

**THE PLACE OF LANGUAGE POLICY IN EDUCATION IN TEACHING AND
LEARNING: A CASE STUDY OF TWO PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE EASTERN
CAPE PROVINCE**

NOMAKHOSAZANA JEANETTE RANI

2016



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LEARNING: A CASE STUDY OF TWO PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN THE EASTERN CAPE
PROVINCE**

BY

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Full thesis Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTERS OF EDUCATION

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University of Fort Hare

SUPERVISOR: DR J. A. Abongdia

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that *the place of language policy in education in teaching and learning: a case study of two primary schools in the Eastern Cape Province* is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. This research has not been previously submitted for any degree at the University of Fort Hare or any other institution.

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Date

Abstract

This study investigates the implementation of Language in Education Policy (LiEP) in learning and teaching in grades six from two schools. It critically examines the teachers' practices and experiences towards English as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) at two different primary schools from the eMalahleni in the Lady Frere Education District in the Eastern Cape. The study is guided by the fact that most learners use their mother tongue (isiXhosa) in classroom as well as outside classroom contexts. Furthermore, some teachers use the translation method of teaching language as they code-switch to their home language when teaching content subjects as well as English. Despite this practice in class, learners are expected to answer their test and examination questions in English. Theoretically, this study is underpinned by the constructivist view of language learning (Gaserfeld, 2003) and English as an international language (Sivasubramaniam, 2011). On the basis of the ecological and the constructivist approaches to language learning, Sivasubramaniam (2011 p.53) views language as a creative instrument of meaning which 'has the power to create meaning anew and afresh' each time that someone uses it. The study makes use of the qualitative research method with a case study design that is placed within the interpretive paradigm. The data collected will be analysed through the use of critical discourse analysis. The findings from the study suggest some instrumental motivations to use English as LOLT which is informed by Language policy. Some of these motivations are: studying abroad, business with foreign investors and integrative motivations as the learner will be able to communicate with people from different countries. The study concludes that there is need for schools to stick to the English medium because this acts as an open door to the upward economic mobility among the previously disadvantaged. Based on this, it can be recommended that schools stick to English first additional language as their language of teaching and learning.

Keywords: Language in Education policy in learning and teaching, English, isiXhosa, teachers, learners, experiences, home language, Lady Frere District.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the following people: My mom (Nocawa) and dad Zamilé Kula) who have been constantly praying for my success. My husband, Morris who has always been there for me for support and other sacrifices. Thanks ever so much my dear. You would sacrifice your time, your resources, love and patience just to see me get what I want.

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ACCRONYMS USED IN THE STUDY

LIEP-	Language in Education Policy
HL-	Home Language
NCS-	National Curriculum Statement
DOE-	Department of Education
ANA-	Annual National Assessment
LOLT-	Language of Learning and Teaching
EIL-	English as International Language
IIAL-	Incremental Introductory African Language
DBE-	Department of Basic Education
ESL-	English Second Language
MT-	Mother Tongue
CS-	Code switching
MOI-	Medium of Instruction
SYPP-	Six Year Primary Project
HOD-	Head of Department
NEP-	National Education Policy
PIRLS-	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
EFAL-	English First Additional Language
ANC-	African National Congress
PANSLAB-	Pan South African Language Board
SGB-	School Governing Body
LANTAG-	Language Plan Task Group
CAPS-	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement
ELT-	English Language Teaching
FLL-	Foreign Language Learning

SLL-	Second Language Learning
SLA-	Second Language Acquisition
TESOL-	Teaching English Speakers of Other Languages
CLT-	Cultural Language Teaching
CALP-	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CDA-	Critical Discourse Analysis
CA-	Critical Analysis
GET-	General Education and Teaching
REQV-	Relative Education Qualifications Value
SAQA-	South Africa Qualifications Authority
SACE-	South African Council of Education
SMT-	School Management Team
SASA-	South African Schools Act
ELL-	English Language Learning
UNESCO-	United Nations Educational, Scientific & Cultural Organization

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction/background

South Africa is a multilingual country with eleven official languages. The Constitution states that each of these languages should enjoy equal status and respect. It also recognises South African Sign Language and affirms everyone's right to be educated in the official language of his or her choice where reasonably practicable. The Language in Education Policy (LIEP) upholds the constitutional prescriptions. While the underlying principle is to maintain Home Language (HL) for learning and teaching, learners are also encouraged to acquire additional languages. In fact, the Policy sees multilingualism as a natural extension of our cultural diversity and an integral part of building a non-racial South Africa. The Language in Education Policy is an important step towards unifying a diverse people in a spirit of mutual understanding and in a common pursuit for excellence while working towards making all South African multilingual (LIEP, 1997).

The Department of Education's Language in Education Policy since 1998 is based on the principle of the rights of children to be educated in their mother tongue whilst having access to a global language such as English. The policy strives to make available home-language education from Grades One to Six. This stance of the language in Education policy counters the dominant view amongst teachers and parents that English is the key to a better life. Thus, the sooner children are taught in English, the better for their futures.

Confronted with low output levels and continued poor Grade 12 results as depicted by the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) diagnostic analysis of performance in a variety of subjects, it has become evident that learners are not able to understand, interpret and comprehend questions put forward for assessment. This limitation manifests itself in the quality of NCS results in critical and scarce skills subjects as well as getaway subjects; inclusive of isiXhosa mother tongue for a majority of our learners (Concept Document – Department of Education, 2014).

Since the advent of democracy in the post 1994, efforts to improve learners' performance by the Department of Education have failed to yield positive results.

The Eastern Cape Province continuously performs below National targets as attested by ANA and 2013 National Senior Certificate results analysis. Hence the provision supplementary materials in the form of question banks, whereby structured previous years question papers were used in schools to assist learners to improve their performances in languages (ANA-Analysis Department of Education, 2014).

The current South African Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (DoE, 1997) specifies that all learners must learn to read in their home languages from grades 1 to 3. In schools where English or Afrikaans is not the medium of instruction at the Foundation Phase, grade 4 signals a shift in the medium of instruction for all learning tasks to English. This change coincides with a change in the focus of learning from concrete basic skill development to progressively more abstract thinking and learning tasks across a variety of learning areas. In view of this, Dyers (2003) posits that teachers in certain schools in the country feel that the current South African LiEP (which advocates for the shift to English instruction after Grade 3 in schools with a majority of learners being English second language speakers) does not assist teachers. This therefore contributes to educational changes that have been announced by (Pandor, 2006).

Teachers feel very uncomfortable about this because at this stage, it is late to introduce English as a language of teaching and learning. At this stage, they struggle to introduce the language and many other subjects which are also done in English. Learners themselves feel overwhelmed by the work load which is done in English from Grade 4. Amendments to the policy may lead to the promotion of a further two years of mother tongue education. In effect, this means that the switch to English is now more likely to occur at the beginning of the Grade 7 year of schooling for those learners who have been learning in languages other than English or Afrikaans from the beginning of formal schooling. This shift in policy is in line with a large corpus of research into bilingual education “best practices” (Alidou et al., 2006). Nonetheless, despite this proposed change to six years of mother tongue education, if learners do not still developed the literacy skills and reading proficiency needed to cope with academic tasks and for academic progress, very little change on learners’ poor academic performance may be realised.

In South Africa, reading problems tend to be masked by language proficiency issues resulting in failure amongst learners. In this regard, Dyers (2003, p. 61) contends that educators are struggling to respond adequately to the increased linguistic diversity found amongst learners in their classrooms. Similarly, Heugh (2006, p. 56) affirms that most learners who have to make the transition to “reading to learn” in Grade 4 “simply fall into the gap between learning in the mother tongue and learning through a second language of education which in this case is English. Most teachers do not know how to help their learners successfully to bridge this gap”. Recently, planned alterations to the current LiEP were announced (Pandor, 2006). Amendments to the policy were thought to lead to the promotion of a further two years of mother tongue education.

In light of this, when developing a schools’ Language policy, the following factors need to be considered:

- The language preference of the majority of learners and parents of a school.
- The number of learners who ask for instruction in each of the other official languages.
- Other schools in the vicinity and their Language of Learning and Teaching (LOLT)
- The available space at a school.
- The ability of the educator(s) to teach in a particular language.

While the individual’s right to choose will always be respected, it will be influenced by the constraints and limitations of resources, facilities and practicability (LIEP, 1997).

The National Department of Education (2013) decided to introduce Incremental Introductory African Language (IIAL). This was the requirement of the National Development Plan that all South Africans have to learn at least one indigenous language as part of nation building and social cohesion. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) felt that this should be compulsory to all learners in public schools. The DBE claimed that it did its homework before implanting this policy though this was not well received by the ex-model C schools.

Emananjo et al. (2004, p.79) looked at the Nigerian language policy and saw a lot of flaws in the policy. The flaws in the policy raised the following questions:

- I. Doesn't the statement on language constitute just a statement of intent rather than a serious programme for implementation? If the mother tongue (MT) or the language of the immediate community is considered so important at the pre-primary level as an integral part of the child's culture and the link between the home and the school, why should it be "principal" and not "solely" used at this level?
- II. If the mother tongue or the language of the immediate community is considered a very important medium for achieving initial and permanent literacy and numeracy, why should it be only used 'initially' and not throughout the whole of primary education. The Ife Six Year Primary Project (SYPP) and "experimental" MT projected in Niger Republic have confirmed that those who have their total primary education in MT who had turned to technical pursuit have proved more resourceful than their counterparts. The SYPP children have demonstrated greater manipulative ability, manual dexterity and mechanical comprehension. They have demonstrated a great sense of maturity, tolerance and other affective qualities that make them integrate easily and readily with those they come in contact with"

Looking at other nation's language policies, the countries that one assumes are better-off seem to be struggling with language policy issue as well. Asia is seen as the future for the internationalisation of higher education where the globalisation of English is enabling this future. It is needful to stress that many countries in Asia have started to align their internationalisation strategies towards this focus. For example, Singapore's Minister of Education Heng Swee Keat concluded in his talk at the Singapore Management University on 16 February 2013 that:

Asia is going to be a critical part of our future. The more we understand what is going on in Asia, the better our future will be. We must position ourselves as a global Asian hub that connects Asia with the world.

The inherited language-in-education policy in South Africa has been fraught with tensions, contradictions and sensitivities which are underpinned by racial and linguistic discrimination. A number of these discriminatory policies have affected

either the access of the learners to the education system or their success within it (*The National Education Policy Act (NEP)* (Act 27 of 1996).

In the South African context from 1994 up until 2012, the language model adopted provided for learners to begin with their home language as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) for three years and then learners are moved to the second language or additional language (English) as the LoLT. The time span of three years is deemed insufficient to acquire the linguistic requirements of oral and written language needed for an academic education. The switch of the language of instruction in year four takes place precisely when the curriculum moves from reading simple stories to complex academic texts. The switch is premature because at this stage, learners have insufficient language to adopt it as LoLT. They have not acquired and consolidated the instrumental knowledge in the first language to use it to acquire the second.

Studies have linked the poor achievement of learning outcomes in the early grades (Grades 1-5) to the use of poor language proficiencies. In the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS, 2011) the Grade 4 learners who were tested in English and Afrikaans on an easier assessment compared to their counterparts internationally did relatively well: - However, those tested in African languages achieved very low outcomes despite most writing in their home language- Learners tested in Sepedi and Tshivenda were especially low, representing the poorest performing African language groups. In addition, nearly half of the children did not speak the language of the test before school, resulting in a significant difference in achievement (Draft Policy: July, 2013).

The aims of this draft policy are to:

- To improve proficiency in and utility of African languages at HL level, so that learners are able to use their home language proficiently for academic purposes as the language of learning and teaching;
- Increase access to language by all learners, beyond English and Afrikaans, by requiring all non-African Home Language speakers to learn an African language; and

- Promote social cohesion and economic empowerment and expand opportunities for the development of African languages as a significant way of preserving heritage and culture.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Most schools in rural areas are flooded with poor literacy backgrounds. As a result, schools do not appear to prepare learners adequately for high school (LIEP, 1998). Another disturbing factor is that of the language policy and Bill of Rights which sound good on paper but which are poorly implemented leading to the issue of policy versus implementation (Abongdia, 2013). Another very important factor that seems to affect learners seriously is the change in curriculum which also has serious implications on the language of learning and teaching.

1.3 Research questions

1.3.1 Main Research Question

What is the place of the language policy in education (LiEP) in teaching and learning?

1.3.2 Sub- Research Questions

- What provisions have been made to develop teachers to teach additional languages?
- What teaching strategies are available for teachers?
- What teaching training and developmental strategies are available for teachers?
- How does the LiEP foster or impede learning.

1.4 Purpose of the study

This study seeks to explore the ways in which teachers in Eastern Cape Province of South Africa can be assisted to implement the language and language in Education policies. This study, further attempts to investigate whether the LiEP fosters or impedes learning.

1.5 Significance of the study

The study may help to address the challenges faced by teachers in using and implementing the language policy. It may also suggest some strategies and methods which could be followed in all schools in order to improve and broaden learners' application in and outside school. It is further anticipated that the findings of this research may assist the government/schools in adopting a language policy that can be well developed and implemented properly. This can increase and motivate teachers to be more confident in the teaching academic language. Based on the above, the study may be able to improve learners and teachers' skills and as such put them in a position to respond and interpret texts properly in a given context with a better understanding. Such comprehension may result to a high percentage of learners who can respond to questions adequately. In addition, it may be able to improve the pass rates and learner's performance in the PIRLS.

1.6 Scope of the study

The study focused on two primary schools in the Lady Frere Education District in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. 6 Participants were used which included; two parents, two teachers and two learners from two different schools. One participant in each category from two grade 6 classes were used, with one class from each of the schools.

1.7 Definition of terms

Language in Education Policy **LiEP** – (this is a policy determined by the Constitution that needs to be applied in schools) Is what the government does officially through legislation, court decision, or policy to determine how languages are used, cultivate language skills needed to meet national priorities or to establish the rights of individuals or groups to use and maintain languages (Shohamy, 2006).

Language of Learning and Teaching **LoLT** (this is the language that the School Governing body has agreed upon that the learners are going to be taught in. this used to be called medium of instruction) It refers to the language of instructions used by teachers to teach (English), a foreign language to non-English speakers it is also

called a medium of content learning (Uys et al, 2007) It is teaching through Foreign Language

Department of Education –**DoE** – (this is the Institution that provides policies for the learning and teaching of learners It is a department of federal executive branch responsible for providing federal aid to educational institutions and financial aid to student, keeping national educational records, and conducting some educational research.

Department of Basic Education **DBE** - (this is an office where the minister is based and craft policies to be used in school in South Africa) It was formed when the National Department of Education was split into two (DBE- Department of Basic Education and DHET-Department of Higher Education and Training). It deals with schools from Grade R to Grade 12 including Adult Literacy Programmes. Its aim is to develop maintain and support South African schools for the 21st century.

Home Language **HL** –A language the learners acquire from birth at home. Learners who learn through their home language are more likely to engage in the learner-ship process and they benefit from the use of their home language in education in the early grade years. The skills and concepts thoughts are natural and less stressful to all (Kioko, 2015).

Annual National Assessment **ANA** –(this is a standardized test set at the DBE national office to be written by all South African learners to measure how the system is working (this was introduced in 2010 and was originally written by Grades 1,3 &6 Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase. The focus is on language and mathematics. Question Papers and Memos are supplied by the National DBE office. ANA targets Numeracy and Literacy because these have been found universal to be the key foundation skills, for successful learning in school and beyond. It is administered in eleven languages.

National Curriculum Standards **NCS** - (this is a curriculum where the performance of learners is measured with assessment standards). It is the culmination of the efforts of the government to transform the curriculum bequeathed by apartheid. It is internationally bench-marked and will require knowledge and skills to participate and contribute to a democratic South Africa and its economy.

1.8 Brief overview of the chapters

The study is structured in six chapters outlined as follows:

Chapter one: contains the introduction and overview of the study on the implementation of the Language in Education Policy in the teaching and learning process. It lays the groundwork for the research project and includes the statement of the problem, the research questions, the research objective, and the problem statement, the purpose for undertaking the study and the significance thereof. The chapter concluded with the definition of key concepts and a brief summary.

Chapter two: is the review of the related literature which provides a more detailed context for the research project, i.e. implementation of Language in Education Policy by EFAL speakers (English for the purpose of the study). Furthermore, literature on the role that English plays locally and internationally, the theories that underpin the research and other factors related to it. The researcher reviewed works on the implementation of language policy as well as language of instruction and critically engaged the information with the study. This provided a solid theoretical and conceptual background to which the findings of the research were related.

Chapter three: gives an overview of the methodology and details the research design, paradigm and the data gathering instruments. It is a qualitative study which falls within the interpretive paradigm. Research protocol is discussed in detail.

Chapter four: focused on the presentation and analysis of the empirical data gathered through semi-structured interviews and observations. The data was then analysed and interpreted; coding was applied for the identification of themes.

Chapter five: contained findings which pertain to the interpreted data and supported by literature.

Chapter 6: was the conclusions and valuable recommendations are made regarding the implementation of Language in Education Policy by EFAL speakers through the use of English MOI settings.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter laid the groundwork and provided a framework for the study. It made known the researcher's intentions and why he/she is conducting the study. A broad background of the topic is given and the problem statement contextualized to inform and to explain to readers what prompted an investigation into the implementation of Language in Education Policy by teachers in the classrooms. The chapter also introduced the research questions and the sub questions which guided the study and the objectives are clarified. Key concepts were defined and applied in order to avoid any misunderstandings. A brief overview of each chapter has been given in order to give the reader an appetizer into the contents of each chapter and how the researcher went about conducting the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The chapter presents a review of literature that is relevant in investigating the implementation of the language policy by teachers on isiXhosa background learners in English First Additional Language (EFAL). McMillian and Schumacher (2001 p.108) describe literature review as “....a narrative interpretative criticism of the existing research”. They further argue that if that review is conducted carefully and well presented, undoubtedly it would add much to an understanding of the selected problem and might place the results of a study in a historical perspective. Hence in this chapter, an attempt is made to review related literature on the topic under study.

2.2. Historical background of language policy in SA

The South African (SA) Language Policy was introduced after 1994 when South Africa became a democratic country. This Language Policy aimed to redress the injustices of Apartheid where English and Afrikaans were given a higher status at the expense of other languages and also to facilitate access to good services, knowledge and information in order to meet clients' expectations and needs (Eastern Cape Language Policy 1998)). Prior to 1994 English and Afrikaans were used as official languages throughout South Africa. Only students whose mother tongue was English or Afrikaans were at an advantage. The majority of South Africans speak an African language as a home language. For example, there are about 22% Zulu speakers and 18% isiXhosa speakers while 16% speak Afrikaans and less than 10% speak English as their first language. The rest of the population speaks other indigenous languages (National Department of Education, 1992). All that changed after 1994 when 11 languages were declared official languages and given the same status in the country. This was a way of promoting African languages which were neglected in the past. Provinces were free to choose which of the official languages to declare as official languages at regional level (Barkhuizen and Gough, 1996). In the Eastern Cape, the official languages are; isiXhosa, Sesotho, English and Afrikaans. These are the dominant languages in the region. IsiXhosa is spoken by 83.8%, Afrikaans by 9.6%, English 3.7%, Sesotho 2.2% and others 0.7% (Probyn

2001). The Bill of Human Rights (section 31) established the notion of languages as a fundamental human right. It states that:

- i) Every person shall have the right to use the language of his/her choice.
- ii) No person shall be discriminated against on the grounds of language.
- iii) Every person has a right to insist that the state communicates with him/her at national level in the official language of his/her choice (Senate sub-committee on languages, 1995).

2.3. Conceptualising language and language policy

Different definitions for language have been suggested by researchers, for example language is commonly described as the means through which a person learns to organise experiences and thoughts. It stands at the centre of the many interdependent cognitive, affective and social factors that shape teaching (Thomas & Collier, 2001). This is an important study especially considering the fact that “language is not everything in education, but without language everything is nothing in education” (Wolf, 2006 p.11)

However, Shohamy (2007 p.5) refers to language as an “open, dynamic, energetic constantly evolving and personal” that encompasses the rich complexities of communication. To Shohamy, language is not a thing to be studied but a way of seeing, understanding and communicating about the world. In view of this, each language user uses his or her own language(s) differently to do so. People use language for purposeful communication. Thus, learning a new language involves learning how to use words, rules and knowledge about language and its use in order to communicate with speakers of that language.

According to Mba (2011 p.5), language policy is “a conscious choice of a language or languages in relation with the social life of people. On the other hand, language planning is actually the implementation of language choices using the most convenient channels, empowering the different steps of the process, providing the necessary financial means and trained manpower and constantly assessing its effectiveness for instant reorientation.” Spolsky and Shohamy (2009) define language policy as an effort by someone with or claiming authority to change the

language practice (or ideology) of someone else. Within the language policy, the policy makers have some level of authority over those expected to follow its requirements. They make reference to Ager (1996) who refers to language policy as obtaining power rather than distributing it. When creating a language policy, the question to be answered is: for whom is this policy intended? And who are the policy makers? Spolsky and Shohamy (2009) think that if language policy aims at changing language practice, then there is a need to study not just policy making but the implementation and evaluation of the policy as well. Thus, for policy to be analysed, it becomes very important to evaluate its impacts on the users.

Brumfit (2006) in his contribution to language policy says that all humans are born with the ability or capacity to acquire all language(s) that they are exposed to. They have no genetic links to a particular language. He further notes that thresholds are found both between and within languages with liminality as a characteristic of contemporary language use. Liminality is a situation where people shift from (and eventually lose) their original identity, role and positions. This happens as the liminal person moves from one place to another dropping and acquiring new values (Pavlenko and Blackledge 2004; Turner 1982). Pavlenko and Blackledge further say that languages are constructed just like identity depending on the political, individual or group needs/choices. Brumfit (2006 p.36) in his research on language policy in Europe argues that “policy making is normally aspirational and symbolic”. What is significant about a policy is what is excluded more than what is included and what is considered desirable to the policy makers. Conversely, Brumfit thinks that a policy might run the risk of not being practical and not meeting the needs of the people. “People’s individual repertoires are modified, changed and widened because of language contact resulting from the permeability of language boundaries. Hence, such extended repertoires frequently find no reflection in language policies” (Brumfit 2006 p. 37).

