing candy crush

Activity: I needed more knowledge on how to crush the highest marked candies so my brothers mixed English with Fante to show me how to win. Y[no dei” do it this way”

Why did you code switch -for better understanding

Day 10

Day: Saturday

Time: 6: 00 am

Topic for discussion: morning devotion

Activity: Bible quotations and explanations. That's when I code switched after

I had quoted the bible, I had to explain in a local dialect.

Why did you code mix - for easy explanation.

Day 11

Day: Sunday

Time: 3: 00 pm

Topic for discussion: cooking

Enn3 yenni jollof.

Let's eat jollof today.

Activity: I was teaching my younger brother (12) to cook jollof rice. I had to show him the needed ingredients but there are some that don't have an English name example "adobo" so I mixed the English and local dialect.

Why did you code switch: easy identification

Day 12

Day: Monday

Time: 5: 30 am

Topic for discussion: morning devotion

Activity: I was praying and committing all of us into the care of the most high.

"Ewuradze yeda wo ase, we commit ourselves into your care.

Why did you code switch – for easy fluency

Day 13

Day: Wednesday

Time: 5: 00 pm

Topic for discussion: homework

Activity: The explanation of the homework was done by using both English and local dialect

Why did you code switch: for him to grasp the content without any difficulty.

Day 14

Day: Friday

Time: 6: 00 pm

Topic for discussion: homework (paper montage)

Activity: I had to guide him to cut some images from books to attach in his creative Arts book and the directions as to how to cut them appropriately, I spoke in Fante and English. “Cut it this way, menntwa ho”

Why did you code switch: so that he may get it right.

RESPONDENT C (LANGUAGE DIARY)

Only the English language is used in this home.

Day 1

Fred wake up and get ready for school.

Make sure you do your chores. Dress up then go for your food, we are running late. Make sure all your books are in your bag. Check that of your sister too.

Day 2

Afternoon at school

Fred: Daddy you are late for coming to pick us

Daddy: Sorry I had to go somewhere, it won't happen again. Were you given homework?

We: yes daddy but we have done them.

Fred: is mommy already home?

At home

Mommy: how was school?, put your things down and get to the bathroom.

Remember no television.

We: yes we know

Day 3

After school

Fred: our form master said we should tell our parents to come for P.T.A meeting on Friday.

The Fante Sir says he can't come today.

Mommy: then do something else but don't on the T.V.

My little sister also told my mom that her creative teacher says she should bring certain costume to school.

Day 4

After school

I went to my parents' room and my mom saw me there.

Mom: what are you doing in our room, make sure you don't mess up the place.

Fred: I'm just reading a book.

Mom: liar you think I don't know you are using my tablet, off it and leave my room.

In the evening I told daddy I wanted to take mommy's tablet to school tomorrow since it was a Friday.

Day 5

Daddy asked mommy to allow me take the tablet to school, but mommy didn't want to. They argue for some time but finally she allowed me.

Mom: You don't take good care of your things, if you spoil it that will be the end.

I promise I will keep it well, if I spoil it don't make me use anything of yours again.

Day 6

I wanted to go to grandpa's place but the Fante teacher came. He taught me Fante using English to explain certain things since I couldn't speak it. This was because I will be writing BECE next year. At grandpas place he helps me read the Fante using the Bible. I feel bad as a big boy who cannot help my little sister when she brings homework on Fante home.

Day 7

When I woke up mommy and Jessica were already gone to church. I joined them latter at church. At church we spoke English but we sing songs in the local languages. Today Aunt Flora visited and she helped me do my Fante assignment.

Afternoon

I visited grandpa because I didn't go there yesterday. He told me a story in Fante, where I couldn't understand he used English.

Day 8

In the morning I woke up as usual and did my chores. I asked Afi the house help to pack my books. Mom's car was faulty so we went together conversing in English.

Dad: be very attentive at school today, don't forget I will ask you what you learned.

Fred: we know.

After school

I helped my sister in doing her homework. We spoke English because it the language we use at home. Mom was not around so Afi called us to go for our food and bath before mom comes. I waited for dad to help me with my assignment on maths and he explained in English.

Day 9

We have PE at school but Afi didn't wash my kit, we argued in English. Mom heard and insulted Afi. I felt bad I will say sorry after school. That afternoon I couldn't do anything till I apologised to Afi. Dad was around so I felt good.

We chat for some time before we did our homework.

Day 10

I feel very bad on Wednesday to Friday because the first period at school today is Fante. The teacher knows I don't do well so he will ask me a lot of questions. I woke up early and read my notes on Fante. Madam Flora said I should learn it like any of the subjects.

After school

At home because English is spoken, people from my neighbourhood don't visit. I Went out to play football with some boys, though I didn't understand everything they said, I enjoyed being with them. I will go on Saturday too.

Day 11

After school

Dad asked about what happened at school. I told him everything but got annoyed when I told him about my marks in Science. When I complained of my marks in Fante he didn't worry, he said my colour shows that I am an African. He said concentrate on the subjects that will make you get your first choice.

Day 12

Daddy woke up early today and woke me up too. He talked to me about my sudden worry of not speaking any local language as a Ghanaian. He has promised to send me to my cousins at Akosombo after my BECE. He asked me to be attentive in school and leave the rest to him.

Day 13

We are on mid-terms but we the JHS have been asked to come to school at 9: am for extra classes.

Couldn't finished early so mom left me to go on my own and this make me happy because I will see some of the boys I played ball with last Saturday and become friends with them because they think we don't like people.

After classes

In my school we are allowed to send phone to school when we have classes, daddy called he couldn't come to pick me. I took a taxi home, I saw one of the

neighbours and told him we play ball tomorrow, he speaks good English, I think I like him.

Day 14

Hellow diary, today is a Saturday after doing everything I am going out to play with my friends. I am part of the community so I have to be part of their

language. Nobody know this, I don't want to be different from the people I stay around.




APPENDIX E
ETHICAL CLEARANCE

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OUR REF: ED/
YOUR REF:

13th February, 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

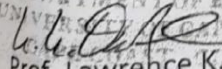
Dear Sir/Madam

Ms Flora Ohene-Asare is a Master of Philosophy (M Phil) student at the Department of English, University of Cape Coast. She is in the process of preparing her thesis on language use in the home. Since her work is expected to be based on naturally-occurring data, Flora will need to visit homes to interact with those who agree to participate in the research.

As her supervisor, and programme coordinator, I would be grateful if you could be of assistance to her.

Thank you in anticipation of your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

Prof. Lawrence K. Owusu-Ansah
(Coordinator, Graduate Programmes)