However, Omoniyi (2004) suggests that Language policy (LP) is the deliberate attempt to change an individual’s or community’s use of a language or languages or a variety or varieties. Communities exist at local, regional, national, international or increasingly cross-border (Omoniyi 2004) levels and agents of Language Policy (LP) may try to influence the language behaviour of such different groups (or users).

According to Kennedy (2011p.2) LP decision-takers are also found operating at different levels from macro to me so to micro. They can be groups or individuals acting within local, regional, national and international contexts. He further argues that the levels, both those pertaining to those creating policy and those affected by policy are imprecise and not always easily defined; where on the cline you put different language policies can be subjective. Kennedy posits that traditionally, LP can be seen as operating at macro-levels; for example, national initiatives by governments. He added that the recognition of other levels is however important since people can become aware that LP is carried out not only by governments but also by groups and individuals. Policy initiatives may be targeted not only at national groups but also at group and individual users in regional and local contexts.

2.3.1 Language policy in South Africa

The new Language Policy of post 1994 supports the democratization of South Africa (Bengu, 1996). It aims at redressing the past linguistic imbalances and encouraging multilingualism. Its ultimate aim is to avoid the continued dominance of English and Afrikaans while ensuring linguistic freedom of choice. Multilingualism is seen as challenging English as the language of power (ANC, 1992). The policy of promoting all 11 languages implies that English should no longer enjoy any special privileges (Botha, 1994). There is little doubt that using English as a language of learning often denies access to better education for black rural students while at the same time maintaining the privileged status. It is for this reason that the South African Language Policy addresses the issues of status, access, equity and empowerment, based on the following principles:

1. The right for the individual to choose which language or languages to study and to use as a language of learning (medium of instruction).
2. The right of the individual to develop linguistic skills, in the language or languages of his/her choice, which are necessary for full participation in national, provincial and local life.

3. The necessity to promote and develop South African languages that were previously disadvantaged and neglected (ANC, 1994 pp.124-134).

The goals of the Language Policy in South Africa are:

- I. To promote national unity.
- II. To entrench democracy, which includes the protection of language rights?
- III. To promote multilingualism.
- IV. To promote respect for and tolerance towards linguistic and cultural diversity.
- V. To further the elaboration and modernization of the African languages.
- VI. To promote national economic development (Department of Arts, Culture Science and Technology, 1996 p.23).

It is evident that the South African Language Policy outlines a framework for the implementation of Language in Education Policy whose main objective is to promote multilingualism. This policy has two goals namely; to encourage the teaching of African Languages at all levels of education and parents' right to choose which language to be used as a medium of instruction. Meyer (1997) indicates that any decision affecting Language in Education Policy needs to be rooted to the realities on the ground. The importance of decisions pertaining to language policy to be taken at local and regional level must be emphasised. Hence, the Pan African Language Board (PANSLAB) has appointed staff members at regional level to attend to all language needs of all the nine provinces. The problem that is still not very clear from the policy is whether the aim is to achieve individual or societal multilingualism.

The government has attempted to use education as a tool to drive and achieve its multilingual goals. As a result, the Language Plan Task Group (LANTAG) was established in 1995 by the- then Minister of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology to advise on the development of a comprehensive language plan. According to the group, the Language in Education Policy should:

- 1 Encourage the educational use of African languages at all levels of education.
- 2) Allow people to choose which language or languages are used as languages of learning and which languages are studied (Meyer, 1997:126).

2.3.2. Language policy in Schools

The new Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) of 1997 (Department of Education, 1997) obliges each school to decide on their own language policy. Such a choice is in terms of the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and languages to be taught as subjects. This is echoed in CAPS that learners have to learn at least two official languages as subjects and one of these should be the LoLT. Thus, school language policies should promote 'additive bilingualism', defined as maintaining home languages while providing access to and the effective, acquisition of additional languages. Although the LiEP encourages the use of learners' home languages as LoLT, it appears that the trend in township and rural schools have been towards not only retaining English as LoLT, but introducing it even earlier than before (Vinjevold, 1999; Probyn, et al. 2002). This is meant either to bring the switch to English in line with the beginning of the Intermediate Phase in the new curriculum (Grade 4) or to start with English as LoLT from Grade 1.

In the Eastern Cape Province where this research was conducted, isiXhosa is the home language of 83, 8% of the population and English speakers comprise only 3.7% (Probyn, 2005). Nevertheless, Probyn argues that English is the LoLT for the majority of learners from the beginning of Grade 4. This is despite the fact that a majority of the learners in township and rural schools (over 80% of learners) have little exposure to English outside the classroom, television and popular music. Research confirms the common sense assumption that these learners use their home language at their homes and in their communities (Probyn et al, 2002; PANSALB 2000; Strauss, 1999: 22). In this regard, Cencus (2001) observes that they would have little direct contact with home language English speakers since these home language speakers constitute only 9% of the population. It appears that a majority of these learners have limited access to reading materials: a national survey found that only 10 percent of the parents bought newspapers and magazines; more than 50 percent indicated they had access to fewer than 10 books (Strauss, 1999:25); and 83 percent of all the schools have no libraries (Bot and Shindler, 1997: 80-81).

In fact the linguistic contexts in majority of the schools in township and rural areas mitigate against teachers and learners strictly adhering to English. Instead, there is a gap between the intended and enacted language policies with a range of bilingual classroom practices that is evident. Outside the major metropolitan areas in the province of Gauteng where township schools are truly multilingual, the typical linguistic scenario is that of a school community where learners and teachers share a common home language (Heugh 2002: 185). For instance, in the Eastern Cape, 88% of Grade 8 learners and 82% of Grade 8 teachers are isiXhosa home language speakers (EMIS, 2001). What this entails is that in such schools, the lingua franca amongst teachers and learners is their common home language, with the use of English confined to the classroom (Probyn et al, 2002).

2.4 Language planning

Language planning is defined by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997 p.3) as “a body of ideas, laws, and regulations (language policy), change, rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in the language used in one or more communities. To put it differently, language planning involves deliberate and although not always overt future oriented change in systems of language code and/or speaking in a societal context”. According to Mühlausler (2000), languages are not isolated systems but interact with other systems outside linguistics such as culture, politics and environment.

Adegbija (1989) suggests five stages for planning to take place:

- The first stage is the ‘spadework phase’ that deals with fact finding and policy formation;
- The second phase deals with the mass mobilisation and enlightenment stage where the plan is advertised and citizens are educated on it and required to familiarise themselves with the plan;
- The third stage deals with the implementation of the policy;
- The fourth phase actually evaluates the policy by monitoring its effectiveness and problems based on the objectives of the policy;

The final phase is the review stage where changes are made based on the evaluation stage.

In view of the above, Adegbija (2007) argues that language practitioners should follow these stages since language is not isolated but forms “a part of eco-linguistic structure impinged upon by other elements within the structure” (p. 217). To him, in every multilingual environment, language planning is imperative in areas like national language, official languages, language of intercultural/interethnic communication, language of international communication and most importantly, language of education. In the Nigerian context, the language of education has had a lot of attention as this area affects all other areas in society. However, an attempt to make Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo national languages has failed in its implementation. English in the Nigerian context is the language of wider communication while major community languages are tacitly used for inter-ethnic communication. Note should be taken that in Nigeria, there is no language planning document *per se* (Adegbija (2007) and the national policy on education covers all aspects of language policy in in the country. The policy notes that Nigeria is a multilingual society and for this reason it includes the “mother tongue medium policy” (MTMP) as well as the “multilingual policy” (Bamgbose 1991).

In light of the on-going debate, a country’s language policy can be in the form of “a clause in a national constitution, a language law, a cabinet document or an administrative regulation” (Spolsky and Shohamy 2000 p.3). Thus, any language policy reflects a government’s particular political agenda behind the proposed strategies and models of how the policy should be implemented. Language Policy is what a government does either officially through legislation, court decisions or policy to determine how languages should be used. Usually, this takes into consideration which language skills are needed to meet national priorities and how to establish the rights of individuals or groups to use and maintain languages.

Spolsky and Shohamy (2000) define language policy as “an effort by someone with or claiming authority to change the language practice (or ideology) of someone else”. Within a language policy, the policy maker has some level of authority over those expected to follow its requirements. Based on this, when creating a language policy, the users of that language must be bore in mind. Secondly, the person who makes the policy is also very important and should know the language needs of the users. Hence, Spolsky and Shohamy think that if language policy aims at changing

language practice, then there is a need to study not just policy making but the implementation and evaluation of the policy as well. Said differently, when analysing a language policy, it would be useful to evaluate its impact on the users.

In view of this, Alexander (2003) reveals that Post-apartheid South Africa has established an impressive array of language planning agencies and other language policy implementation institutions. To him among the most important of these is the Pan South African Language Board (PANSALB), an independent statutory body which has the mandate to advise central and provincial government on all matters pertaining to language policy and language use. He goes further to say that at approximately the same level, there is the National Language Service (NLS), which is the state's language arm located in the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology. He further argues that although many of the functions of these two super language planning agencies tend to overlap, the NLS is much more focused on practical issues of translation, interpreting and language technology. PANSALB on the other hand, has a provincial language body in each of the nine provinces and each of the 11 official languages has (on paper) a lexicographic unit that is usually located in one or more universities in that province. Furthermore, he stipulates that there are also 14 National Language Bodies which have the task of seeing to the corpus development of the respective languages. Alexander also claims that on paper, the language infrastructure appears to be in place. However, goes on to say that there are many practical problems as well as lack of political will and strategic clarity in respect of the evolving language dispensation. To him, these factors may result in a frustrating zigzag process from the point of view of those who realise that the transitional period in post-apartheid South Africa with its distinctive sense and expectation of change and transformation represents a unique opportunity for making major advances on the road to a truly democratic multilingual and multicultural society. Not to make use of this rare opportunity would be tantamount to retarding the realisation of the developmental potential of one of the wealthiest countries on the continent. In this regard, language in education policy has to promote inter-group communication and understanding (Alexander 2003). He concludes that the best way of doing so is via mother tongue-based bilingual education and the promotion of individual multilingualism (or plurilingualism) rather than by means of reliance on a *lingua franca* only.

In addition, he also notes that this is the rationale for the official language in education policy of “additive bilingualism” (i.e. the addition of another language and maintenance of the first/mother language). Accordingly, he says that mother tongue-based bilingual education is more easily comprehensible to non-specialists. Moreover, Alexander (2003) asserts that language in education policy of “additive bilingualism” has the advantage that in a context of continuing suspicion about the value of mother tongue education, the objective of the system goes beyond the use of the mother tongue as a language of learning when it points to the learning of additional languages and to their use as languages of teaching and learning. To this effect, Alexander reveals that this trajectory has advanced furthest in the Western Cape Province where the new Minister of Education appointed a Task Team to draft an implementation plan for the introduction of seven years of mother tongue education and the learning of a third language. Based on this in the Eastern Cape Province, the three official languages, i.e. Afrikaans, English and isiXhosa are expected to be learned by all primary school pupils.

In the African continent, this move is no less than revolutionary as nowhere in south of the Sahara is any official provision made for mother tongue education beyond the third or fourth year (Alexander 2003). Alexander posits that there are indications of a return to mother tongue education and these remain at the moment in the realm of rhetoric, whereas the entire thrust of the policy of the Western Cape is towards budget provision for the implementation of a policy whose time has come.

2.5 Theoretical framing

The study is underpinned within two frameworks which are the Foncha’s (2013) intercultural communication competence and Sivasubramaniam’s (2011) English as an international language.

2.5.1 Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC)

Theoretically, this study is structured within Foncha’s (2013) framework of intercultural communication competence as well as English as an international language. According to Foncha, intercultural communication competence can be

viewed as an individual's ability to: learn about other cultures, apply these skills to unknown situations, understand cultural references together with knowledge of the culture and finally, respect and tolerate all other cultures with the use of any given language. Based on the above discussion, South African Basic Education favours English as the language of teaching and learning where the use of English has become a social practice within its diverse classrooms. English should be seen as the language that can unify the diverse classrooms in their daily social practices. In the context of this study, such an objective can only be achieved if English is learnt as a social practice by making the classroom environment affective for its learners. In a way, this framework seems to favour the use of a neutral language as the language of teaching and learning to make sure that everyone is at the same level.

In multilingual and multicultural schools like the ones under study, it is apparent that —no educational process is free from the influence of language, and so the role of language is central to any educational process (Sivasubramaniam 2004 p.187). In light of this, the learning of new languages, discourses and cultures are processes that contribute to our understanding of language education but most importantly, the human condition (Brumfit and Mitchell 1990). In light of the above, Foncha (2013) argues that the greatest difficulty that people have in learning a language is in speaking it, not in understanding it. In other words, there is need to be exposed to a community of a given language to learn that language. In the case of the participants in this study, the only exposure they have is in the context of the classroom and teachers need to be aware of this so that they should focus mainly on the communicative side of language (language learning as social practice). Voice and agency becomes very crucial factor in foregrounding competence. The context of interaction should then be taken very important as far as learning and using a language are concerned. In view of this, language policy, planning and implementation need to be well thought out.

According to Foncha (2013), understanding the role that English as the language of instruction plays in intercultural communication competence is necessary to reinforce its relevance and the competence in the context where interaction takes place. He further asserts that meaning from language should not be seen as static and objective but rather as a dynamic and a discursive structure that has been

constructed by this researcher as an insider (Sivasubramaniam 2011 p.53). This can be explained as the emotional and the affirmative involvement of the researcher with the participants in the study form the basis of the understanding of the context as a sociocultural phenomenon. In other words, the conceptualization of intercultural communication competence can only be seen in terms of context based confirmations rather than as a universal truth of a temporal knowledge (Sivasubramaniam 2004 p.54). This view is meant to suggest a new perspective of English as the medium of instruction which is more socially and more socio linguistically sensitive. The meaning of the words that we use, our actions and our behaviours are socially constructed and personally interpreted (Dyers and Foncha 2012). In other words, language (the use of words and signs) is unable to represent an objective world. In this regard, Sivasubramaniam (2011) observes that words are not pictures of the world but representation of social practices that allow a community of human beings to understand each other. Based on the above discussion, there does not appear to be any universal language through which reality can be explained. Thus an understanding of a given context can account for the degree of competency in the language in use. On the basis of the ecological and the constructivist approaches to language learning, Sivasubramaniam (2011 p.53) views language as a creative instrument of meaning which —has the power to create meaning anew and afresh each time that someone uses it.

According to McKay (2002) it is not the number of native speakers of English, but the large number of non-native speaker of English who make it “a language of wider communication’, thus, an international language. McKay further suggests four reasons why English is an international Language:

- English is used as a communicative language both internationally and globally within multilingual societies.
- It is no longer connected to cultures.
- It becomes embedded in the culture of that particular country which it is used.
- Its function is to enable speakers to share their ideas and cultures too.

Jenkins (2003) states that International English is the concept of the English language as a global means of communication in numerous dialects, and also the movement towards an international standard for the language. It is also referred to as Global English, World English, Common English, Continental English and General English which is regarded as English as an associate language. These terms refer simply to the array of varieties of English spoken throughout the world (Jenkins, 2003). He further commends sometimes, "international English" and the related terms above refer to a desired standardisation, that is Standard English; however, there is no consensus on the path to this goal. There have been many proposals for making International English more accessible to people from different nationalities. Basic English is an example, but it failed to make progress. More recently, there have been proposals for English as a lingua franca (ELF). It has also been argued that International English is held back by its traditional spelling. There has been slow progress in adopting alternate spellings. Smith (2003) indicates that the domination of the English language globally is undeniable. English is the language of diplomacy and international communications, business, tourism, education, science, computer technology, media and Internet.

Based on these, English is used to develop communication, technology, programming, software, etc. In short, it dominates the web as 70% of all information stored electronically is in English. Kamwangamalu (2003) argues that English is also seen as a language that has the potential to diminish the importance of other languages and to impact negatively on other cultures. This situation is paralleled in Africa and South Africa where English is both welcomed and resisted. In the post-colonial era, many sub-Saharan African countries chose to adopt English as either a national or official language (Jenkins, 2003 and Leith, 1997). This can be largely ascribed to the belief that English is a language that offers high status and many benefits. Aziakpono (2008) explains that English positions as the international language of business and its role as a *lingua franca* of some African countries contribute to this belief. For the majority of Africans, English remains an additional language and thus varieties of English are spoken. In line with international attitudes, Africans' attitudes toward English range from positive to a dislike for the language (Ominiya, 2006 and Schmied, 1995). South African citizens' attitude toward English echoes those of many other African countries.

Like elsewhere, many citizens aspire to speak English, while others begrudge the use of a non-native language (de Klerk, 2000). This widespread use of English has resulted in varieties of English developing. South Africa's political history has resulted in a unique linguistic situation. South Africa is a multilingual country with eleven official languages. Despite the government's call (South Africa, 1996) for all official languages to hold equal status, English has emerged as the language of business, law and government. English is a language that dominates in so many fields, it follows that many South Africans choose to learn English as an additional language because it is the language of economy and technology as indicated in the above paragraph. Kachru (1996) explains that this is because distinctive characteristics of one's L1 and one's socio-cultural context would influence the manner in which one acquires an additional language.

2.5.2 English as International Language (EIL)

Sivusabramaniam (2011) focuses on the umbrella term ELT (English Language Teaching) and the pluralistic conceptualizations that characterize it. Sivusabramaniam understands that the term ELT not only encompasses the teaching of English as a foreign language or a second language, but also the learning of English as a foreign language or a second language. In this regard, the explanations offered by Mitchell and Myles (1998, pp. 1-2) can shed some light on the acronyms such as EFL (English as a Foreign Language), ESL (English as a Second Language), ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) and EAL (English as an Additional Language) that have gained popular currency in our field. According to them, a language that is learned by a learner "sometime later than the acquisition of the first language" (Mitchell & Myles, 1998, p. 1) can be defined as a foreign language or a second language in that it is a language other than the learner's native language. Therefore, according to them "it is sensible to include 'foreign' languages under our more general term of 'second' languages, because we believe that the underlying learning processes are essentially the same for more local and for more remote target languages, despite differing purposes and circumstances" (Mitchell & Myles, 1998, pp. 1-2). If the process of foreign language learning (FLL) and second language learning (SLL) are the same, then ELT as an umbrella term should be viewed as one that encompasses the plethora of

conceptualizations offered by different Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theorists along with its pluralistic implications. However, the prevalence of the umbrella term ELT has failed to account for the new dynamism that has come to characterize the teaching of English as an international language. Regrettably, the term has failed to examine the far-reaching ramifications of “the specific structures and hierarchies of the TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) profession, built around uneven resources and uneven relationships with English” (Holliday, 2005, p. 1).

Given the dominance of the ideology of native speaker in the current TESOL professionalism, we have been led to believe that “native speaker teachers represent a Western culture from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology” (Holliday, 2005, p. 6). The ensuing ideology of native speaker appears to have strengthened the assumption that native speakers have a special claim to the language and that it is fundamentally their belonging. It is in challenging the untenable nature of this assumption that one can come to realize the meaning and merit of the term EIL, which is an antithesis to terms such as ESL and EFL operating within the umbrella term ELT.

As observed by Widdowson (1998), how English develops in the world is no business whatever of native speakers in England, the United States or anywhere else... The very fact that English is an international language means that no nation can have custody over it... But the point is that it is only international to the extent that it is not their language. It is not a possession which they lease out to others, while still retaining the freehold. Other people actually own it (pp. 244-250).

According to Sivusibramaniam, the position mentioned above entreats us to view English as an international language rather than as one, with a specific cultural derivative of the English speaking West (Jenkins, 2000). If the theoretical stance is accepted along with its social and cultural implications, the term EIL can then characterize the use of English between L2 speakers of English, either from the same or a different culture in addition to L2 and L1 speakers of English. Such a characterization upholds “a heterogeneous global English speech community with a heterogeneous English and different modes of competence” (Canagarajah, 2006, p.

211). Sivasubramaniam further argues that while this position has many positive and beneficial implications for the pedagogies and practices that typify EIL, it might subject the very notion of EIL to a host of controversies, among which the most important is: the issue of its compatibility with Standard English and the notion of “othering” (Palfreyman, 2005). Furthermore, the notion of the non-problematic native speakerism and the problematic non-native speakerism (Holliday, 2005) in the use of English. However, if a non-essentialist view of culture is accepted, especially the one that offers a constructivist characterization of culture (Roberts, Byram, Barro, Jordan, & Street, 2001), we can then be able to “act as creators of discourses, institutions and culture that are socially constructed with the norms and conventions of society” (Holliday, 2005, p. 24). Such a position can help undo the chauvinistic attitudes and discourses that militate against our aspirations for promoting EIL as an umbrella term to signify a pluricentric view of English which can challenge any view that supports one standard form of English against which all the others are to be measured (Sivasubramaniam 2011). This can further help mitigate issues of “acquisitional inadequacies” (Kachru, 1983, pp.140-143) that are “associated power differentials” (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008, p. 128) that assume prominence in comparisons and contrasts between native and non-native varieties of English. Finally Sivasubramaniam summarises EIL as the umbrella term which assumes centrality and should be seen as one that signposts “World Englishes” as opposed to the prevalence of a standard form of English acting as a reference point.

Language has been a “good travelling companion” of empire. The problem is that even when colonial masters are forced to leave the occupied land, their languages still remain in use. This is true of English. It has become “a world empire” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006 p.12). According to Graddol (2006 p.112), “the promotion of English around the world has long been seen as a neo-imperialist project but it is time to understand the new dynamics of power which global English brings”. In today’s context, English is growing and its use is becoming an essential competence in the workplace. As Van der Walt (2006 p.170) observes, “If we look at the reasons why children in Africa need to learn English, it is surely not to ask for stamps at the local post office. The main purpose is to prepare them to study and continue their schooling in English”. Chang (2011 p.2) maintains that “teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) have been encouraged to implement CLT to help develop

students" English abilities appropriately in context". According to Chang, this is due to the awareness of English being the most widely spoken language in the world and because it is used in various areas such as technology, science, and business. Therefore, most countries do their best to see to it that their citizens acquire competence in English in order to compete and have a shared knowledge with other people around the globe.

McKay (2004 p.11) confirms that "currently in many countries throughout the world, there is tremendous pressure to learn English by non-native speakers. Many international corporations are encouraging their employees to develop their English skills by providing English training on the job". With the opening up of China, English teaching has been gaining more and more attention, especially since the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing. Apart from English teaching in schools, other forms of English training courses have appeared across China (Lin, 2002 p.8). Li (2001 p.151) remarks that "the South Korean government has placed English learning and teaching high on its agenda to ensure that South Korea plays an active and important role in world political and economic activities". Many Taiwanese universities are offering courses that focus on integrated English skills or specific topics to develop students' English proficiency "because of rapidly growing international needs for business, travel and technology" (Chang, 2011 p.4), which require EFL learners to use English for communication purposes. Hence, "governments have responded by establishing English as the first foreign language in most education systems" (Brumfit, 2006 p.30). However, the goal to compete means that people whose first language may not be English are denied the chance to participate and share meaningful life with other people while English speakers have the advantage that they do not have to learn other languages. As Kumaravadivelu (2006 p.16) puts it, "the issue is one of difficulty and discrimination encountered by non-native speakers of English as well as the power and privilege enjoyed by native speakers of English". Moreover, other languages are denied the opportunity to be used and developed in that if all people understand one another in English, there is no point in communicating in other languages when English can connect them. It is in this light that most schools in the context of South Africa adopt English as the language of teaching and learning. The choice of the medium of

instruction in this respect is based on the global nature of English and also at the technological accessibility.

2.5.3 Language as social practice

Shohamy (2007 p.5) defines language as an 'open, dynamic, energetic, constantly evolving and personal' which encompasses the rich complexities of communication. According to Shohamy, the expanded view of language also makes educational experience more engaging for students. As mentioned earlier, Shohamy sees language not as something to study but a way of seeing, understanding and communicating about the world. In this aspect, each language user uses his or her language(s) differently to express his/her worldview. He further argues that people use language for purposeful communication, thus, learning a new language involves learning how to use words, rules and knowledge about language and its use in order to communicate with speakers of the language. Based on the above discussion, this understanding of language sees a language not simply as a body of knowledge to be learnt but as a social practice in which to participate. To add more, Shohamy asserts that language is something that people do in their daily lives and something they use to express, create and interpret meanings as well as to establish and maintain social and interpersonal relationships.

In light of this assertion, (Svalberg, 2007) observes that, if language is a social practice of meaning-making and interpretation, then it is not enough for language learners just to know grammar and vocabulary. Based on this, he further argues that language learners also need to know how a language is used to create and represent meanings and the way to communicate with others and to engage with the communication of others. This requires the development of awareness of the nature of language and its impact on the world. To him our understanding of language, as languages educators becomes part of our professional stance which influences our curriculum, planning and classroom pedagogies. This means that teachers who view language simply as a code with grammar and vocabulary the primary, if not the only goal of language learning. Accordingly, Svalberg (2007) states that students do not begin to engage with language as a communicative reality but simply as an intellectual exercise or as a work requiring memorising.

In addition to the above, Svalberg (2007) notes that the understanding of language as a part of our stance also affects what happens in the classroom and the ways in which learners begin to understand the relationship between their own languages and the languages used for teaching and learning. If the language learning program focuses on the code, then it models a theory of language in which the relationship between two languages is simply a matter of code replacement, where the only difference is a difference in words. On the other hand, if the language pedagogies focus on the interpretation and creation of meaning, language is learned as a system of personal engagement with a new world, where learners necessarily engage with diversity at a personal level. In such situation, EIL comes handy to accommodate diversity since it is neutral because it is no body's language.

Consistent with the above, (Shohamy 2007 p.6) argues that within a professional stance, language learning should be understood as a social practice. As such, teachers need to ensure that students are provided with opportunities that go beyond what they already know. Teachers should also make sure that their students learn to engage with unplanned and unpredictable aspects of language. In the same line of argumentation (Foncha 2013) posits that learning language as a complex, personal communication system involves on-going investigation of language as a dynamic system and of the way it works to create and convey meanings. This involves learners in analysis and in talking analytically about language. In a sequel, Shahomy (2007) notes that talk about talk is what the classroom does best and yet this potential source of knowledge has not been sufficiently tapped, even in communicatively oriented classrooms. The emphasis on the on-going investigation and analysis assumes that learners are involved in learning which promotes exploration and discovery rather than only being passive recipients of knowledge transmitted to them from others. These learners require learning skills which may give them independence as users and analysers of language (Svalberg, 2007).

2.6 A bimodal system

The present day South African education system still reflects in a large part on the legacy of the past. 'Dysfunctional and impoverished schools used by the majority of South African children' (Botsis and Cronje, 2007 p.50) generally cater for black students whilst 'a small number of well-resourced schools (are) used by the privileged minority'. Essentially, it has become a 'bimodal system' (Pretorius, 2008), with discrepancies further strengthened by language practices. The better-equipped and managed 'ex-model C' schools are all Afrikaans or English medium. Schools using African languages as MOI/LoLT in the initial stages of primary school are obliged to use code-switching alongside the official MOI in later grades. This is true because these schools are usually characterised by poor infrastructure, weak management and low quality education. According to Lafon (2009), at the end of apartheid, parents in South Africa enjoyed the freedom to enrol their children in any school of their choice, as long as the schools accepted them. To this effect, apart from their ability to pay school fees, the main admissions criteria was proximity to place of residence or to the parental place of work. Many better-off African parents opted away from what can be termed 'black schools' whenever they can afford it, triggering an influx of black learners into former white-only ex-Model C schools (as well as former Indian and coloured schools). Parental motivation is not necessarily a rejection of African languages per se, as a Mark Data survey conducted in 2000 showed (Lafon, 2006). Alexander (2000 p.8) opines that parents do not genuinely have a choice as most ex-model C schools provide better quality education whereas former 'black schools' are synonymous to poor quality education. Thus, because it is inextricably linked to social, economic and political contexts, the choice of Medium of Instruction/ Language of Learning and Teaching (MOI/LOL&T) cannot be seen as a purely pedagogical issue. Its associated features have become an integral part of the problem itself as they inform linguistic attitudes and by way of retroaction, language policy.

2.6.1 Using language as a condition of access

From the early 1990s onwards, as a response to increasing demand, some English-medium (ex-model C) schools used English language tests as an entrance requirement (Murray, 2002 p.436). A study conducted by Lafon 2009 revealed that in

recent years, the practice seemed to have gained a new favour as African learners continued to enter these schools. He also noted that in some cases, language tests were conducted openly as was the case of one Durban or through speaking to parents. His data revealed that in the schools referred to in the study, around 20% of candidates failed the test in 2007 and consequently were not admitted. To this effect he suggests that such language testing is not really a good criteria for admitting learners in schools. Thus, it may be viewed as unfair discrimination especially as is only imposed on African learners and not the privileged groups. Despite all these maltreatment, they have not been any complaints from parents nor sanctions being imposed by the DoE. Some principals, more cautious not to infringe on legislation or concerned with ensuring equal access, tend to provide remedial English classes. Consequently and in order to better prepare their children, many African parents sought English-medium pre-primary schools and / or made English their home language. As they fall under the Welfare Department (and not Education), pre-primary schools are not bound by the Language in Education Policy. With regard to language testing in ex-model C schools, Lafon (2009) proposes that language is used to deny access, not to educate as such. Students not fulfilling the language criteria are able to school elsewhere. Rather, access is denied to the school of choice, often with better quality learning, developed infrastructure and geographical convenience.

2.6.2 Language in 'African' primary schools

Lafon (2009) opines that in African primary schools as things currently stand, African languages may be used as the LoLT during the first three years of compulsory schooling (i.e. Foundation phase). Beyond grade 4, only two languages are essentially supported: English and Afrikaans. He further argues that it is important to bear in mind that the possible use of African languages as Mol/LoLT in grades 1 to 3 of primary school is in reality restricted to former Department of Education and Training DET schools, whatever the present population of other schools is. Hence, according to him, the association of the use of African languages with low quality education continues the legacy of apartheid education.

In SA, English is the main language used in education from grade 4 onwards. It is also used mainly in national government by major companies in the media, in higher education, etc. and is associated with global business and economic success (Crystal, 2003). As a consequence, most African parents want their children to learn English and many are convinced that the best way is for them to learn, is through the medium of English in schools. Many African parents prefer schools where English is the MOI, even in the first three grades. Therefore, a growing number of primary schools that had previously used African languages in the first three years have officially become English-medium schools, regardless of the school's sociolinguistic and pedagogic circumstances. Some schools that are not adapting run the risk of closure (Botsis & Cronje 2007 p.52; observational data, Soweto, January 2008). Indeed, about 40 schools in Gauteng were empty in 2008 according to Wits EPU senior researcher Mario Pillay (personal communication, September 2008); there are areas where primary schools which use African languages as the LOL&T, face a shortage of pupils. Some observations from the researcher's field visits to Soweto may illustrate the changing situation and attempts by schools to adapt.

Research conducted by Lafon in a school where isiZulu is the home language reveals that 'Thabisile Junior Primary located in Diepkloof, Soweto opted to use English as its only official MOI/LOL&T in the 1990s. Subsequently, confronted by learners' weak cognitive development and worried by their inability to read and write in Zulu, the SGB, with full support from the principal, reverted to Zulu as the official MOI in 2002. The results seemed to satisfy most teachers. He further states that in 2006, however, the school adopted another strategy: Zulu remains the LOL&T in the first 2 grades, with English being introduced in grade 1 orally, and in the written form in grade 3, with English being given more time. This partial change back to English was the result of parental pressure. Data also revealed that the principal (interviews March 2005 and January, 2008) was worried that the school might not survive. Moreover the same research was done in Dumezweni School, also in Diepkloof, proudly presents itself as a 'Zulu' school. It has never changed its language policy, yet it is being forced to change its approach.

According to Lafon, nearly half the learners hail from crèches where they are used to English and 'Zulu writing is difficult for them'. This resulted in schools now starting

with English as the MOI for two years (grade R and grade 1), Zulu literacy is introduced in grades 2 and 3. In grade 4 English becomes the MOI/LOL&T, with Zulu as a subject (interview, principal, April 2008). According to research in both schools, English becomes the medium of teaching and learning from grade 4, while Zulu is kept as a subject. Lafon argues that the imbalance between English and African languages is shown in the testing of English for entry and the lack of testing of African language for entry into primary schools (even where children come from different African language groups).

2.6.3 Negative effects of the use of non-native language as the MOI

The command of the MOI is linked to cognitive development and has implications for the acquisition of knowledge. If learners do not have sufficient academic proficiency in the MOI, they often have problems in learning not necessarily because they do not understand concepts or ideas, but rather because they fail to grasp their linguistic representation. Based on UNESCO (1953), it has generally been accepted that learning in the mother tongue or home language assists cognitive development (Cummins, 2000; Webb, 2006, p.131). In research that was carried out in the USA and Canada, Cummins (2000) established a relationship between first and second language proficiency. To him, it is a 'threshold' that enables learners to transfer from one language to another. Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) in a second language (L2) is dependent on the already being acquired first language (L1). In an attempt to verify Cummins' assertion, Alidou et al (2006) carried out a study in the continent of Africa where they concluded that the longer the MT was used the greater the learners' cognitive development. It also highlighted the importance of a gradual transition from the MT to the 'alien' MOI and the maintenance of the MT well into the transition.

In South Africa, the impact of the choice of MOI/LOL&T on school results can best be appreciated in its historical sequence. In 1954, Bantu Education instituted an 8 year compulsory education period during which a learner's 'MT'³² was to be his MOI. In light of this, Lafon revealed that the period was reduced to 3 years from 1979 in the aftermath of the 1976 Sowetan uprising. Accordingly, this change was coincidental with a large downtrend in the matric pass rate. He further argues that

from a peak in 1979 at 87%, with 37% gaining university endorsement (and possible access to higher education), percentages declined steadily to reach a 49% pass rate (with 12.5% endorsement) in 1999. Lafon's study analysed Threshold Project which was commissioned to analyse the causes of extensive school failure in the 1980s amongst African students. The study highlighted the negative impact of early and drastic shift of MOI away from the MT. It found that in three years of learning English as a second language, children cannot acquire a sufficient range of vocabulary to be able to use it efficiently as a MOI. The same idea was taken up by Van Dyk (1993 p.185) who states: that although there are many other variables involved in the failure of African children to progress at schools and afterwards, which include unequal funding and general disruption. It is perhaps the problems that scholars experience with MOI that have the most wide-ranging and debilitating effect on them. This is to suggest that the problem with the LoLT is at the level of planning where the policy makers do not really care to look at the practicality of the language policy nor do they ascertain its implementation.

In terms of the language policy, Heugh (2002b) observed that the reduction of the mother-tongue period heralded 'a cycle of ever decreasing educational competency'. She concluded that 'despite serious discrepancies in expenditure between white and black children, there was surprisingly significant education success for black South Africans before 1976. (Heugh, 2002b p.4) ascribes this positive result to the extended duration of mother-tongue education, at a time when BE had undergone significant improvements from its early stage. She revealed that her research participants admitted to the benefits they themselves reaped from learning for a longer period in their MT. This was evident in the knowledge they gained from their own language and culture, which formed their experiential knowledge. Many African teachers are particularly aware of the difficulties their learners confront when learning through a second language and as such they think that these learners would do better in their mother-tongue (Murray, 2002 p.438). Matric pass rates have picked up since the end of apartheid, but stabilised from 2001 at around 65% with an exemption rate at 15% (Carpentier, 2008 p.88). These figures however hide wide discrepancies between racial and socio-economic groups. Thus, there is evidence that the language policy is not achieving what is sought to gain. That is to say that there is a discrepancy between planning, policy and implementation.

In 2002, only 10% of African candidate's secured exemption passes as opposed to half of white candidates (Carpentier, 2005 p.279). A number of observations seem to support very strongly the hypothesis that language remains a determining factor in educational access among African learners. October's (2002) study, conducted in the Western Cape, isolated the language factor in matric achievement. She compared matric results in key subjects for three groups of learners, differentiated through the language they took as their home language (HL) (i.e. English, Afrikaans or Xhosa) and the former category of the schools they went to (i.e. former white, coloured, Indian and black). October found that there was a close link between the average mark in the first language and other key subjects amongst learners who went to former coloured and white schools. This was particularly those learners with native or near-native proficiency in the medium of instruction. However, for African Xhosa-speaking learners, even though attainment in their first language was higher and above average. In addition, there was a significant drop in all other subjects including their second language (English in most cases). For them, the importance of English was paramount as it is the MOI and the language through which they were taught and examined. In light of the above argumentation, October's (2002 p.76) concludes that the level of proficiency in this subject [English or Afrikaans second language] is not high. In other words, it is not even at second language level. It can therefore be deduced that the instrument (language medium) used for communication and learning is not appropriate for these learners. Needless to say, this would have impacted negatively on any learning that took place.

Looking specifically at the Western Cape, Carpentier (2008 p.31) details matric results according to the socio-economic category of the schools. They were based on the wealth quintile which serves to regulate state funding. As expected, the better resourced the school, the higher the results and this contrast in the context of SA, is un-dissociable from 'race'³⁴. In the most underprivileged schools (quintile 1), learners' degree of achievement was 24% for language, 19% for maths, 32% for natural sciences. On the contrary, in the best schools (quintile 5), the ratios were 80%, 63% and 71% respectively. Quintiles 1 and 2 were almost exclusively African in terms of learners and teachers, with increasing number of 'non-white' students from quintile 3. White students featured in significant numbers in quintiles 4 and 5.

According to Lolwana (2004 p.47), there is an increasing weight of evidence that, after poverty, language, there is evidence that proficiency in the medium of instruction is the largest single factor affecting learner performance in schools. The above lends credibility to the conclusion that the academic achievement of learners who's MT differs from the MOI is significantly dependent on their linguistic skills and overcoming language barriers becomes even more difficult in unfavourable circumstances. This is meant to re-echo the fact that the language planners, policy makers and implementer need to go back to the drawing board. There is a complete mismatch between policy and implementation.

2.6.4 Code-switching

Numerous studies have shown that code-switching is a typical feature of multilingual societies such as South Africa (Murray, 2002 p.439). Code-switching (CS) always occurs in classrooms, with teachers and learners switching between the official MOI and another language that both of them are familiar with (e.g. African language or a local vernacular). The 1979 change in language policy with the shrinking of the mother tongue period probably increased the role of code-switching as a palliative if unofficial strategy (Webb et al, 2009). Since 1996, in a stark change from previous policy, code-switching was condoned by the DoE. Code switching CS is limited to up to 20% of teaching time (Murray, 2002). This limit however is not necessarily adhered to because in many township and rural schools, CS is seen as a positive and productive approach (Murray, 2002 p.440). The switch can take many forms. It can be in the form of an entire or a partial repetition of the lesson in the vernacular or a translation of core notions.

Lafon (2009) witnessed that in Mlazi School, grade 11 lessons were conducted essentially in the vernacular (Zulu) with core notions spelt out in English, presumably for exam purposes. By removing the language barrier by code-switching to the local language was thought to facilitate understanding that allows students to express themselves freely. It makes for much more active participation in lessons. (Wescott, 2004) observes that when the lesson was given in Xhosa; African learners would engage, participate and respond. In terms of educational access, the use of code-switching has probably diluted the problem arising from the grade 4 shift from MT to

the (official) medium of instruction at least in township and rural schools. It is evident in that sense that it reduces the impact of the use of a medium not sufficiently mastered. He further alluded that along with automatic grade progression, it probably contributes to maintaining learners in school over the 9-year compulsory period. However, code-switching has its limits. It is essentially an oral strategy for the classroom (Lafon 2009). In light of this, literacy practices in schools remain exclusively in the official MOI - English/ Afrikaans from grade 4 and the same goes in the matric exam in grade 12. Finally, it is needful to stress that code-switching offers no help for learners during the matric examination. Secondly, this study cautions that it does not prepare them for literacy. Conversely, it enforces only oral practices and the pre-eminence of orality but examinations are strictly written tasks. This is another instant of the mismatch between the language planning, policy and implementation.

As Muzvidziwa and Seotsanyana (2002 p.9) comment, “English remains the most important subject that learners are expected to pass before proceeding to tertiary education”. This means that if a learner happens to pass all other subjects but fails English; such a learner is graded among the failures. Since English is the main subject in the curriculum of secondary education, it is used across the curriculum to teach concepts in other subjects. In other words, English is not only a subject, but it is a language of learning and teaching (LoLT). In Lesotho’s schools, Sesotho is the LoLT until fourth grade, where English replaces Sesotho. In practice, code-switching is often used up to secondary school level.

Note should be taken of the fact that not all schools in South Africa use only English during instruction. Other languages, more especially indigenous languages, are used alternatively in order to make sense of what is delivered to learners. This is what is termed “code-switching”, (Van der Walt and Mabule, 2001 p.295): “code-switching is used to indicate inter sentential and intra sentential code mixing as well as code switches between longer stretches of text but not borrowing of the kind where a foreign word has been integrated into the lexical system of the language”. This means that code-switching is an alternative use of two or more languages, varieties of a language, or even speech styles. Setati and Alder (2001 p.244) believe that code-switching, “makes immediate sense [in] that learners whose main language is not the LoLT should draw on their main language(s) in the learning process”. In light

of this, they agree that code-switching is a practice that enables learners to harness their main language as a learning resource (Setati & Alder, 2001 p.244). This notion tallies with Cummins' observation that L1 has a great influence in the study of L2. Thus, learning in this situation becomes a form of social practice because the anxiety and fear to make mistakes is taken away.

2.7 Language and development

A useful definition of both language and development is given by Markee (2002 p.266) who refers to a language as 'communicative competence', and describes development 'as a reduction in participants' vulnerability to things they do not control'. A useful categorisation is provided by Appleby et al. (2002) who distinguish between language and of development. To them language in development refers to the role of languages in national socio-economic development and raises questions of the place of English and other languages in contributing to that development. Language as development refers to the provision of language teaching and language projects where language provision is an end in itself. Language for development is language used as an essential tool for the development of different domains such as business, science, media and law. They further argue that the language of development category is somewhat different from the preceding three since it refers to actual language use in terms of its lexico-grammatical and discourse properties. Whereas the other three refer more to the roles and functions of language, the latter refers to language structure. Accordingly, the language of development is the discourse which attaches itself to developmental issues and is used by various stakeholders in developmental projects. Hence, the approach and its aims are closely allied to critical discourse analysis.

Kennedy (2010) states that these are useful distinctions when talking about language and development. To him, the distinctions are not clear-cut and there might be occasions when more than one category is applicable. Instead, the categories are especially useful in language policy situations where they help to identify the ideology of a particular policy to ascertain whether a policy is explicit in its objectives, or clouded with confusions. He further argues that in cases of governmental, top-down language policy may occur at different levels as the policy is implemented with

the language of development providing an over-arching discourse. On the same footing, Kennedy (2009) argues that the decision by the Malaysian government (subsequently reversed) to teach school Maths and Science subjects through the medium of English was a language in development decision. In this case, English was regarded as being important in the nation's socio-economic life while its use in the domains of science and technology was particularly important (language for development). According to Kennedy (2009), these language and development decisions were then implemented as English language programmes in schools often in top-down innovations. The resources provided (especially materials and training) proved to be inadequate to enable the ideological ends to be met. This is the case in South Africa where language planners and policist aspire for multilingualism without providing the necessary resources that guarantee the so call multilingualism. This is to suggest that policy makers do not focus on the practicalities of the policies but rather to put things or paper that cannot be implemented.

In view of this, attitude towards English language in development aid is supported by academic researchers. Tupas (2009) thinks, for example, that language policy is a form of social developmental planning rather than defining language problems that need solving through language policies. Thus, the study should look at local social needs first and only then can it see where language policy might or might not assist in achieving social objectives. A similar case is raised by Djité (2008) who not denying the importance of language in development, asserts that policy makers must first identify what the needs and wants of local communities are, for example, the domains of health and education. Therefore, we should examine carefully whether language plays a role in answering those needs. In addition, we should not assume that the language chosen should be English because the other languages may as well be more appropriate and relevant choice.

2.8 English as a second language

While acknowledging that the terms “majority” and “minority” language are often understood only quantitatively, the size of the speaker population is but only one dimension of the phenomenon. The language's functional value and the prestige

(social status) also play a role (Webb & Kembo-Sure, 2000, pp. 41-42). Thus, while isiZulu may have a much higher number of first language speakers than English in South Africa, it was considered a minority language during the apartheid regime and still does not enjoy the status of English even in KwaZulu Natal. While the term “English as a Second Language” refers to the role that English plays in the life of immigrants and other minority groups in English-speaking countries (Richards & Rodgers, 1986), paradoxically, in South Africa, it is for the indigenous languages that are in the majority. People of these majority groups in use their first languages at home and among friends, but use English at work, public places and schools, English is the default language. In this context, their first language is the “minority” language and therefore the dominant language.

2.9 Critical Discourse Analysis

The analytical framework for this study draws on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a useful tool in revealing the ideological loading of discourses, whether spoken or written (Fairclough 1993, 1995, 1999; Wodak 2001; Van Dijk 2001).

2.9.1 What is critical discourse analysis?

Fairclough (1993 p.135) defines CDA as “discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony”. This simply means that the aim of CDA is to expose the links between discourse practices, social practices, and social structures. Fairclough and Wodak (1997 pp.271-80) see CDA as addressing social problems and being concerned with the detailed analysis of a text. CDA includes inter-discursive text analysis (which includes the different genres, discourses and style) as well as linguistic and semiotic analyses of texts. CDA therefore helps bring out the hidden motive in a text, and shows how discourse is a form of social action. It is also a way of interpreting a text and is not aimed at offering

a solution to a given problem but rather helping researchers to understand the problem better. Thus, according to Fairclough and Wodak (1997), power relations in CDA are discursive and help to mediate the link between text and society.

Van Dijk (2001p.352) echoes Fairclough (1993) and defines Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as “a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose and ultimately to resist social inequality.” Accordingly, CDA is concerned with the “modes” or “perspectives” that theorize, analyse, and apply throughout the field. Critical discourse analysts are interested in their roles in society, and view scholarly discourses as part of social structure and interactions. According to van Dijk (2001) they mainly conduct research on groups that are dominated. He contends that critical research on discourse needs to be “better” than other research so as to be accepted; it should focus on “social problems and political issues”, instead of describing the structure of discourses, and it should explain the properties of social interaction and social structures as this study has attempted to do. Finally CDA should pay more attention to how discourse structures, “enact, confirm, legitimate, reproduce, or challenge relations of *power* and *dominance* in society” (van Dijk 2001 p.353).

Language is used in building power and knowledge, but can also be used for resistance and critique (van Dijk 1988). At least three different approaches to power can be distinguished:

- Power as a result of specific resources of individual actors.
- Power as a specific attribute of social exchange in each interaction
- Power as a systemic and constitutive element/characteristic of society (van Dijk 1988).

In CDA, power is mostly perceived in the third way. Power is central to understanding the dynamics and specifics of control (of action) in modern societies, but power remains mostly invisible – what Bourdieu (1991) terms “symbolic violence”. This relation between power and language is a permanent topic not only in

CDA (Fairclough 1989/1991; Wodak 1989) but also in sociology (Bourdieu, 1991 and sociolinguistics (Ng and Bradac 1993; Talbot 2003). Thus the characteristic features of CDA are its concerns with power as a central condition in social life, and its efforts to develop a theory of language that incorporates this as a major premise (Muntigl et al. 2000). Wodak and Meyer therefore see power as: relations of difference and particularly about the effects in differences in social structures. The constant unity of language and other social matters ensures that language is entwined in social power in a number of ways: language indexes and expresses power, and is involved where there is contention over and a challenge to power. Power does not necessarily derive from language, but language can be used to challenge power, to subvert it, to alter distributions of power in the short and long term. Language provides a finely articulated vehicle for differences in power hierarchical social structures (Wodak and Meyer 2008 p.10). This leads us to Wodak's (2008) contention that CDA is fundamentally interested in analysing opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language. This power relation attempts to make us see the top-down nature of language planning and policy.

According to van Dijk (2001 p.354), CDA attempts to bridge the 'micro' and 'macro' levels of discourse, e.g. how ordinary people 'talk back' to structures of power in their lives. The micro level deals with language use, discourse, verbal interactions and communication while the macro level deals with power, dominance and inequality between social groups (van Dijk 2001 p.354). This is further echoed by Kaplan (1990) who writes that "the text, whether written or oral, is a multidimensional structure," and "any text is layered, like a sheet of thick plywood consisting of many thin sheets lying at different angles to each other." Although some scholars see the sheet to be referring to the grammar, syntax, semantics and lexicon (Henry and Tator 2002), it could also refer to the manner in which the text is presented. CDA emphasises the "interdisciplinary study of discourse, mediating between the linguistic and the social and regarding the social more than a mere contextual backdrop to the texts" (Mayr 2008 p.9). She holds that as opposed to Critical Analysis (CA), CDA looks at bigger social issues such as ideologies, power and inequalities. It draws on social and philosophical theory to analyse and interpret written and spoken texts. It is interpretative and explanatory and therefore focuses on social problems, power

relations as discursive, society and culture, ideological work, history as well as the links between text and society (Mayr 2008).

Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000 p.448) focus on the relationship of power and inequality in language. To them, CDA should look at the social aspects of theories in discourse analysis. According to them, discourse is socially constructed and conditioned and can be made visible and transparent by CDA. They refer to Fairclough's (1992) three dimensions for analysing discourse: discourse-as-text, which focuses on the choice and patterns in vocabulary, grammar, coherence and how the text is structured; discourse-as-discursive-practice, where discourse is something that is produced, circulated, distributed, and consumed in society; and discourse-as-social-practice, the focal analytical approach for this study, which looks at the ideological effects and power obtained through different classes or groups.

Furthermore, Blommaert and Bulcaen (2000:449) think that the different ways of presenting discourse leads more insight into "new orders of discourse, struggles over normativity, attempts at control, and resistance against regimes of power". To them, CDA looks at the ways social structures encroach on discourses, power relations and ideologies, as in the case of this study. The CDA researchers therefore use a critical dimension which should have positive effects on society, like giving power to the weak, voice to the voiceless and even highlighting aspects of power abuse (Blommaert and Bulcaen 2000). This argument therefore allows for interventions to take place after the investigation has been done in order to improve policies and practices. The main focus of CDA is therefore to see how dominated or minority groups are influenced or affected by the dominant groups through communication (van Dijk 2001 p.358). It also looks at how the structure of the discourse influences the mental representation of different groups and in particular of 'the other'. According to van Dijk (2001 p.36), CDA has "gone beyond the more traditional, content analytical analysis of 'images' of 'the other' and probed more deeply into the linguistic, semiotic, and other discursive properties of text and talk to and about minorities, immigrant, and Other people". Thus, the interest of the people for which the policies are meant is never taken in consideration which may partially explain why the policies are seemingly difficult to implement.

2.10 Application of critical discourse analysis to the study

As discussed above, the language of development is the discourse which attaches itself to developmental issues and is used by various stakeholders in development projects. Kennedy (2010) posits that the language of development category is somewhat different from the preceding three since it refers to actual language used, in terms of its lexico- grammatical and discourse properties, whereas the other three refer more to the roles and functions of language. He further argues that in cases of governmental, top-down LP, the distinctions (in, as, for) may occur at different levels as the policy is implemented with the language of development providing an over-arching discourse.

2.11 Conclusion

The Language Policy aims to redress the injustices of Apartheid where English and Afrikaans were given a higher status at the expense of other languages. Secondly, it also aims to facilitate access to good services, knowledge and information in order to meet clients' expectations and needs (Eastern Cape Language Policy year). People use language for purposeful communication and learning a new language involves learning how to use words, rules and knowledge about a language and its use in order to communicate with speakers of that language. According to Mba (2011 p.5), language policy is: “a conscious choice of a language or languages in relation with the social life of people while language planning is actually the implementation of language choices using the most convenient channels, empowering the different steps of the process, providing the necessary financial means and trained manpower and constantly assessing its effectiveness for instant reorientation.” Spolsky and Shohamy define language policy as an effort by someone with or claiming authority to change the language practice (or ideology) of someone else. This again clarifies the top-down approach nature of language planning and policy. Power relation is at its worse in play.

According to language in Education policy, none of the schools has met up with the aspirations of the Language in Education Policy. Instead, all of them have adopted English as the LOLT because it is the language of textbooks and testing. In light of this, English as an international should be seen as the language that can unify the

diverse classrooms in their daily social practices, thereby motivating its use as MOI. The role of English internationally has been a good travelling companion of empire. The negative effects of the use of the non-native language as the medium of instruction are linked to cognitive development and have implications for the acquisition of knowledge. Language of development, in this case English as a first additional language refers to the role that English plays in the life of immigrants and other minority groups. Critical Discourse Analysis should look at the social aspects of theories in a bid to break the power relations.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

Research methodology refers to both the theoretical and the practical aspects of conducting research (Oliver 2004, p.121). It encompasses all the technicalities and strategies used in carrying out the research. This chapter will discuss the research paradigm, research approach, research design, sampling of research site and participants, data collection, ethical issues and then conclusion. The essence of using a qualitative approach is because of its naturalistic character –studying real people in natural settings than in artificial isolation (Marshall, 2007; Tellis, 2007).

3.2. Research paradigm: interpretive

The term paradigm is defined as a systematic set of beliefs and methods that provide a view of the nature of reality (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000; Lincoln and Guba, 2005). Birley and Moreland (2004) point out that a paradigm is a theoretical model within which a research is conducted. A paradigm organizes the researcher's view of reality (though he/she may not be aware of it). This is in line with Bassey's (2006) claim that a research paradigm is a network of coherent ideas about the nature of the world and of the functions of researchers which is adhered to by a group of researchers. Thus, it conditions the patterns of researcher's thinking as well as underpins his/her research actions

This study is underpinned by the interpretive paradigm which puts emphasis on the construction of knowledge through observable phenomena. The interpretive paradigm takes into account how people understand and make meanings of different situations by describing their intentions, beliefs, values and reasons (De Vos et al., 2005; Henning et al., 2004; Babbie & Mouton, 2003). In light of this, the interpretive paradigm seeks to "capture the lives of the participants in order to understand the meaning by analyzing conversations and interactions that the researcher has with the subjects" (Henning, 2004, p.19). In light of this, the researcher had to observe how the teachers and learners interacted in the classrooms and also how they attach meanings to events, situations etc. Interpretivist/constructivist approaches to research have the intention of understanding "the world of human experience"

(Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). This is meant to suggest that "reality is socially constructed" (Mertens, 2005, p.12). The interpretivist/constructivist researcher tends to rely on the "participants' views of the situation being studied to recognise the impact on their own background and experiences" (Creswell, 2003, p.8). Constructivists do not generally begin with a theory like the post positivists, rather they "generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meanings" throughout the research process (Creswell, 2003, p.9). The constructivist researcher is most likely to rely on qualitative data collection methods and analysis or a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods (mixed methods). An interpretive inquiry often implies research methods that occur in natural settings, and it often makes use of unstructured observations, interviews and qualitative research techniques. Informed by the interpretive research paradigm, the main approach to this research is a qualitative one.

The qualitative research methods that is employed for the purpose of this research corresponded with the interpretive paradigm as it aimed at gaining a better understanding of the teachers' experiences on implementation of language policy in the learning and teaching. Thus, such a study can only be understood from a subjective view of the person concerned. The researcher has to rely on the subjective view of the participants in order to interpret from his/her own perspective.

3.3. Research approach: Qualitative research

This study follows a qualitative research approach. Airasian and Gay (2009, p.7) define qualitative research as "the collection, analysis and interpretation of comprehensive narrative data to gain insights into a particular phenomenon of interest". Airasian and Gay (2009, p.14) further explain that the central focus of qualitative research is to provide an understanding of a social setting or activity viewed from the perspective of the research participants. To achieve this focus, the researcher gathers data directly from the participants. In addition, Leedy & Ormond (2005, p.134) are of the opinion that qualitative research enables the researcher to gain new insights, develop new concepts or theoretical perspectives or discover the problems that exist within a particular phenomenon.

Qualitative research is an approach in which researchers are concerned with understanding the meaning which people attach to their experiences or phenomena within their society (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). The researcher used qualitative research because this study is about teachers' experiences in identifying learners with learning barriers. According to Letherby and Bywaters (2007:45), "Qualitative methods are particularly appropriate in the experience of groups that are misunderstood".

It is against this background that the researcher chose a qualitative research approach in order to elicit and analyse teachers' experiences on implementing language policy as designed by the government and, in the process, identify the challenges they face when implementing language policy and how they overcome these challenges. The whole idea is to dig deeper to understand the phenomenon under investigation in a bid to give an interpretation which would be an interpretation of their inter interpretation.

From another perspective, Creswell (1994) observes that the qualitative research is a research process whereby researchers build up a complex, holistic framework by analysing narratives and observations, conducting the research work in the natural habitat. To re-echo Creswell, Leedy & Omrod (2001) broadly define qualitative research as any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification. Hence, De Vos, et al. (2002); Mack, et al. (2005); Marshall (1996) state that qualitative research provides illumination and understanding of complex psychosocial issues that are most useful for answering humanistic 'why' and 'how' questions. This indicates that the qualitative research is inherently multi-method in focus (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). For these reasons, the qualitative research is therefore fundamental for this study as it focuses on the experiences of human behaviour (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Patton, 2002). Based on its positives, the researcher adopted the qualitative research approach to better understand the phenomenon through gaining a new perspective on what was already known (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; and Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The essence of using the qualitative approach is because of its naturalistic nature since it studies real people in natural settings rather than in artificial isolation (ibid).

However, one of the major disadvantages of qualitative research is that the subjectivity of the inquiry may lead to difficulties in establishing the reliability and validity of the approaches and information (Adam, 2010). In order to ensure validity and avoid subjectivity Stenbacka (2001) suggests that the researcher must remain non-judgemental throughout the process so that the report may be constructed in a balanced way. In response to Stenbacka (2001), the researcher considered the reliability and validity when the research was conducted in order to avoid subjectivity/bias. Despite the weaknesses of the qualitative research, one cannot understand the experiences of a human being through statistics and numbers but can only do so through in-depth understanding of the interactions of that individual in his/her natural setting.

3.4. Research design: Case study

Burns and Grove (2003, p.195) define a research design as “blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings.” Alternatively, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) see it as a plan that indicates how the researcher intends to investigate the research problem. It is governed by the notion that the fitness for purpose and the purpose of the research would determine the design. Olabiyi et al. (2009) claim that it is a useful plan for gathering data ahead of real investigation. The research design for this study is a case study.

A case study research is an in-depth investigation of an individual, group or institution (Gay 1992, p. 235). This particular study qualifies as case study research because it focuses on a single group or unit (two primary schools) in the Lady Frere District. Airasian and Gay (2009, p.427) note that one outcome of case study research is a narrative account that provides the researcher (and the reader) with new insights into the way things are and into the kinds of relationships that exist among the participants in the study.

As mentioned earlier, this researcher made use of the case study design in which he/she collected data on the implementation of the language policy in the learning and teaching of isiXhosa speaking learners through the use of semi structured interviews, and classroom observations. This ensured that the issue was not explored through one lens, but rather through a variety of lenses which allowed for

multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood (Baxter & Jack, 2007). The researcher also believes that the findings of this study would play a role in helping teachers to reflect on their practices i.e. teaching methods as well as how they use their teaching methods and also on how to overcome challenges on using English as a language of teaching and learning in the classroom. The researcher chose these two schools based on their proximity. Secondly, they are in the rural areas and stand the ideal position to tell the story of the language policy. The reason for choosing grade 6 was that it is the exit to the senior phase and the researcher is a subject advisor for this grade.

Davies (2005) mentions the following disadvantages of the case study method:

- It does not ensure reliability of findings or generality of findings
- Intense exposure to the study of the case biases the findings.
- Another common negative aspect of case study research is that its dependence on a single case renders it incapable of providing a generalizing conclusion (Tellis, 1997).

However these disadvantages did not affect this study because the researcher stayed for a relatively longer period of time to become conversant with the daily activities of the participants. In view of this, the participants became less self-conscious and gradually started behaving naturally. This gave the unique opportunity for the reliability of the data collected (Kumar, 1991).

3.5. Sampling and sample size

Sampling refers to the process of selecting a small number of individuals for a study in such a way that they become key informants who can contribute to the researcher's understanding of the given phenomenon (Airasian & Gay 2009, p.135). Sampling is fundamental in conducting research as well in the interpretation of the results because research is almost invariably conducted by means of a sample, on the basis of which generalizations are made which can be applicable to the population from which the sample was obtained (Cochran 1963). For the purpose of this study, a small sample of six participants was used. A small sample was opted for because, as Liping (2013, p.42) explains, if the phenomena under study are homogenous, a small sample is sufficient. In addition, Derek (1997, p. 41) notes that,

“there is no definite answer to the question ‘how large should a sample be? There is no point taking huge samples when smaller ones can produce the same results”. The intention is normally that the sample is representative of the population, and that the data from the sample can also be applied to the rest of the population (Oliver 2004. p.127). There are three most common sampling methods used in qualitative research: purposive sampling, quota sampling, and snowball sampling (Department of Library & Information Science, 2005; Mack, *et al*, 2005; and Marshall, 1996). The researcher made use of purposive sampling and this will be discussed below.

3.5.1 Purposive sampling

Patton (2002); Trochim & Donnelly (2006) define purposeful sampling as the process of selecting samples that are rich with information needed for the research and are fit for the study. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the study (Cohen, *et al*, 2007).

This process of purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the researcher is able to select elements which represent a “typical sample” from the appropriate target population (Macmillan & Schumacher, 2001; and Ross, undated). However, it is critical to be certain of the knowledge and skills of the informant when doing purposive sampling because inappropriate informants might render the data meaningless and invalid (Tongco, 2007, p.144). Hence, Marshall (1996); Morse (1991) state that when obtaining a purposeful sample, the researcher should select participants according to the needs of the study.

The researcher ensured the success of the purposive sampling by reviewing and analysing the data in conjunction with data collection (Mack, *et al*, 2005). The study used purposive sampling which is a form of selecting purposefully to permit inquiry into the understanding of a phenomenon in depth (Patton, 2002). In line with the above argument, purposive sampling seems to be relevant for this study because it caters for the needs of the study. This is true because it allows the researcher to select participants who would provide rich information. In this case, grade 6 learners, teachers and parents were used in the study. As mentioned earlier, the reason for choosing grade 6 was that it is the exit of the intermediate phase and these learners

are being prepared for the final leg of general education and training (GET). The teachers who are teaching the learners are information-rich participants who come handy for the study. The sample further allows the researcher to identify in advance the characteristics needed from the participants. The chosen informants were teachers using English as Medium of Instruction in teaching and learning as per the language policy.

3.5.2 Sampling of the research site for this study

The site of this study consisted of two primary schools. The researcher used these particular primary schools because they start from grade one to grade nine which include the grade 6 focused on in this study. Based on the idea that this is a case study, the choice of the sites allowed the researcher to use in-depth investigation into a specific and relatively small area of interest. The primary schools were isiXhosa medium schools in rural area at Malahleni municipality in the Lady Frere Education District in the Eastern Cape Province. It is needless to emphasise that in these schools, English is only taught as a subject from grade 2. The researcher chose the isiXhosa medium primary school because literature reviewed in chapter two revealed the researcher/teachers' experiences in the implementation of the language policy.

3.5.3 Sampling of participants

An appropriate sample size for a qualitative study is one that adequately answers the research question (Marshall, 1996). De Paulo (2000) states that in qualitative research, the sample must be large enough to ensure the possibility of hearing most if not all of the participants' perceptions. Perhaps the number in the sample of 6 participants is a reasonable starting point for deciding the qualitative sample size that can reveal the full range or nearly the full range of potentially important perceptions (ibid). Hence, Mack et al. (2005) state that sample sizes, which may or may not be fixed prior to data collection, depend on the resources and time available as well as the study's objectives. The sample size for this study composed of six teachers, with three chosen from each school. These are teachers teaching English, to learners in Grade 6 who use English as a language of learning and teaching.

3.5.4 Access to participants and the research site

Access can be defined as the appropriate ethical and academic practices used to gain entry to a given community for the purposes of conducting formal research (Given, 2008). According to Given (2008), the entry explores the key issues related to gaining access to participants in qualitative research. The first and most important consideration in gaining access to research participants in qualitative research is to do no harm. Gaining access to the research site and the participants was through the Department of Education and the principals of the schools. The researcher used the District Head of Curriculum Officer and principals of the schools as gatekeepers (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2003). Letters requesting to conduct research in the schools were written and given to the principals and also to the department of education.

3.6 Credibility and trustworthiness

The credibility is involved in establishing that the results of the research are believable (Trochim, 2006). To Trochim, this is a classic example of 'quality not quantity'. It depends more on the richness of the information gathered than the amount of data gathered. There are many techniques to gauge the accuracy of the findings. They include: data triangulation, triangulation through multiple analysts and 'member checks'. In reality the participants/readers are the only ones who can reasonably judge the credibility of the results. The information in this study might not be misquoted and appear valid for verification. The researcher ensured content, and face validity of the instrument by giving it to the experts or language specialists in the faculty of education. The researcher used triangulation as a strategy to enhance validity, by combining two methods – interviews and observations. Creswell (2003) notices that by triangulating, it means the use of different data sources of information by examining evidence from the sources and using it to build a coherent justification for themes. Prolonged and persistent field work was used as a strategy where the researcher observed the teaching methods and how teachers use these methods during teaching and learning for a week to allow interim data analysis and corroboration to ensure a match between findings and participants reality (Creswell, 2009 p.41).

3.7. Data Collection

Data collection involves spending considerable time in the setting immersing oneself and collecting as much relevant information as possible and as unobtrusively as possible (Airasian & Gay, 2009: 366). Data collection can be derived from a number of methods, which include telephonic interviews, focus groups, surveys, field notes, recorded social interaction or questionnaires (Heaton, 2004: 37). It is therefore, up to the researcher to see to it that he or she has chosen the appropriate method for addressing the needs of the research question(s).

For this specific study, the researcher used semi structured interviews and observations to collect data because they were the most appropriate method to facilitate a detailed understanding of the experiences faced by teachers in an attempt to enhance the implementation of the schools' language policy. They also gave an insight into how teachers use teaching strategies to enhance learning and teaching together with the learners' interaction. Airasian and Gay (2009: 366) explain that many sources of data are acceptable as long as the collection approach is ethical, feasible and contributes to an understanding of the phenomenon under study. Moreover, the use of interviews can generate substantial in-depth qualitative information usually from a small number of participants (Chris, 2005: 357).

Considering selected participants on a specific topic to find answers to research questions is the basis of interviewing. The results of the interviews were then analysed by looking for similarities and differences between responses from participants (Chris 2005: 357). The researcher related these individual responses hermeneutically to the "bigger picture" set by the research questions (Chris 2005: 357). Chris (2005: 357) identifies four types of interviews, namely structured, semi-structured, unstructured and focus group interviews. For this particular study, the researcher used semi structured interviews and observations.

- ***Semi-structured interviews***

Patton (2002) defines semi structured interviews as a flexible process that allows depth to be achieved by providing the opportunity on the part of the interviewer to probe and expand interviewee's responses. It involves conducting intensive individual interviews with the small number of participants to explore their

perspectives on the implementation of Language in Education Policy (Boyce & Neal, 2006). With semi-structured interviews, the researcher used a set of predetermined questions on an interview schedule (De Vos, et al, 2002). Therefore the semi-structure interview was relevant in this study because it allowed the researcher to use probes to clear up vague responses. It also gave an opportunity for asking for incomplete answers to be elaborated upon (Hysamen, 1996). The interviews were later transcribed and the transcripts were analysed according to emerging themes (Govender, 2009). Cohen et al. (2007); Adam (2010) and Tellis (1997) recommend open-ended interviews to expand the depth of data gathering.

With reference to semi-structured interviews, Adam (2010); Boyce & Neal (2006); Cohen *et al.* (2007) classify the *advantages of semi structured interviews* as follows:

- People are more easily engaged in an interview than in completing a questionnaire. Thus there are fewer problems in failing to respond (Cohen, et al, 2007).
- They help to clarify concepts and problems and they allow for the establishment of a list of possible answers or solutions which, in turn, facilitates the construction of multiple-choice questions (Adam, 2010; Boyce & Neal, 2006; and Cohen, et al, 2007).
- The interviewer will be able to pick up non-verbal cues, including facial expressions, tones of voice and cues from the surroundings and context (Cohen, *et al*, 2007).
- They are very helpful in exploratory research, as well as when considering a pilot survey (Adam, 2010).
- They provide much more detailed information than what are available through other data collection methods, such as surveys (Boyce & Neal, 2006).
- They may provide a more relaxed atmosphere in which to collect information (Boyce & Neal, 2006).

As much as semi-structured interviews allow the participants to narrate their stories, they also have some disadvantages. The following are some of the disadvantages attached to the semi-structured interview:

- It is difficult to record responses, particularly if the interviewer is also responsible for writing them down (Adam, 2010).
- The quality of responses, that is, their reliability and validity is dependent on the interviewer (Cohen, *et al*, 2007).
- If the interviewers are not competent, they may introduce many biases and interviews are time consuming and thus expensive (Adam, 2010).

To minimise the above disadvantages, the researcher maintained the notes taken during the interview schedule containing the essentials of the interviewees' answers and information about the proceeding of the interview (Maponya, 2010). The researcher refrained from inserting her own biases by paraphrasing what participants were saying or making evaluative comments like "good" or "that's interesting" (Mack, *et al*, 2005)." The researcher sat down immediately after an interview and jotted down an impression of the interview in maintaining the quality of the response. Moreover, the researcher made use of a tape recorder in capturing more data than relying on memory only. Tshotsho (2006) states that recording has an advantage of capturing information more faithfully than hurriedly written notes, and this can allow the interviewer to focus on the interview.

The researcher transcribed the recordings and categorised them into theme for analysis.

- **Classroom observation**

Observations simply mean "watching what people do; listening to what they say; and sometimes asking them clarifying questions" (Gillham, 2000 p.45). In this case, I observed the ways that the teachers developed a culture in their classrooms through their interaction with the learners, the posters and pictures on their walls. Observation in conjunction with the interview data was seen to be important for this study because there was a common discrepancy between what people said about themselves and what they actually did (Gillham, 2000). Cohen *et al*. (2007) define observation as a way of gathering data by watching people's behaviour and events or noting physical characteristics in their natural setting. On the other hand, observation is not to report on individuals' performance but to find out what kinds of

problems in general are being encountered (Powell & Steel, 1996). Hence, Cohen, *et al* (2007) note that observation involves gathering live data from live situations.

In view of the above, the researcher observed lessons where teachers from both schools taught their lessons through the medium of English as LOLT as well as the responses from the learners during teaching and learning. This enabled the researcher to gather necessary in-depth information for the study. Kumar (1991) points out that if the observer stays for relatively longer periods, people become less self-conscious and gradually start behaving naturally. Moreover, the researcher compiled an observation record form that listed the items observed and provided spaces to record observations (Kumar, 1991). These forms were similar to survey questionnaires but the researcher recorded the observed scenarios and participants' answers (Powell & Steel, 1996). They helped the researcher in standardizing the observation process and ensuring that all important items were covered (Kumar, 1991). McClure (2002) states that direct observation facilitates better aggregation of the data gathered. The researcher observed three times for each lesson, thus spending three weeks on the research site.

However, observation also has some disadvantages. To this effect, Kumar (1991) identifies direct observation as susceptible to observer bias. Thus, the researcher made sure that the negative side of direct observation did not affect the study because the researcher was guided by the written observation form on what was observed. The researcher used the written observation sheet that limited personal perceptions and bias because the event was experienced first-hand (McClure, 2002).

3.8. Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis is a process of breaking down data into smaller units, determining their import and putting the pertinent units together in a more general analytical form (Airasian & Gay 2009: 450). Simply put, data analysis involves breaking up data into meaningful, understandable and manageable themes, trends and relationships (Mouton, 2001: 108). Furthermore, Airasian and Gay (2009: 450) emphasize that there is no single correct way to organize and analyse data. Different researchers produce different categories from the same data for many reasons, including researcher's biases, personal interests, style and interpretive focus. In this

regard, the researcher took his/her own approach to analyse the data and this was done through the following coding under themes. As discussed before, Snape and Spencer (2003, p.200) state that discourse analysis originates from the discipline of sociology and is about 'examining the way knowledge is produced within different discourses and the performances, linguistic styles and rhetorical devices used in particular accounts'. In this regard, Jankowicz (2005, p.229) defines discourse analysis as a particular relevance when listening to people's own narratives of a situation: the biographical approach. Discourse analysis focuses on the way through which research participants draw on differing interpretive repertoires depending on their interpretation of the context in which the interviews take place (Jankowicz, 2005 p.229).

In light of the above, the researcher tried to understand the data first and foremost in order to make the connections needed to analyse and interpret it (Airasian and Gay 2009:450). One must know and understand one's data. For this reason, the first steps in the data analysis should involve listening to the data recordings several times in order to know and understand the recordings. Whilst listening to the recordings, the researcher needs to note down some important points which would serve as the foundation for the analysis.

After getting to know and understand the recorded data, the recordings were then transcribed. Data transcriptions enabled the study to gain a complete picture of what occurred and what was said during the data collection process. In addition, the chances of the analysis being biased was minimised (Ibrahim 2012:5). The transcriptions were then double-checked in terms of accuracy. The process of transcribing the data was helpful as it enabled the researcher to hear the recordings again, hence becoming even more familiar with the recorded data. Once the transcriptions were completed, the researcher focussed on the analysis. In view of this, he/she collated all of the data from each question (Fraser 2012:1) in order to identify consistencies and differences in each case to gain a bigger picture of the results (Renner and Tylor-Powell 2003:2). For example, question four on the teachers' semi structured interview was "How are the learners coping with English as a LOLT?" All of the response from the six participants were then collated and analysed in terms of their consistencies, differences and any other possible links.

Finally, after collecting all of the data from each question, the information pertaining to each question was then summarized. These summaries entailed the key ideas being expressed within each question as well as the similarities and differences in the way the participants answered each question. These coherent summaries were used as the basis for the interpretation and discussion of the data and the study's conclusion.

3.9. Ethical consideration

Informed consent of the participants: Neuman (2003 p.124) states that nobody should ever be coerced into participating in a research because participation must always be voluntary. A consent form that states the purpose of the study and seeking their consent to participate in the study was given out to participants i.e. six teachers (appendix J). It was also made very clear to them that participation was voluntarily.

Avoidance of harm: Dane (1990 p.44) claims that an ethical obligation rests with the researcher to protect subjects, within reasonable limits, from any form of physical discomfort that may occur during the research work. The participants were assured that no harm in participating in the research, and they could stop the interview at any point and nothing would happen to them.

Respect for the study site: Permission was obtained from the schools' authorities before the commencement of the study (appendices G, H and I). Letters were written to the two principals of the two schools where the study was to be conducted.

Anonymity: Gay and Airasian (2003) state that harm could come in research by revealing the identity of the subject. Such could be overcome by keeping the participants anonymous and the report was presented in a manner that there was no direct link between the participants and the information gathered. The names of the schools name were not mentioned and the 6 people were simply referred to as Respondent A, up to Respondent F. This was done in order to maintain anonymity, so that the participants were more comfortable in being researched.

3.10 Challenges encountered in the study

The challenge that the researcher had was time. The appointments the researcher made were not successful at times because of special programmes at the different schools. For instance the March month was scheduled for the athletics competition; the grade 6 teachers were fully participating in that programme thus resulting in the delay of the interviews and observations. The one teacher who taught English in one school which the researcher was supposed to do interviews with, was not available at all. The researcher had to interview a different teacher in his place who teaches English in another grade 6 class.

3.11. Conclusion

The focus of this chapter was to justify the research methodology that was used in the study. This study adopted a qualitative research approach which is set within the interpretive paradigm. It seeks to analyse and interpret comprehensive narrative data in order to gain insights into implementation of Language in Education Policy in the Lady Frere District. The study is in the format of a case study because it is focused on a single group, namely teachers in the two primary schools in question. The research instruments used in this research were semi structured interviews and observations. These questions allowed participants to respond freely and to provide their own thoughts. In the next chapter, the research findings for this study will be discussed in depth. The findings will then be related to those reported in the current literature in order to critique the results by supporting or contradicting the findings based on the available literature.

Chapter 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present and analyse the data generated through interviews and observation. The study investigated the implementation of the language policy by teachers from two schools in the Lady Frere Education district. The participants include: two grade 6 teachers, one from each school; two parents, one from each school and two learners and one from each of the schools. The researcher used pseudonyms for the two schools and all the participants to ensure that ethical issues such as confidentiality, privacy and anonymity were adhered to. The chapter discusses the synopsis of the two schools and the biographical information of the participants (teachers, learners and parents). It also presents and analyses the data gathered through interviews and observation. The researcher through the presentation and analysis points out the challenges encountered through the suggestions from the participants in a bid to improve the implementation of language policy in these two schools.

4.2 Synopsis of the schools

The schools where the study was conducted are located in a rural area of Lady Frere Education district. The language of learning and teaching in these schools is English to Grade 6 which is the intermediate phase. IsiXhosa is the home language to all the learners in both schools. Additionally, IsiXhosa is also a dominant language in the area where these schools are located. The community is comprised largely by social grant receivers and most people are unemployed. The few with the opportunity for job security are domestic workers, pensioners and farm workers. In terms of the internal organisation of the schools, they start from grade R to grade 9. There is one class per grade in school A, and in school B, there are two classes per grade. Although the schools are Christian based, learners and teachers are from a variety of different religions and cultures.

School A

School A started with two teachers and forty five learners, but now it has seven teachers with an enrolment of 387 learners. The school has old buildings with seven classrooms. Grades R and 1 are sharing a classroom as well as Grades 4 and 5. These classes are multi-grading and are each taught by one teacher. In Grade R and 1, there were about 25 – 30 learners whilst in the Grade 4 and 5 classes there were about 35-40 learners. In Grade 6, there were also about 35 – 40 learners.

School B

School B is also a rural school in the Lady Frere education district. The school has no proper infrastructure, it has two newly built blocks which accommodate 1 256 learners and 25 teachers. The school has a principal, deputy principal, 5 heads of departments (HODs) and 18 teachers. There are two Grade 6 classes which are taught by the same teacher. In each of these classes there were about 40-45 learners.

4.3. Demographic characteristics of the participants.

School A

Table 1 reflects the grade and gender distribution of the three participants (teacher, learner, parent from school A). Teacher is interviewed in order to get a diverse perspective of her experiences in implementation of language policy. A grade 6 learner learns through English language and a parent of the grade 6 learner

Participants	Grade	Gender	Ages
Teacher	6	F	55
Learner	6	F	14
parent	of grade 6 learner	F	60

Table 1: Grade and gender distribution of participants

School B

Table 2 reflects the grade and gender distribution of the three participants (teacher, learner and parent) from school B.

Participants	Grade	Gender	Age
Teacher	6	M	50
Learner	6	F	13
parent	of grade 6 learner	M	45

Table 2: Grade and gender distribution of participants

4.3.1. Distribution of participants according to qualifications

The participants (teachers) were asked questions relating to their academic and professional qualifications as reflected in table 3 below. With regards to teachers, this was to ascertain whether they complied with the requirements for appointment as educators as provided by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC, 2003) which states that an approved qualification denotes a degree, diploma, certificate or another qualification recognised by the Ministry of Education as a qualification of appointment as an educator.

Participants	Years of teaching experience	Qualification
Teacher A	24	STD, FDE, B.ED Hons
Teacher B	20	SPTD,FDE

Table 3: Distribution of participants (teachers) according to qualifications

The participants were asked to divulge the experience they have in the teaching profession in terms of years. The purpose was to determine whether practical experience in the teaching profession, in any way, enhanced or complicated the experiences of teachers in implementing language in education policy in schools, regardless of a lack of professional training and perceived lack of expertise in addressing the educational needs of the learners.

In terms of the norms and standards for educators (ELRC, 2003), a teacher needs a minimum Relative Education Qualification Value (REQV) of 13, which refers to a Matriculation Certificate (Grade 12) plus three years of training as an educator or 360 South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) credits to be registered with the South African Council of Educators (SACE) as a professionally qualified educator.

The determination of the REQV is based primarily on the number of recognized prescribed full-time professional or academic years of study at an approved university, Technical College or College of Education and taking into account the level of school education attained (ELRC, 2003).

The participants were asked to divulge their academic qualifications with the purpose of ensuring whether they had the necessary qualifications and expertise to implement language in education policy to the learners. Table 3 indicates that the participants are highly qualified and hold more than the required qualification for employment as educators. All the participants (teachers) hold professional qualifications.

4.4 Coding

In the presentation and analysis of the data, the participants are coded as T1 and T2 for teachers, P1 and P2 to refer to parents and L1 and L2 to refer to the learners. This was also done because it was very important to protect the participants' identity. The actual words of the participants are typed in italics. For the purpose of this study, three extracts would be used to support each argument.

4.5 Presentation and analysis of data

As the researcher seeks to investigate the implementation of language policy by teachers, the study made use of interviews and observation as a means of data collection. The data collection process produced a huge amount of data. Regardless of the fact that this data might have captured the viewpoints of the investigation, it was not possible for the researcher to present all the data in the limited space of this study. As a result, the researcher was forced to make a very thorough selection. The careful selection was based on the argument on qualitative study that 'there are no guidelines in qualitative research for determining how many instances are necessary to support a conclusion or interpretation, this is always a judgement call, (Taylor &

Bogdan 1998 p.156). That notwithstanding, two strands of data were used to support each theme that emerged. Thus, the best insights might have come from quite a small amount of data. However, the participants' stories are being retold in this chapter. Secondly, the data would be segmented in order to capture the views of each of the participatory groups. Thus, under each theme, segment 1 would represent the views of the teachers, segment 2, the views of the learners, segment 3, the views of the parents and segment 4 would be observation.

Based on the theoretical underpinnings from the literature review, the data that was collected generated the following themes:

1. Preferred Language
2. Awareness of Language in education policy
3. Implementation of language policy in class
4. The role of language policy in learners' success or failure
5. English as an International Language
6. Benefits of English as LOLT
7. Challenges when implementing the language policy
8. Influence of English as LOLT on learners academic performance
9. Suggestions and improvements towards language policy
10. Parental support
11. Learners' written work in English
12. Learning through the medium of English
- 12.1 Code-switching

4.5.1 Preferred Language

Language is a tool for communication that is used for expressing one's views or feelings. The first question posed to the participants was asking what their first language was. The follow-up questions were interrogating which language they felt most comfortable in expressing themselves to the learners. The main aim of the question was to check whether the teachers are comfortable using English as the language of learning and teaching in order to express themselves clearly to the learners. Based on these questions, the following information came up from the interviews.

4.5.1.1 Data segment 1

Responses from the teachers based on the interviews

The following questions were asked to elicit this theme:

Q. What is your first language?

T1: *Xhosa is my first language.*

English because the language of teaching and learning in our school is English.

T2: *IsiXhosa of course*

Q. Which of the 11 official languages are you comfortable with?

T1 *I am comfortable in English because as a Maths teacher, the language of learning and teaching is English. I use English as stipulated by the language policy.*

T2 *I am comfortable in both languages but would prefer isiXhosa because it is the mother tongue for the learners and they always interact well once it is used for teaching in class. I must say that I do not have any problem using either English or isiXhosa*

4.5.1.2 Data segment 2

Responses from learner's interviews:

The following excerpts from the same questions that were given to the teachers were also used for the learners to provoke their own perceptions to elicit this theme which came out very prominent:

Q. What is your first language?

L1: *Xhosa*

L2: *Xhosa*

Q. Which of the 11 official languages are you comfortable with?

L 1: *Ndiyonwaba xa ndithetha isiXhosa*

[I am happy when speaking isiXhosa]

Ndithanda kufundiswe ngesiNgesi kuba siso esincedayo xa kubhalwa iimviwo.

[I like that they should learn in English because it is used in writing examinations]

L2: *Ndibaryt xa kuthethwa isiXhosa then kutolikwe ngesingesi*

kodwa funeka sifundiswe ngeEnglish.

[I'm fine when the teacher is speaking Xhosa and then translates it in English]

4.5.1.3 Data segment 3

Responses from the Parents

The following extracts are from the parents based on the same questions on the interview schedules like those of teachers and learners:

Q What is your first language?

P1: *Xhosa thina mem*

[we are Xhosa speakers mam]

P2: *Xhosa kaloku*

[obviously Xhosa]

Q. Which of the 11 official languages are you comfortable with?

P 1: *Ndonwaba xa kuthethwa isiXhosa*

[I feel comfortable when isiXhosa is spoken]

Abantwana bethu bona funeka basithethe isiNgesi bakwazi ukuthetha nezinye iintlanga.

[Our children must speak English so as to speak with other nationalities.]

P 2: *Kodwa ke xakufundiswa abantwana bethu ngaske kusetyenziswe iSingingesi, ixesha elkhoyo liphucukile.*

[We wish our children are taught in English because these are modern times]

There is consistency in the answers given by the learners, teachers and parents which show that isiXhosa is the preferred language.

4.5.1.4 Data segment 4

Observation

The following data is based on the observation that was made by the researcher.

Though the participants claim that they are comfortable in isiXhosa, it was noted that they like to be taught in English to benefit in examinations and also to be able to communicate with other nations. The researcher observed that there were very few learners who could participate in lessons taught through the medium of English. The teachers had to switch from English to isiXhosa to accommodate the majority of the learners in their lessons. The responses also show that the learners did not attempt to answer in English. They waited for the teacher to make translations for them before they could answer the questions.

In view of the data from all the four segments, the responses showed some form of agreement on the language preferred by all the participants. All the participants (learners, teachers and parents) revealed that they are isiXhosa speakers and that they prefer English to be the language of teaching and learning since it is stipulated by the language policy. Although the participants responded differently, they all indicated that they were more comfortable with English as LOLT, however, it is evident that they struggle to learn through the medium of English.

4.5.2 AWARENESS OF LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION POLICY.

Language policy is a conscious choice of a language or languages in relation with the social life of people (Abongdia, 2013). As far as the language policy was concerned, both teachers and one of the parents agreed that they were aware of the language policy in the school. As the present study deals with language in education policy implementation, some of the interview questions had to do with their awareness of the language in education policy issues. Specifically, teachers and parents were asked if they had any language policy in their schools that guided their choice of the language of learning and teaching.

4.5.2.1. Data segment 1

Responses from the teachers based on the interviews

The questions below helped to elicit the theme of awareness of language policy discussed in this study.

Q: Do you have a language policy in your school/your child's school and what does it state?

T1: *Yes there is a language policy and it states that all educators should use English in their classes except those who are teaching isiXhosa.*

T2: *Yes, there is a language policy as we know that from Grade 4, all the content subjects are taught in English except those teachers who teach isiXhosa. There is a tendency of teaching content subjects in isiXhosa.*

Q: Did you have a decision in the use of that language of instruction?

T 1: *No, it is the SGB and the SMT that make such a decision in line with the language policy and the teachers only have to follow*

T 2: *The principal instructs us on which language to use*

4.5.2.2 Data segment 2

Responses from the learners

Q: Do you have a language policy in your school/your child's school and what does it state?

L1: *Hayi andiyazi yintoni leyo?*

[No I don't know, what is that?]

L2 *Hay mam andiyazi.*

[No mam I don't know]

Q: Did you have a decision in the used use of that language of instruction?

4.5.2.3 Data segment 2

Responses from the parents

Q: Do you have a language policy in your school/your child's school and what does it state?

Both learners were clueless to the second question. This shows that the learners do not have any knowledge of the language policy which can be disturbing.

P1: *No, what is the language policy? The medium of instruction used by my child is English, hayi yintoni iLanguage policy [No, what is language policy?*

Uyayazi into yokuba zange ndibandakanywe kwisigqibo selanguage policy]

[Do you know that I was never consulted in the decision of this language policy?]

P2: *Sinayo Miss, [yes we do have it Miss] Xhosa, Yes, it is isiXhosa and English. English is going to help my child to cope with other subjects.*

Q: Did you have a decision in the used use of that language of instruction?

P 1: *[No, I was not involved in the decision making of the language policy]*

Kodwa ndiyayithanda into yokuba umntwana wam efunda ngesingesi

[But I also like the fact that my child is taught in English]

P 2: *When I visit the schools sometimes I hear the teachers using isiXhosa. I was not involved in the decision making of the language policy.*

4.5.2.4 Data segment 4

Observations

As the present study deals with language-in-education policy implementation, some of my interview questions had to do with their awareness of the language-in-education policy issues. Specifically, teachers were asked if they had any language policy in their schools that guided their choice of the language of learning and teaching. The teachers' responses claimed that both schools had language policy, and the teachers' knowledge of the current South African Language-in-Education

Policy was very limited. They did not talk about the choice of language instead, they were suggesting that English should be LOLT. They displayed limited knowledge of the general language policy of South Africa (RSA Constitution) which stipulates eleven official languages.

When the researcher probed deeper in terms of their own understanding of the Language-in-Education Policy, the researcher could not get anything other than the establishment of the eleven official languages instead of English and Afrikaans which used to be the official languages in the previous government. As the school language policies determines the languages used for learning and teaching in schools, the researcher asked questions relating to the use of isiXhosa and English as media of instruction.

In view of the responses above, one can see that the parents know that their children are taught in English although they were not part of the decision making. They did not know the language policy and seemingly they were not involved in the formulation of it. This is an indication that the school takes decision for the learners without contacting their parents. However, it noted that the parents are happy with the decision. One of the parents does not seem to know what is meant by the Language Policy, let alone the language in Education Policy. The teachers also admitted that they should use English as stipulated by the language in education policy during teaching and learning except those who are teaching isiXhosa.

4.5.3 IMPLEMENTATION OF LANGUAGE POLICY IN CLASS.

In order to establish the significance of language in the classroom, all the participants were asked how they implement the language policy or how they interacted with their learners in English. For the researcher to come out with this, the following question was posed. Note should be taken that the data that elicited this theme was only from segment 1 and observation, segment 4. Segments 2, and segment 3 learners, as well as parents forgot answers.

4.5.3.1 Data segment 1

Response from teachers based on questions below

The following question threw some light on the theme of the implementation of the language policy in class.

Q: Is the language policy being implemented successfully? Why or why not?

In response to the above question, the follow opinions were expressed:

T1: *I encourage learners to speak English throughout the class. But you know what? Language policy as we know, subjects are taught in English from Grade 4-9 by all teachers except isiXhosa. There is a tendency of content subjects teachers who teach in isiXhosa and I feel that they should stop this and teach in English as the policy prescribed. NO, because the teachers are teaching in isiXhosa instead of English.*

T2: *No, I don't think the policy is implemented successfully because I find myself using isiXhosa instead of English, since the learners seem to be confused when taught in English.*

The teacher's responses confirmed that teachers used more of isiXhosa than English in their lessons to facilitate learning. Code switching is a necessary practice in the classroom to foster learning. Teachers had to switch from English to isiXhosa to accommodate the majority of learners in their lessons.

4.5.3.2 Data segment 4

Observations

The observations were based on the teacher's interactions with their learners using English as medium of instructions. Regarding the use of English as a medium of instructions, teachers had to translate everything to the learners in their mother tongue, isiXhosa, because the learners could not the lessons conducted in English. Both teachers claimed that they were forced to code switch for effective teaching and learning to take place. The teachers' responses confirmed what the researcher observed in their classrooms when teaching through the medium of English.

Teachers used more isiXhosa than English in their lessons to facilitate learning. Code switching is a necessary practice in the classroom.

4.5.4 THE ROLE OF THE LANGUAGE POLICY IN LEARNERS' SUCCESS OR FAILURE.

According to the results from the two teachers interviewed for this study, one holds that the current language in education policy helps learners to succeed in one way or the other while the other thinks that the policy hinders the learners' achievement.

4.5.4.1 Data segment 1

Responses from the teachers based on the question below:

Q: To what extent does the language policy meet the learner's needs?

Below are the responses from the two teachers:

T1: *To me, the learners know how to express themselves in English though they need some assistance at their level. They can communicate with people abroad and more windows will be opened to the world and to knowledge.*

T2: *Yes, the policy hinders some learners, because some learners can only speak isiXhosa. Learners are encountering problems in expressing themselves in English. Most of the learners come with a poor background of the second official language thus resulting in failure.*

4.5.4.2 Data segment 2

Responses from learners based on the theme above

The excerpts below are the views of the learners on actual implementation in the classroom scenarios based on the question that follows:

Q: To what extent does the language policy meet the learner's needs?

L1: *Mam, ndiye mna ndichaphazeleke kwiitest zam kuba sometimes ndiyaxakwa kukubhala izimvo zam ngeEnglish.,Ingakumbi iessay.Lonto yenze okokuba ndifumane iimarks ezincinci.*

[I am sometimes affected in my tests because it is sometimes difficult to put down my ideas in English, especially the essay. As a result I get few marks]

L2: *Xakufundwa ngesiNgesi lonto ithetha ukuba siyakunqandwa ziinkwenkwezi,kodwa xasibhala iimviwo zethu ndiye ndibethakale kakhulu kuba kufuneka ndibhale ngesingesi.*

[When we are taught in English it means the stars are the limit, but when we write our exams it gets very tough because I have to express myself in English.]

4.5.4.3 Data segment 3

Responses from parents based on the theme

The question that follows provoked the parents view on the implementation of the language policy in classroom environment

Q: To what extent does the language policy meet the learner's needs?

P1: *Hey,lomcimbi unzima kaloku Mam.ndicingukuba abantwana bethu kufanelekile bafunde ngesilungu bakwazi ukufumana amathuba angcono empangelo nangona ndibona ukuba bayoyiswa kukukhumsha.*

[Hey this thing is difficult Mam I think our children have to learn in English so that they can get opportunities, though I see it difficult for them to speak in English.]

P2: *Andiboni limbi icebo kuba ixesha esikulo linzima lifuna abantu abakwaziyo kukukhumsha.kunzima kodwa kwababantwana kuba iingxelo zabo ziyabachaphazela*

[I can't see any other option because this modern era needs people who can speak English but it is difficult for these children are reflected by their results]

4.5.4.4 Data segment 4

Observation

English is the second language to isiXhosa speakers. The Language in education policy seeks to promote multilingualism. According to the researchers observation, it does not cater for some South African languages especially isiXhosa. The policy is a linguistic ideology rather than a linguistic reality as it does not deliver what it

promises. The policy should go hand in hand with democracy (Bamgbose2000) and should be formulated to rectify the unjust of the past.

Although the first respondent believes that the use of English helps to improve learner's communication skills as well as open doors of other opportunities, the second teacher is of the opinion that the language policy impedes comprehension and academic progress of learners due to the learner's poor English language background. Learners also indicated that their learning is affected negatively as they struggle to express themselves in English. Furthermore, all the participants are of the view that English maintains a high status as they claim that they will benefit in future when looking for jobs.

4.5.5 English as an international language.

The dominant position of English both nationally and internationally motivated the researcher to get the views of the participant on the power of this language. The question below helped to elicit the theme of English as an international language.

4.5.5.1 Data segment 1

Response from the teachers from the interviews

The following data are responses from teachers on the question that follow in light of EIL:

Q: Given that English is LOLT, do you think it is necessary for the learners to be taught in English rather than their mother tongue (isiXhosa?) Why or why not?

T1: *Yes, it is necessary for the learners to be taught in English because English is the language of communication internationally; also doors will be opened for learners for employment and travelling.*

On the other hand, teacher 2 argues that:

T2: *It is important for the learners to be taught in their mother tongue because when they know their mother tongue it is easier for them to understand. Understanding is easier when learning in your mother tongue, it also reflects their origin.*

4.4.5.2 Data segment 2

Response from the learners based on the interviews

The following responses are from the learners based on the question that follows to elicit the above theme.

Q: Given that English is LOLT, do you think it is necessary for the learners to be taught in English rather than their mother tongue (isiXhosa?) Why or why not?

L1: *Ndithanda ukufunda ngesiNgesi nangona ndiye ndifumane ubunzima ,kaloku iixams zenziwa ngeEglish mam.Ngamanye amaxesha ndiye ndingamva uteacher xa efundisa ngeEnglish qha.*

[I love learning in English although I get difficulty because exams are in English mam. At times I don't hear the teacher at all when he only teaches in English].

L2: *Ngamanye amaxesha siyandisokolisa isiNgesi Mam, ngakumbi xa kufuneka ndisebenzise iisentences, ndiye ndincedwe kukusebenzisa idictionary.*

[Sometimes, I struggle to interpret sentences in English. I use dictionary and I also ask my teacher to simplify]

4.5.5.3 Data segment 3

Response from the parents

The following extracts are responses from the parents on the question that follows based on the theme above.

Q: Given that English is LOLT, do you think it is necessary for the learners to be taught in English rather than their mother tongue (isiXhosa?) Why or why not?

P1: *Heee, kufanelwe bafundiswe nge English khonukuze bakwazi ukusebenza phakathi kwezinye iintlanga.*

[Hee I think they should be taught in English so that they can be able to work amongst other tribes/nations]

P2: *Ngaske mam kum bafundiswe ngesiXhosa nangesiNgesi .Abantwana mabakwazi ukuzithehelela xa beyokufuna umsebenzi .Okunye mabalwazi ulwimi lwabo bakwazi ukucacelwa xa bengaqondi.Mabangalahleki nalulwimi lwabo lwemveli bazidle ngobuXhosa babo.*

[I wish they can be taught in both IsiXhosa and English. The children should be able to talk when they go to look for work. Also they should know their language and be able to understand when they don't understand. They must also not forget their Home language, and be proud of being Xhosa].

The presentation above shows that learners depended on their mother tongue and no sufficient vocabulary of the language used as MOI hence they shifted to their languages each time they get stuck.

While one of the teachers showed a preference for learning in isiXhosa as she felt that most learners are comfortable when taught in isiXhosa and thinks that learners would therefore find their academic work easier to understand, the other teachers goes out of the local and looks at English as an international language and the advantages it has.

4.5.5.4 Data segment 4

Observation

During the observation the researcher noted that the learners were not penalized for using their mother tongue when discussing or explaining to their peers in all subjects, including English lessons but were expected to use English when responding to the educators. In fact, during the lesson some of the group learners were discussing the meaning of the words in their home languages with their peers before responding to the educator. And in school B the educators presented lesson first in learner's mother tongue before translating the same lesson into English even English lessons.

4.5.6 BENEFITS OF ENGLISH AS LOLT

Another area of investigation was the benefits English has as a LOLT. Hence the participants were asked to talk about the benefits of using English as a LOLT.

4.5.6.1: Data from segment 1

Responses from teachers

The question below helped to elicit the theme of benefits of English as LOLT:

Q: What do you think are the advantages or benefits of using English as the LOLT?

T1: *English is beneficial because learners get chances to qualify for sponsors and learnership opportunities to go abroad.*

T2: *The advantage of English as LOLT is that learners can express themselves without problems and moreover they will have the opportunity of having jobs in other countries. English is an International language and learners will be able to communicate because South Africa is a multilingual country.*

4.5.6.2 Data segment 2

The views of the learners

The data that follows is based on extracts from learner's interviews as answers to the question below

Q: What do you think are the advantages or benefits of using English as the LOLT?

L1: *Ewe mam, ndiyayithanda into yokuba sifundiswe ngesiNgesi kuba kaloku xa ndifuna umsebenzi wokuba ngunondaba ndizakukwazi ukukhumsha ndithethe nabantu bamanye amazwe.*

[Yes madam, I like to be taught in the medium of English because when I seek employment for journalism, I will be able to communicate in English even with foreign people from other countries].

L2: *Yhuu mam, isiNgesi sizakusinceda sive xa kuthethwa isiNgesi, naxa sibhala iitest zethu.*

[Wow mam, English will help us when people are speaking it, even when we write our exams].

The extracts above show that the learners see the need to be taught in English. However the learners express some challenges they face in using English as a LOLT. One of the participants claimed that she could not understand English well. To her, English has difficult words (vocabulary) that she cannot understand. She further says that she is struggling to write in English. Learner 2 on her part says that the learners are more exposed to isiXhosa (her mother tongue) than English leading to low level of competence in English especially given that their teachers translate from English to isiXhosa for them. The responses are captured below:

4.5.6.3 Data segment 3

Parent's interview

Q: What do you think are the advantages or benefits of using English as the LOLT?

P 1: *Ndiyasokola ukuthetha isiNgesi, kuba nzima ukuguqula amagama okanye izivakalisi ezibhalwe ngesiNgesi ndizise esiXhoseni.*

[I struggle to speak English; I also struggle to interpret words or sentences written in English to isiXhosa]

P 2: *Enyinto sisoloko sithetha isiXhosa ezinye izinto zisixake, uMiss wethu uyasitolikela ngesiXhosa.*

[Another thing is that, we always speak isiXhosa, we won't be able to know other things. Our teacher translate for us in isiXhosa]

While the participants believe that English as LOLT is advantageous, they also noted some challenges they face in the use of English as a language of teaching and learning.

4.5.6.4: Data segment 4

Observation:

Due to the fact that both parents who were interviewed suffered under the apartheid education, their way of thinking seemed to show that the new education system under the democratic government is providing better education for their children. Of

course, such thoughts are valid and reasonable given the political history of this country, but the main challenge is linguistic inequality which will exist in education under democracy. The learners may be exposed to a variety of learning styles especially when the teachers are guided and trained on how to implement the present language-in-education-policy. They could also benefit if they use their mother tongue as a basis of learning a second language.

4.5.7 CHALLENGES WHEN IMPLEMENTING THE LANGUAGE POLICY

Having a language policy is one thing and implementing the policy for effective action is another. Thus a question was asked to the teachers with regards to the challenges faced in implementing the language in education policy in the schools.

4.5.7.1: Data segment 1

Response from teacher's interviews

It is again needful to caution the reader that this theme was only elicited with data from the teacher's interviews and observation. Both the learners and parents had nothing to say. Thus, data will only come from segment 1 and 4 to throw some light on the theme.

Some of the responses that came up are indicated below in reaction to the question that follows:

Q: What are the challenges that you face in implementing the Language Policy in school?

T1: *For effective implementation of the policy, there need to be adequate teaching and learning materials in the schools which is of course not the case here. Secondly, the language policy is not implemented at school because the teachers teach in isiXhosa or mix English with Xhosa.*

T2: *I think parents, teachers and the SGB (school governing Body) need some training so that all stakeholders are on the same page. The aim of promoting bilingualism could be fostered through in-service training because the actual practices in our school are failing the actual aim. Teachers have the tendency of teaching in isiXhosa instead of using English.*

Both participants mentioned that the major challenge in implementing the language policy is that teachers use isiXhosa instead of English when teaching the learners. They also indicated that the teachers are mixing English with isiXhosa. Thus the need for in-service training programmes to enhance the implementation of language policy by all the stakeholders as suggested by teacher 2.

4.5.7.2 Data segment 4

Observation

During observation the researcher had noticed that both schools the major contribution in poor performance is that both schools had no libraries or Science laboratories. Educators have to improvise and encourage learners to visit public libraries for researching tasks. The only resources in both schools were the chalkboards and a few text books to explain lessons.

4.5.8 INFLUENCE OF ENGLISH AS LOLT ON LEARNERS ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE.

The choice of language of teaching and learning has a great role on the academic performance of the learners. Given that the school and community are both homogeneous in terms of isiXhosa being the custodians of the language of the participants; it was deemed necessary to find out if using English as a LOLT influenced the academic performance of the learners. The learners again were silent under this theme and data was only generated from segment 1, teachers, segment 3, parents and segment 4, observation.

4.5.8.1: Data segment 1

Responses from both the teachers

Q: Do you think using English as LOLT has an influence in the academic performance of learners? Why or why not?

Based on the above question, the following opinions were expressed:

T1: *Yes it does. This because learners when they are required to explain or discuss in the examinations, they leave blank spaces but not that they do not know the answer, but they struggle to express themselves in English.*

T2: *Yes, if you mark the learners' examinations, these learners are free to answer closed questions but struggle a lot with open ended questions and as a result this affects their academic performance.*

4.5.8.2 Data segment 3

Interviews with parents

Concerning this theme the parents had the following contributions:

Q: **Do you think using English as LOLT has an influence in the academic performance of learners? Why or why not?**

Parents' opinions were also sought on the effect of the LOLT on their children's academic performance.

P1: *Ndiyacinga ukuba isiNgesi siyayichaphazela inkqubela yomntwana wam ngoba xa ndimncedissa ndiguqula isiXhosa kwisiNgesi uyawuqonda umbuzo, maxa wambi ude athi ukuba besiqonda isiNgesi bendizakuphumelela emagqabini.*

[I think English as MOI affects the performance of my child because if I translate the question in isiXhosa, he understands the question. He usually says if he understood English properly he would pass with flying colours].

P2: *Ndiyacinga akaqondi kuba ndiye ndibone xa ephendula into echazayo akakwazi*

[He lacks understanding. I think he does not understand very well. I noticed this when he responds to an explanatory question because he gets stuck]

Follow-up question was interrogated the change in other subjects and the cause of the change. The responses from the parents were:

P1: *Kwi Natural Science uyasokola lomntana xa kufuneka ephendule umbuzo ochazayo, endicingayo ukuba oko kubangelwa kukungakwazi ukuthetha isiNgesi nokusibhala kakuhle.*

[For instance in his Natural Science, he struggles with the explanatory questions].

P 2: Had nothing to say

Looking at the above extracts, both parents indicate that English as LOLT has a negative impact on the learners not because they do not know the content, but rather because of the language which is used in teaching and learning. This is because the learners struggle to understand the teacher's explanations and questions as they are conducted in English.

4.5.8.2 Data segment 4

Observation

It is evident that (the researcher observed) some learners enjoy being taught in English though they are still struggling with the language. There are some who confessed that it was frustrating for them to learn in English and felt like they had no choice. Some saw it as the language of the high social class which can open better doors for them in future. They struggle worse during exams as a result their performances to proceed to the next classes are always poor.

4.5.9 SUGGESTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS TOWARDS LANGUAGE POLICY.

Finally, considering the language policy at these schools and that of the country as a whole, teachers were asked for possible suggestions to help improve the current policy. Again data was only generated from interviews with teachers, segment 1, interviews with parents, segment 3 and observation, segment 4.

4.5.9.1: Data segment 1

Response from both teachers based on the interviews

The data that follows was generated from responses to teachers on suggestions for the implementation of the language policy

Q: Finally, what is your opinion and suggestions to policy makers?

T1: *I hate the fact that the language policy did not accommodate isiXhosa speakers. Everything should be done equally. For instance in the former model C school during examinations, question papers are set in English and Afrikaans. I suggest promoting bilingualism the question papers for exams must be written in isiXhosa and English so that if the learners do not understand English, they can check the isiXhosa version.*

T2: *I think the South African government must develop the isiXhosa language instead of looking for a solution that can lead to the officialisation of some local languages. Official languages have to be taught but government must encourage linguistic to combine our languages and give them equal status.*

4.5.9.2 Data segment 3

Interviews with parents

The following data were responses to the interview

Q: Finally, what is your opinion and suggestions to policy makers?

P1: *Ndicinga okokuba ilanguage policy mayihlaziye. Amaphepha oviwo mawabhalwe ngesiNgesi nesiXhosa ukwenzela ukuba imfundo iphucuke, kungabikho miqobo. Okunye abazali makuqinisekwe okokuba bayinxalenye yokwakhiwa kwelanguage policy bayazi inxaxheba amabayithathe ekuncediseni kwimfundo yabantwana babo.*

[I think language policy should be revised. The question papers must be written in both English and isiXhosa, so that teaching and learning improve, without having obstacles. Furthermore, there must be assurance that parents are part and parcel of the formulation of the language policy so that they know their responsibility on supporting and being part on the education of their children]

P2: *Mam, ndibona okokuba thina singabazali masithathe uxanduva ngokuthi sizibandakanye kwimfundo yabantwana sibancedise nakumsebenzi wabo.*

[Madam, I suggest that we as parents must take responsibility by being involved in the education of our children and assist them in their school work].

Okunye abaqulunqi, mithetho mabacingele abantu basezilalini ukwenzela ukuba kulemigaqo nathi sikwazi ukufikelela.

[To add more, the policy makers must take into consideration the background of the rural areas so that these policies are implementable and applicable].

Based on the above data, the participants suggested that the language policy should be revised. The question papers should be written in English and isiXhosa so as to

improve teaching and learning and learners' academic performance. They further suggest that assurance should be given to parents to involve them in the formulation of the language policy. Policy makers must take into consideration the background of learners from rural areas so that policies are implementable.

The word "hate" is used by Teacher 1 to express how she feels about the treatment given to former model C schools, and her desire to see an equal representation of English and isiXhosa in the examinations. The reality is of course that learners had to use English no matter what their proficiency is in the language.

4.5.10: PARENTS' SUPPORT

The role of parents was deemed very necessary in the academic success of the learners especially in a situation where the learners are using their first additional language as a LOLT. Thus the parents were asked a question that focuses on the support they give to the teachers and learners as a means of promoting teaching and learning. The theme was only elicited with data from segment 3, interviews with parents and segment 4, observation.

4.5.10.1 Data segment 3

Response from the parents from the interviews

The following data are responses from parents based on the question below to elicit strategies that can be used to improve the implementation of the language policy.

Q: How do you help your child with his/her homework (school work)?

P1: *Ewe, ndiyamncedisa owam umntwana namgona ndingaziqondi ezinye izinto kuba ngoku izinto zitshintshile isilabhasi ayisafani.*

[Yes, I do assist my child though I do not understand other things as the present syllabus is not the same.]

P2: *Ewe, kodwa ndifumana ubunzima ndingaqondi, ndicele abantwana basebumelwaneni abafunda esekondari.*

[Yes, but I experience difficulty in understanding, I perhaps ask my neighbouring children who are in high school for help].

One of the interviewees also indicated that she assists her child by making sure that the child understands the question and also refers to the textbook.

P1: *Ndiyamncedisa umntwana wam kuqala ngokuthi azi umbuzo. Okunye ndimjongise nakwincwadi yakhe*

[I assist my child first to understand the question. I also refer to the textbook]

P2: *Ndiyayifundisisa ihomework yakhe ndakugqiba ndimcacisele.*

[I re-read the homework and explain].

Based on the above responses, parents assist their children with their school work though it appears that they are not literate. They go further and ask their neighbours whom they think they are knowledgeable. The above responses show that the parents give support and participate in their children's school work to some extent. However, the parents do not support their children sometimes due to lack of competence in learner's school work and well as language barrier.

4.5.10.2 Data segment 4

Observation

During observation, the researcher noted that the learners did not finish their homework. Their reason for not completing the task was because they claimed to their educators that words were difficult and they could not receive any assistance from home. Others claimed that they were assigned to carry out other tasks at home which did not give the chance to finish their tasks.

Presentation above shows lack of parental support. There is no work collaboration between parents, teachers and the learners and parents seem to think that teaching and learning is the duty of the teacher. Learners come to school with either unfinished tasks or undone tasks to show no one is monitoring them at home.

4.5.11 LEARNERS' WRITTEN WORK IN ENGLISH

Participants were asked to comment on their learners' work written in English. Again, only the parents in data segment 3 and observation, data segment 4 elicited this theme as seen in the data below.

4.5.11.1: Data segment 3.

Response from the parents only based on the interviews from the question above. The following data is from the interview schedule with parents based on learner's written work

Q: What are your comments regarding the learners work written in English?

P1: *In the case of my child, I think his written work in English is average, sometimes he obtains 50% and 46% and never more than that. I think if the MOI would be isiXhosa he would excel, but now that English is MOI his performance is affected.*

P2: *I think the teachers are helping my child, he is slowly improving.*

One parent is of the opinion that if isiXhosa would be the MOI her child would excel, English as MOI is affecting her learners' performance. Also it came out that teachers are doing their best because the child is improving in the written work though it is done in English.

4.5.11.2: Data segment 3

Observation

During observation the researcher noted that the learners did not finish their homework. Their reasons for not completing the task were because (they claimed) the words used by the teachers were too difficult and nobody could help them at home. Others claimed that they had to carry out house chores which took most of their time and could not finish their tasks.

The presentation above shows lack of parental support. There is no work collaboration between parents, teachers and learners. Parents seem to think that teaching and learning is solely the duty of the teachers. Learners come to school with either in finished tasks or undone tasks, this shows that there is no one monitoring their work at home.

4.5.12 LEARNING THROUGH THE MEDIUM OF ENGLISH

Participants were asked how they felt about English as a medium of instruction in content subjects, and what problems do they encounter. The data that elicited this theme were from interviews with learners in segment2 and observation in segment 4.

4.5.12.1 Data segment 2

Response from the learners

Q: Do you encounter any problems learning in English? If yes what are the problems? How do you try to overcome them?

L2: *Yes I struggle to speak English and to interpreted sentences in English. I use dictionary and I also ask my teacher to simplify.*

L1: *Not really because our teachers translate the difficult words which make it easier to understand.*

One participant claimed that she could not understand well in English. She cited that English have difficult words that she could not understand. She further claimed that she was struggling to write in English. Some of the responses showed that the other learner was not suffering as the other one as she explained that the teacher explains difficult word.

4.5.12.2 Data segment 4

Observation

Observation from school A show that most learners were trying very hard to speak English fluently, as they indicated that they don't use the language at home. It was worse with school B because learners were shy to speak fearing to be laughed by others (peers). During discussions they were struggling to construct simple sentences.

In view of the data, learners needed to be able to show basic skills of the language, follow instructions and be able to interpret text and questions. Some learners seem to understand the language and could express themselves a little bit, but were challenged when they had to write their ideas and could not read the text.

4.5.13.1 CODE SWITCHING

Code switching could be the right device used to enable learners to use their main language for thinking, discussion and a resourceful teaching and learning. In both schools educators and learners were English First Additional language speakers, so they made use of the language they shared, and know for emphasis and clarity purposed.

During the observation the researcher noted that learners were not penalised for using isiXhosa when discussing or explaining to their peers in all subjects. In fact, during the lesson presentation some of the learners were discussing the meaning of the words in isiXhosa (Home Language) with their peers before responding to the educator. In school A sometimes, the educator presented lessons in isiXhosa and translate the same lesson in English. The presentation above show that learner's dependant on isiXhosa and no sufficient vocabulary of the language used as MOI hence they shifted to the isiXhosa language when they got stuck.

Participant revealed that they experience difficulties in learning through the medium of English. They also claimed that they struggle to write in English, hence their low level of competence. It appeared from their responses that to overcome these challenges their teachers code switch from English to isiXhosa during lesson presentation. These responses show that learners benefitted from the teachers code-switching and translations.

4.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the researcher did the presentation of the enormous data that was collected for the study. The data was coded under themes that were generated by the literature. The researcher in the analysis simply made commentaries before or after a segment or after every theme. The researcher through the use of thick description was able to signpost anything that took place in the chapter just as a pathfinder for the sympathetic reader. It is also important to note that all the participants were given an opportunity to make a recommendation which would be very useful when the researcher makes recommendations for the study.

Chapter 5

Discussion of the findings

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is an extension of the previous chapter and it continues with the narrative of the implementation of the language policy by teachers in the classroom. It is presumed as a construction of a story of their story where the researcher's narrative was seen as an interpretation of their interpretation. For the researcher to achieve this task, he/she reinforced his/her beliefs that underlies this study and interpreted the findings in terms of lived through experience. As a result of the literature review in chapter 2 and data analysis in chapter 4, the researcher focused on the role of their interpretation which signified a perspective of unrest and underlies her attempt to raise her thinking and practise through interpretation (Sivasubramaniam 2004). This chapter discusses the following issues to strengthen its research perspective; the problem of objectivity, rejection of objectivity, reinforcing constructivist research," retelling as a way of experiencing the experience (Sivasubramaniam 2004, p. 356), and a rationale for the discussion of the findings.

5.2 Subjectivity and objectivity

For the purpose of the study, the researcher found it imperative to look at objectivity and subjectivity though they are complexly connected. The researcher's analysis involves significance in data within the context of the research situation while the interpretation involves explaining this significance within a wider context by applying relevant theory. While analysis questions what the data 'says', interpretation on its part questions what it 'means'. Based on the above discussion, it is evident that the potential for objectivity depends on the subject-researcher interaction. Despite the fact that subjectivity and objectivity are involved at the two levels, the difference is critical. Based on this, Sivasubramaniam argues that the term 'objectivity', as it is understood, is a set of characteristics that represent experience or knowledge which is independent from any one individual. This independence is an outcome of stating a set of rules and the permissible operations that are needed to activate them. Knowledge that is derived as a result of such activation is not influenced by personal feelings or opinions, but only by facts. As this knowledge is seen to exist outside the

mind, many researchers tend to think that it is objective and it can therefore be proved (Sivasubramaniam 2004 p.356).

With regards to the literature review, this study showed how diverged the views of the participants are on implementing the language policy in their classrooms. In the previous chapter, the researcher presented the data as a narrative of an evolving design and understanding through which socially constructed realities, local generalizations, interpretive resources, knowledge inter-subjectivity and reasoning assumed substance and prominence (Denzin and Lincoln. 1998). In principle, this means that the researcher shared this experience and insights with the readers because this study is located within the context of human experience.

5.3 Narration as a way of experiencing their experiences

The entire study pointed to the direction that all knowledge is perspective. The constructive approach to learning seen in the literature review, data analysis and methodology is suggestive that this chapter should relive and retell the stories and experiences of the participants' notions as a way of experiencing their experience. In line with this, Denzin and Lincoln (1998 p.160) argue that in the construction of narratives of experience there is a reflexive relationship between living a life story, telling a life story, retelling a life story and reliving a life story. They further argue that as researchers, we are always engaged in living, telling, reliving and retelling our own stories. We live our stories in our experiences and tell stories of those experiences and modify them through retelling and reliving them. The research participants, with whom we engaged also live, tell, relive and retell their stories.

Based on the above discussion, the current chapter can be seen as retelling their stories where the researcher has attempted to describe, explain and theorize in an attempt to qualify this study as a creative act of enquiry. The researcher intends through retelling their stories to purpose meaning and knowledge through an interpretive explanation of what the teachers, parents and learners have said or done in the context under study. This is in line with Lehtovaara (2001, p.147) who argues that perspectives 'if they are truly human, unfold and take shape all the time as move along, there is no need to define and name them in advance and in exact terms'. It is in this sense that the researcher deems it necessary to explore, describe and

explain theoretical possibilities in this chapter that can relate to the knowledge of her experience.

5.4 Implementation of the language policy by teachers.

The reason for this investigation was to see the implementation of the language policy in the classroom by the teachers. Teachers seem to experience difficulties because the language of learning and teaching in these schools is English, yet all the learners are isiXhosa speaking learners. Teachers are relying heavily on code switching or code mixing when teaching. Some teachers justified their teaching practises concerning code mixing and as a result resorting to their own ways of teaching using English as LOLT. Thus this study investigates the implementation of the language policy by teachers. The findings of this study are discussed under the following subheadings as suggested in chapter 4 and chapter 5.

5.4.1 Preferred Language

Kern and Warschauer (2000) claim that socio-cultural contact is critical in language learning. Learning a language is not a process in which a learner can progress very far individually. That is to say that it is a process in which learners have to be involved through social engagement. The demand for English “has increased exponentially with economic globalisation Kern and Warschauer (2000, p.605). As Lambert (2001) argues, language education programs need to ensure cumulative language development and more evident capacity to rejuvenate and reinforce previous learning. The study solicited information on the views of the teachers, parents and learners on the implementation of language policy in the schools under study as language is a means of communication. In this context, English is the first additional language, the dominant language from an international perspective, occupying the first place (Webb & Kembo-sure, 2000, p.27) and is therefore the language of everyday use in public places.

In view of the above, many general education teachers who have not had specific training regarding English language learners have many questions such as how to teach the students in a language they are not fluent in and what they can do when the language is a barrier to the content (Lewis-Moreno, 2007). Echevarria *et al.* (2011) notes that this may be particularly difficult because academic English requires

the students to both learn English skills and to demonstrate an advanced knowledge of English at the same time. In the same light, Lewis-Moreno (2007) notes that it can be a struggle for general education teachers to have English language learners in their classrooms if they do not have the proper background knowledge and practice. However, it is useful to make it clear that there is an overlap between academic and social language, teachers should be able to draw on English language learners' life experiences and social knowledge to bring concepts and language from outside the school setting back into the academic realm (Coleman and Goldberg, 2010).

In response to the first and second interview questions, the study reveals that the language preferred by teachers is English. The findings of the study through interviews show that the language of learning and teaching (LOLT) is not used by the teachers most of the time, though they claimed to be comfortable with expressing themselves to the learners in English. IsiXhosa was used most of the time to clarify certain aspects so that learning is easier. According to Otaale (2005.p121), one of the prerequisites for successful teaching is good communication between the learners and the teacher. The language of learning must help the learner to understand what is taught. In this study both teachers appeared to prefer to express themselves in English because it is the LOLT of the school. In South Africa, English is seen as a ticket to good education and social advance (Abongdia, 2013).

Probyn (2001) investigated the perceptions and practices of teachers when using English as a LOLT in township schools in South Africa. Hence the above statement is not justifiable because Probyn (2001) reported that their learners experienced a lot of difficulties with English. Teachers were interviewed after the lessons, so as to do self- evaluation on their use of English during the presentation. Probyn's result indicate that teachers and learners teach and learn in a language (English) in which they are unable to communicate freely,(despite the Language policy of the school). This has negative consequences on the learners learning. Moreover the teachers in both schools demonstrated that they were able to articulate a wide range of teaching strategies to mediate learner's cognitive and emotional needs, a skilful use of English and isiXhosa code-switching, the latter being the mother tongue of both the teachers and the learners.

None of the schools had school Language Policies drawn up according to the Language in Education Policy, but in all of them the accepted LoLT was English in that it was the language of textbooks and testing. There were no explicit rules or guidelines regarding classroom language use, it was left to teachers to work things out for themselves, although it was understood that they should not “present a lesson in Xhosa from beginning to end”. All of the teachers said that they preferred English as the LoLT even Teacher 2 who used isiXhosa 85% of the lesson. The reasons they gave were that English was an international language, the language used for tertiary education and it provides access to employment. .

5.4.2 Awareness of Language in Education Policy

In order to understand the use of English and isiXhosa as languages of instruction in this study, data on language policy issues focuses on awareness and implementation of language related activities at schools. The researcher’s analysis in this section touches on teachers’ and parents’ awareness and views on language policy issues.

Shohamy (2006 p.40) defines language education policy as a “mechanism used to create de fact language practices in educational institutes, especially in centralized educational system”. Shohamy (2006) also emphasizes that in most cases, educational staff of a given institution work according to, and as agents of implementing these policies without questioning its quality, appropriateness and relevance to the successful learning for learners. South Africa is a multilingual and multicultural country with an extraordinary diversity of races, groupings, languages and landscapes that characterize the country. Despite the eleven official languages in SA, English still remains the dominant language (Balan, 2012) and many parents do their best to ensure that their children are educated in English since it has an influenced on social class, level of education, career and region. In the South African language policy, the Department of Education (DoE, 2007) stipulated that learners should be taught in mother tongue (MT) in the foundation phase (grade 1-3) and one official language can be done as subject to promote additive approach. In the intermediate or senior phases the medium of instruction (MOI) provided by a school depends on the choices made by school governing body (SGB) and learners in selecting their language of learning and teaching (LOLT). The language in education policy (LieP, 1997) together with SASA (84 of 1996) conferred certain rights on

SGBs in determining the language policy of a school and the right to choose their LOLT. Hence many schools in SA opted for English as medium of instruction even in EFAL schools since it is a lingua franca and a choice made by SGBs of schools.

It responds to the second & third interviews guide questions which read as follows: To what extent are teachers and parents aware of the Language-in-Education Policy that guides teaching and learning?

Regarding the teachers' awareness of the South African Language-in-Education Policy, it seemed that none of the two teachers had an in-depth knowledge of the policy which guides teaching and learning in schools. The teachers' responses revealed that all the teachers had heard about the policy, but had never seen the document nor did they have details and knowledge about how the policy works.

Nomlomo (2007.p.284) argues that the South African National Government or the National Department of Education issues policies that guide teaching and learning, some of the policies are not implemented at schools. For instance, the fact that some schools are operating without language policies defeats the purpose of redressing inequalities of the previous education system. This could be an indication that such schools do not recognize the parents' and learners' language rights in education.

Despite the good intentions that the language policy has, the findings gave the researcher the impression that the main problem facing the national language policy and its implementation plan was the lack of a political interest and effort, as well as inadequate resources being made available for effective implementation of the policy as supported by Abongdia (2013). Hence, the researcher feels strongly that the language policy cannot be implemented appropriately in these schools because the EFAL learners are taught by EFAL educators who have inadequate command of the language of instruction. This issue can create problems in teaching and learning; hence De Kadt (2005) and Abongdia (2013) remind us that language does not only affect learning but also hinders communication between the state and its people leading to poor participation.

The data from interview question 3 revealed that the learners faced different challenges and difficulties in the use of a newly adopted language of learning and teaching in their everyday school activities. The main problems related to

understanding lessons, notes taking, participation in classroom discussions and accessing information from books. Many learners highlighted that they had problems in understanding learning in English mainly. When it comes to taking own notes or discussion from the educators' explanation, some learners mention that they get lost and preferred to wait until educators write something on the board for them to copy.

The above argument presupposes that learning in English first additional language affects learner's participation in classroom discussion. Hence the researcher feels that being taught in the language that the learner master is a privilege on its own as it can enhance the level of academic performance and content knowledge of the learners. It is on these grounds that study argues that in the absence of MT as MOI, there should be a provision for learner's home language translation of questions as well as the texts. This suggestion is based on the idea that their underperformance could be as a result of the lack of and an understanding of the MOI not the content knowledge. Mchazime (2001) proposes that learners should experience a chosen language by hearing the language or observing it being used in their everyday life. In this regard, it should be teachable, and should enable learners' reactions towards their learning experiences covertly or overtly. He emphasizes that learners should use such language to think logically, to conceptualize since such a language can afford them the opportunity to examine critically what others say as well as enable them to express and elaborate their point of view (Mchazime, 2001). This suggests that foreign languages have no relation to the learners' everyday experiences and it increases the difficulty of constructing the meaning of concepts, thus contributing to underperformance (Wildsmith-Cromarty & Gordan, 2009).

Failure to cater for the above issues can amount to instructions being given in a language that is not normally used in the learner's immediate environment; a language which neither the learner nor the teacher understands and uses well enough (Brock-Utne, 2005). The Department of Education has stipulated its own expectations of a South African educator. In its stipulation, it envisages educators who are "qualified, competent, dedicated and caring (Department of Education, 2002). Secondly, the Department has introduced seven roles of educators in the Norms and Standards for Educators. Educators are expected to be mediators of learning, interpreters and designers of learning programs, researchers and lifelong

learners, assessors and Learning Area specialists (Department of Education, 2002). Indeed the role of the educators as an agent of change is difficult if they cannot efficiently deliver to enhance on the lives of learners in order to bring change through education.

5.4.3 Implementation of Language Policy in class

The South African government has not yet provided the human resources and physical resources needed to promote multilingualism. Practically speaking, English and Afrikaans still have a higher status than other languages. The value attached to these languages even by blacks themselves, undermines the survival of African languages (Tshotsho 2013p.2). The teacher's responses confirmed that teachers used more of isiXhosa than English in their lessons to facilitate learning. Code switching is a necessary practice in the classroom to foster learning. Teachers had to switch from English to isiXhosa to accommodate the majority of learners in their lessons.

Abongdia and Mpiti (2014) concur with previous researchers who argue that language policy promotes the use of African languages alongside English, while encouraging schools to maintain the learners' home languages at the same time as they learn an additional language (Probyn *et al.*, 2002; Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir, 2004). With this transition, the government also adopted a very progressive Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP, 1997), which devolves the decision on the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) to the individual schools (through the School Governing Bodies) (Probyn *et al.*, 2002; Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir, 2004). Most schools, however, have not conformed to the proposals of LiEP, and have maintained the use of English as the LoLT from at least Grade 4 (Casale and Posel, 2011). The South African National Curriculum Statement (CAPS) (DoE, 2002) indicated that one should attain proficiency in the selected LoLT at a level fundamental for successful learning of the curriculum. Moreover, the CAPS document also prescribed that the teaching of English as a subject should be introduced from Grade 1 in all schools (Department of Basic Education, 2011). Consequently, all schools should have some English being taught from the first grade, but for some schools English is also the language of instruction from Grade 1. Proponents of Mother Tongue (MT) education argue that a later transition to English

is necessary given that children cannot understand the language of instruction (Brock-Utne, 2007; Banda 2000, 2009). Mallozzi and Malloy (2007) stress the importance of learning English as a second language for those South Africans who speak an African home language, as the English language dominates the workforce as well as school instruction. For these reasons, proponents of bilingual transitional models predict that not only will a later transition to English benefit a child's First Language proficiency, but it will also lead to better proficiency in English in the long run (Van Weijen *et al.*, 2009).

5.4.4 The role the Language Policy in learner's success or failure

Abongdia and Mpiti (2014) posited that English is not used and learners have no exposure to print media and technology and most of the learners have never been to the libraries. They have very few or no books and magazines within their homes. As a result, some of these learners enter schools having little or no previous knowledge of English because they live with illiterate grandparents who have never attended school before. Due to insufficient exposure to English and support from home, these learners they further observed that struggle to grasp the content of subjects taught through the English medium, and this adversely affects their academic performance (McKay and Chick, 2001; Heugh, 2003, Mpiti, 2016).

As mentioned in Chapter 2 that democracy in South Africa in 1994 meant that many changes had to be implemented in order to redress the imbalances of the past, education was no exception. With this transition, the government also adopted a very progressive Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP, 1997), which devolves the decision on the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) to the individual schools (through the School Governing Bodies) (Probyn *et al.*, 2002; Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir, 2004). Most schools, however, have not conformed to the proposals of LiEP, and have maintained the use of English as the LoLT from at least Grade 4 (Casale and Posel, 2011). The South African National Curriculum Statement (CAPS) (DoE, 2002) indicated that one should attain proficiency in the selected LoLT at a level fundamental for successful learning of the curriculum.

5.4. 5 English as an International Language

It goes without saying that English language is of prime importance and being able to communicate in this language is one of the keys for success in any field. It is the most widely spoken language in the world and so many people need to communicate in it. English language is around us, “displayed on shop windows, commercial signs, posters, official notices, traffic signs etc.” (Gorter and Cenoz, 2008, p.1). Based on the foregoing debate, teaching and learning in English as the international language is essential in any society. An increasing need to teach and learn English as a foreign language has been observed in many countries in recent years.

In response to question 4 of the interview, the study indicates that English as MOI is necessary for the learners, and that they may be able to compete with other races as South Africa is a rainbow nation. Moreover it appears that English language may also prepare the learners for debates with societies abroad. In line with Sivasubramaniam (2011), English should be seen as a language that can unify the diverse classrooms in their daily social practices. However, Penycook (2010, p.78) argues that language as a local practice looks at language locally and globally not only focusing on time and space. He observes that English as an international language lacks some understanding of local, social, historical, cultural relationships which he refers to as the “worldiness of English”. In a study conducted in South Africa by De Wet (2002), 72% of the participants either strongly agreed or agreed that home language education would enhance learning and teaching. However findings from the current study indicate that teachers, parents and learners feel that it is not necessary for the learners to be taught in their mother tongue. They use studying abroad and communicating with people from different nations as their main reason for supporting English as MOI.

It seems that teachers, parents and learners which were interviewed in the current study did not really consider the effect of English as MOI on the academic performance of learners, whereas the participants in the two above mentioned studies did take it into account. These findings then support Harris’ (2011,p.7) view that parents, teachers and educationalists do not fully understand the problems learners face with language and often attribute poor learners’ performance lack of

interest and commitment. Teachers who took part in this study did not consider the fact that the learners actually have very slim chances of studying due to lack of finances and strict admission requirements. Moreover, it is interesting to note that the few participants in this study who called for the use of isiXhosa as MOI do so in order to enhance academic performance. These participants understand that learners do not fail because they do not understand the content, but because they do not understand the language in which the content is taught. Thus, this finding is in line with Harris (2011) who posits that we have to solve the language problem before we start with the learning problem as every problem we experience is caused by language.

5.4.6 Benefits of English as LOLT

Learning through English opens doors to wider knowledge acquisition (Moyo, 2001 p. 104). In response to question 4 of the interview the study reveals that English is used globally. It gives learners opportunities to qualify for sponsors and learnership abroad. The study also notes that English is a unifying language as learners may be able to communicate with other nations. The findings of the study show that the main advantage of using English as MOI is that the learners are to travel abroad, especially for works and studies, they would be able to communicate with people from different countries. This finding is supported by Benjamin (2004) who thinks that those learners are satisfied with English MOI among other reasons, because English is an international language and that it helps them to communicate with people from different backgrounds.

In line with this finding, Moyo (2001, p. 104) argues that South Africa needs English in order to be able to communicate with the rest of Africa and the world. The present study concurs with research conducted by Abongdia (2013, p. 50) which reveals that English is the language or lingua franca in the global village for jobs, education, business and even politics. Hence, she holds that there is a huge demand for the study of English in most countries with an ideological viewpoint held by many as a strong motivation for learning English, the language of globalization. This because globalization has an effect on national languages as it promotes “the increasing power of various languages that are already established as the languages of wider communication”.

5.4.7 Challenges when implementing the Language Policy

As a point of departure the researcher will highlight some findings relating to the actual teaching practices that were employed by the teachers in the classrooms. This will be followed by a summary of findings in the teaching and learning from teachers and findings relating to Language in Education Policy. It appeared that teachers never received training or guidance on how to employ language policy but were just complying with the requirements of the policy. Despite many workshops conducted by the Department of Education, the above seemed to have been missed out as a result a lot of mother-tongue is used when teaching a content subject, which according to the schools policies is supposed to be taught in English. In the researcher's observation the teacher was more comfortable in using isiXhosa as he is teaching learners who are also isiXhosa speakers. Most of the lessons were characterized by teacher-talk and there were very few cases where the learners were required to observe, predict or analyse any data.

The analysed data in question 4.5.7 show that the major challenge in implementing the language policy is the teacher who uses isiXhosa instead of English when teaching the learners. They also indicated that the teachers are mixing English with isiXhosa. One teacher also suggested in-service programmes or training to enhance the implementation of language policy by all the stakeholders. As outlined by Language Policy it seeks to promote multi-lingualism, however Kashula (2004p.11) argue that how can you guarantee democracy where the law of the country is understood in the language of people? How do you abide by what you do not know? How can you fully participate in anything or compete, or learn effectively or be creative in a language you are not fully proficient or literate? Above all, how can a country develop its human resource base to full potential without the language of the people? Tshotsho (2013, p.41) further argues that Multilingualism is seen as challenging English as the language of power (ANC, 1992). The policy of promoting all 11 languages implies that English should no longer enjoy any special privileges (Botha, 1994). There is little doubt that using English as a language of learning often denies access to better education for black rural students while at the same time maintaining the privileged status. It is for this reason that the South African

Language Policy addresses the issues of status, access, equity and empowerment, based on the following principles.

- i) The right for the individual to choose which language or languages to study and to use as a language of learning (medium of instruction).
- ii) The right of the individual to develop linguistic skills, in the language or languages of his/her choice, which are necessary for full participation in national, provincial and local life.
- iii) The necessity to promote and develop South African languages that were previously disadvantaged and neglected (ANC, 1994: 124-134).

In view of the above it is evident that teachers will face challenges in implementing language policy in class. Research study reveals that implementing language policy is a problem, hence the study will outline the following:

- Mechanisms of language policy implementation
- Financial implications.

5.4.8 Mechanisms of Language policy implementation

In order for the Language Policy implementation to be successful, the collaboration of Language structures is necessary (Kashula 2004). In the South African context the infrastructure surrounding interpreting, translation and editing skills will be developed in collaboration with language units. Resources will need to be made available e.g. simultaneous translation services as well as training courses for translators, and translations and editing policies will need to be put on place.

Training programs need to be developed for teachers by PANSALB, in conjunction with accredited providers. Training programs need to include short courses, in-service trainings and full-time training programs. If the above can be applied (Kashula 2004) noted that public servants will also be required to develop proficiency in language other than their mother-tongue. Further more incentives will be developed in cooperation with PANSALB, Department of Education and the Department of Public Services and Administrators to encourage public servants to become multilingual by learning and maintaining additional languages. Accurate information must be provided to customers in the language they understand best and the customer should at no point be marginalised or disadvantaged through the use of languages. Kashula (2014 p.19) further recommends that research and development

institutions make informed decisions on Language Policy implementation. PANSALB and the Department of Education will also run on-going language awareness campaigns to arouse public interest in language matters.

5.4.9 Influence of English as LOLT on learner's academic performance

In South Africa, majority of non-English mother-tongue learners, even after 10 to 12 years of schooling where English is the MOI, may display an inability to read or to comprehend texts and questions in English examinations (Mayo, 2009p.101). In South Africa, poor English proficiency almost always leads to poor school performance (De Wet, 2002p.119).

The present study reveals through the responses to interview question 5 that the school and the community are both homogenous as it is an isiXhosa only environment. It was thus necessary to find out whether English as MOI had a negative impact on the learners. According to the participants, learners do not fail because they do not know the content, but they fail because they struggle with the language (English as MOI). However it was observed that lack of understanding which resulted from the use of English as MOI encouraged rote learning which makes it difficult for a teacher to measure the learner's understanding of the lesson and content knowledge

5.4.10 Suggestions and improvements towards Language Policy

In response to interview question 12 the study came out with possible suggestions to improve the current state of teaching and learning with regards to implementation of Language in Education Policy. The participants in this study seem to recommend that English as a MOI be taught reading and writing in the early stages of schooling. As mentioned above that learners struggle with English especially in explanatory questions, the following suggestions with regards to reading and writing were recommended. It is advisable that teachers should attend some training sessions in order to be aware of the latest development in the field. Taking in to consideration the educational and cultural backgrounds of the learners, teachers may devise more ways to tackle the identified problems in the best possible manner. There was

evidence that learners should master the language at an early stage so that when they start content subjects from senior grades, they can master the subjects as well.

However, some participants suggested that the policy makers must simplify the language for the learners. Otaala (2005, p.127) advocates that if pupils are exposed to a foreign language as the MOI from the time they start school, they are not exposed to the psychological shock of a change of MOI at a later stage. Finally, policy makers should consider the origin of the background of learners especially those coming from rural areas.

The participants also suggested that question papers be set in both mother-tongue (isiXhosa) and English.

5.4.11 Parental support

In this section data analysis is based on responses from teachers, learners and parents collected by means of interviews. The discussion reflects the kind of relationship which exists between parents and teachers, as well as the role played by parents in their children's education.

5.4.11.1 Inadequate parental support

According to Driessen et al. (2002), children of highly educated parents benefit more from education as their parents are able to assist more in their learning. Such children can make more progress than those who are not fully supported by their parents due to their poor educational backgrounds. Parental involvement entails their assistance on high scholastic achievements, offering academic guidance and provision of resources on school related tasks and managing and emphasizing educational activities of their children rather than pleasurable things like TV programmes, choice of books and magazines (Mahlobo, 2003). Parental support entails assistance to scholastic achievements, offering academic guidance and provision of resources on school related tasks with managing and encouraging the educational activities of their children (Leithwood, 2010). This means that the expression of affection and interest in the learner's academic and personal growth, parental beliefs and attitudes toward education can contribute to learner's motivation and positive self-concept.

Although all the parents claimed to be supportive of their children, their responses revealed that the largest number of parents were not directly or actively involved in the work of their children. In their responses some of the parents indicated that they helped the children with homework, but when asked how they helped, they could not elaborate. Which sections of the learners' work they found interesting, they could not explain. Instead the parents at both schools mentioned other people who were helping the children with their work e.g. older siblings, parents' relatives and neighbours. This practise could be interpreted in terms of mediation and scaffolding where adults use their experience and expertise to educate children. So the kind of cooperation that existed between parents and other groups of people (e.g. neighbours) somehow reflects the spirit of togetherness and shared responsibility which is not as common among black middleclass.

Driessen et al. (2002) asserts that learners of highly educated parents benefit more from education as their parents are able to assist more in their learning. Such learners can make more progress than those who are not fully supported by their parents due to poor educational backgrounds. Therefore most learners were underperforming due to the fact that they did not receive assistance, monitoring or encouragement from home in doing school work.

5.4.11.2 Parents limited knowledge of English

In relation to parents' low education profile, parents lacked confidence to assist with schoolwork. Parents could not relate and respond to school events that had to do with teaching and learning because they felt they lacked certain skills. They probably suffered from an inferiority complex. They trusted the teachers (with high qualifications) were doing their best, without themselves being involved. Hence they showed interest in knowing whether their children had passed or failed, despite the fact that they had never checked their progress during the course of the year.

In response to interview question 5 the participants revealed that parents are not able to assist learners since they are illiterate. Also data reveal that parents have limited knowledge as shown in their profile. English is not used and learners have no exposure to print media and technology and most of the learners have never been to the libraries. They have very few or no books and magazines within their homes. As a result, some of these learners enter schools having little or no previous

knowledge of English because they live with illiterate grandparents who have never attended school before. Due to insufficient exposure to English and support from home, these learners struggle to grasp the content of subjects taught through the English medium, and this adversely affects their academic performance (McKay and Chick, 2001; Heugh, 2003).

Moreover, parents cannot check their children's exercise books, or help them with their homework because they are illiterate. Some who have older siblings with illiterate parents are assisted by them. When they start schooling, it takes a longer time for some to adapt to this learning environment and some of these learners start school older. They do not have sufficient time in the classroom, to acquire a threshold level of English language proficiency which allows them to engage effectively with learning in English. In the light of the above brief background, the aim of this study is to compare the perspective of teachers' and learners' experiences of Grade 6 learners' writing in English First Additional Language (FAL) by isiXhosa and Afrikaans first language speakers to see if common problems arise and how they could be managed.

5.4.12 Learner's written work in English

Writing is complex and tends to be difficult to teach. Based on this, it requires mastery not only of grammatical and rhetorical devices but also of conceptual and judgmental elements (Salem, 2013). These conventions have variously been analysed and categorized under such rubrics as 'writing components' (Msanjila, 2005), 'writing criteria' (Salem, 2013) and 'writing skills' (Myles, 2002). Some eminent second language acquisition researchers (Pearson and Burns, 2008; Ellis, 2003) believe that language learning strategies are key factors in the acquisition of English as a second or foreign language. Thus, understanding them could help language teachers in providing their students with the best possible instruction. Learning a language is a complex process within which the development of grammar is only one part (Clark, 2003). In line with this, Fillmore and Snow (2000) summarize that the more aware a teacher is of language and how it works, the better students can learn. While this focus on knowledge about language may seem counterintuitive to communicative language teaching approaches that reduce the role of deliberate

grammar teaching, Andrews (2007) argues that knowledge about language is necessary to effectively implement communicative methods.

The findings in 4.5.1 in response to interview question 5 of the semi-structured interviews revealed that writing in ESL is seen as an issue of primary importance in language teaching, and at the same time it is an issue that seems to pose problems to learners. The major problems highlighted by the teachers were that learners have a tendency of translating their home language when they are writing in ESL. As a result they struggle to construct full sentences that are grammatically correct and to write a paragraph in essay type activities. Teachers also mentioned that learners even write something that does not make sense because they struggle to express themselves in English based on the structure of their first language. According to Dreher and Gray (2010), if English Language Learners (ELL) are not familiar with the sentence structures within a compare and contrast text, this might hinder their comprehension of the information or content in the text and hence hamper their construction of meaning. Moreover, if the learner cannot explain a concept clearly in writing, it is likely that the learner does not clearly understand that particular concept (Freire, 2002, p.100).

Furthermore, the findings in 4.5.1.2 gave the researcher an impression that English is a difficult language just by virtue of its pronunciation and accents. The researcher came to understand that there was some form of congruence that pointed towards limited proficiency in English as the learners acknowledged and admitted that they are encountering a challenge to express themselves through the use of English, the language of instruction. They also mentioned that they become confused when learning English and this often result to their work to be unfinished within the time frame. Honig *et al.* (2008) assert that learners may not comprehend or make meaning of what is said by the teacher if the teacher uses unfamiliar word or words with specialist meanings. In line with this, August *et al.* (2005) claim that teachers should take advantage of students' first language in teaching high- or low-frequency English words in content instruction because ELLs might greatly benefit from the knowledge of similarities and differences between their native language and English. The authors recommended the transfer of cognate knowledge as an instructional strategy to develop ELLs' vocabulary in English. In favour of this, they suggested

that teachers should reinforce all newly acquired vocabulary through oral language activities, read-aloud, and systematic repetitions.

Furthermore, Herrera *et al.* (2010) posit that teachers can help ELLs identify the cognates that have common origins between the two languages by having the students refer to the context in which the words appear. Once ELLs can identify cognates between their native language and English, they have the opportunity either to acquire in English the label or word for the concept that they know in their native language or to reinforce their knowledge of the word in their native language with its English counterpart (Freeman and Freeman, 2004; Freeman and Freeman, 2009). Similarly, August *et al.* (2005) state that the teachers should draw ELLs' attention to false cognates like rope / ropa; embarrassed / embarazada and provide accurate translations of false cognates (p. 55).

Some learners in their interviews mentioned that they become bored because they don't understand what the teachers are explaining. Therefore it is equally important for teachers to help English language learners (ELLs) to understand how a variety of sentence structures are used to convey meaning in different types of texts like compare–contrast, persuasive, or argumentative texts (Sarfraz, 2011). Dreher and Gray (2010) point out that familiarizing ELLs with text structures like 'compare-contrast' can help the teachers to expand and enrich ELLs' academic vocabulary knowledge and most especially of terms such as unlike, similar to, compared to, and resembles. While it is important to develop ELLs' academic vocabulary, teachers should not sacrifice the development of ELLs' reading comprehension through a too-narrow focus on academic vocabulary instruction.

One method that has been used frequently and successfully to develop vocabulary in learners is shared book reading in which adults read aloud to children, periodically stopping to highlight individual words as well as other aspects of what they are reading (Roberts, 2008), discussing English is not used and learners have no exposure to print media and technology and most of the learners have never been to the libraries. They have very few or no books and magazines within their homes. As a result, some of these learners enter schools having little or no previous knowledge of English because they live with illiterate grandparents who have never attended school before. Due to insufficient exposure to English and support from home, these

learners struggle to grasp the content of subjects taught through the English medium, and this adversely affects their academic performance (McKay and Chick, 2001; Heugh, 2003).

In view of the above, it is worth looking at the findings of 2011, 2012 and 2013 Annual National Assessment (ANA) results of English FAL paper written by Grade 6 learners. The national average performance in English FAL by Grade 6 learners was 36% and in 2013 it was 46%. Looking back to 2011, results were dismal; Grade 6 learners' national average performance was 28% and 30% of learners achieved above 35% in English FAL. In terms of CAPS, at least a 50% mark is required for adequate and higher achievement in English. These findings revealed that South African school children in grade 4 - 6 and 9 do not understand simple English and are significantly inadequate in writing meaningful, correctly punctuated sentences.

Mpiti and Abongdia (2014.p.469) argue that the world is making progress in literacy but the challenges remain huge. There is a growing awareness of the need for people in education to constantly be developing and reviewing curricula in accordance with changing circumstances (Richmond *et al.*, 2008). The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has established the Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE) framework which accelerates progress in making action on literacy more effective and taking it to scale to reach the large illiterate population (De Klerk, 2002). In spite of these efforts, the problem still exists. A study conducted by Moja (2000) revealed a decline in the quality of the education system in Nigeria, resulting in a negative effect on literacy development in primary school learners. The findings also revealed that low morale of teachers, the poor quality of teachers, and lack of adequate professional support for teachers in the system has a negative impact on literacy development. Hence, Olusoji (2012) stated that the common problem in learning English in Nigeria is that majority of the teachers who teach the language, are incompetent and apart from this, the teachers themselves are victims of incompetent teaching.

5.4.13 learning through the medium of English

In response to the interview question 8 the study further reveals that English as LOLT is the reason why there is such a high failure rate. According to the teachers, learners think and say English is difficult. It also appears that learners do not use

English at their homes and are not free to speak it even when given a chance to do so in class. However, some teachers believe that learners can cope with English as LOLT. They feel that learners understand what the teacher is saying but have difficulty in expressing themselves well. This study shows that the learners are trying but they need to be assisted by using both isiXhosa and English as shown in chapter 4, teachers could switch or use both isiXhosa and English during teaching and learning so that learners can understand the content. Learners kept quiet when they were asked to explanatory questions in English, meaning that learners struggle to learn through English. English is very important because it enhances both teaching and learning. Teaching with a combination of two languages has also been reported in South African classrooms (Probyn 2001, p.15). Probyn explains that in South Africa, the language of the classroom is very often not English but a mixture of English and the mother-tongue.

Moreover, the study indicates that learners are finding it very difficult to learn through English only as LOLT and Harris (2011) supports that higher proportions of learners in Namibia are confused by the second language in which they are taught. Harris(2011, p.7) further argues that learners want to succeed at school in general and in English particular but do not understand the subject well enough because of problems of language. Furthermore, the findings of the study also show that if learners are to cope with English as a LOLT, English should be used very often and teachers should ensure that they adjust their English use to match that of their learners. These findings are also supported by Nel (2005, p.151) that many learners in South Africa (especially in rural areas) are hardly exposed to English outside the classroom.

5.4.13.1 Code switching

Findings in question 11 revealed that in both schools, code- switching was used by both educators and when there was a lack of vocabulary in English, a need to voice out views and for clarify purposes. Myers-Scotton's (2006) generally defines code switching as the use of two languages or varieties in the same conversation. He further explains it as the practice of moving back and forth between two languages or between two dialects or registers of the same language. Question 8 have evidenced that code-switching might be the right strategy as learners are able to participate in

group discussions when their main language (MT) is used and most educators used code switching as a resource for teaching and learning since they are able to see and know that the learners understand the lesson. Having textbooks that are in neither learner's nor educator's mother tongue can result to unclear teaching and learning processes. In view of this, most of the participants are of the opinion that they have an important task to fulfil which is delivering the lesson but since the textbooks are in the first additional language of learners, they have to explain the text in their mother tongue first and then revert to English (code switching) for further explanation.

Furthermore, the findings showed that this appeared to be the case in both schools where learners and educators share the same language. Code-switching is commonly used because educators admitted that sometimes they felt like they had no choice but to code-switch given that the learners do not understand, instead they would just sit and stir the educators with confusion during lessons since the text books and text used were English. Greggio (2007) argues that code switching can be a useful tool in assisting English language teaching and learning processes as they see it as an opportunity for language development since it allows the effective transfer of information from the senders to the receivers. Although the development might be minimal or slow, it is still a positive indication of a learning progress as learners are actively involved in the lesson and have the opportunity for an input (Tang, 2002). Tien and Liu (2006) state that low proficiency students consider code-switching in their EFAL classes as helpful towards gaining better comprehension especially when providing equivalent comprehension as well as giving classroom procedures.

Mattioli (2004) suggests that exposure to code-switching at the early stages of learning allows learners to gain a head start towards effective and successful learning. Secondly it helps make these learners to gradually become users of the target language. Based on this, the researcher suggests that although code switching seems to improve learner participation and provide clarity to unclear issues, using it in senior grades might hinder learner's progress in acquiring English basic skills or gaining proficiency in the language of instruction. It should be used on rare occasions, not frequently as it can delay the purpose of learning a first additional

language against some learning areas policies. In view of this, educators should be obliged to stick to the learning outcomes and terminology of their learning areas.

The systematic use of code-switching to serve certain functions can ensure learning success. It is not an allowance for educators to use it excessively whenever they want to, but should be considered as a strategy and not taken as a teaching method (Burden, 2001). This is also supported by Palmer (2009) in the Dual Language Program which believes that learners learn language more fluently if they “stay” in the desired language. The more they are “forced” to use the target language, the better they learn it (Palmer, 2009). Therefore the researcher does not believe code switching falls into the theory of “staying” within the target language as it encourages the learner to rely too much on the home language. This is meant to say that these learners cannot fully develop their first additional language. Hence the use of code switching in a well implemented dual language classroom should be discouraged in the senior phase.

In conclusion the researcher would like to highlight in respect of the above discussion. Based on the findings under study there is evidence that implementation of language policy (on paper) aims at promoting multi-lingualism. However, the policy often lacks a plan of implementing and monitoring, as well as directive of who should lead or drive its implementation. The essence of argument is that the policy could be sufficient but lacks strategies and other means to monitor compliance.

To conclude one of the major constraints on the implementation of the Language Policy is the unavailability of resources including human resources, funding, facilities, materials and books. Although the Minister of Education, in her 2005 budget speech (Pandor, 2005), tried to promote indigenous languages, ostensibly by making English a non-compulsory subject, this will not have the desired effect. The Minister of Education admitted this by saying that there were no chances of English being replaced as the main medium of instruction in schools in the near future. Also, there are no books written for content subjects in these indigenous languages and, moreover, it will not be easy to convince parents to change their mind-set as the medium of instruction at university is still English. To try to implement what the Minister suggested, academics should start writing books in these indigenous languages. To address these problems a well-formulated plan of action should be

designed (Barkhuizen and Gough, 1996). To address the issue of promoting indigenous languages all the government departments must have a language unit where interpreters and translators can be trained in order to provide service to those who do not understand English. All government documents must be translated to the indigenous languages and that would also enhance service delivery. Also there must be awareness campaigns to educate people on the importance of knowing ones language in order to preserve the culture of black people to in South Africa. The Minister of Higher Education has provided certain universities in South Africa with funds to promote and develop indigenous Languages. To address the issue the University of Fort Hare is offering conversational IsiXhosa to all the lecturers who are not able to speak it. Furthermore, all the tutors that are employed at UFH must be able to speak isiXhosa so that they can be able to explain concepts in the first language of the student. There is also a lexicography unit that is responsible for developing new terminology in isiXhosa. But, there is still a lot that needs to be done in order to develop the indigenous languages for them to be used as medium of instruction.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is a summary of the study on the implementation of the language policy in schools, with a specific focus on isiXhosa learners. This summary is based on the actual practices used by teachers in implementing language policy during teaching and learning, challenges faced by both teachers and learners in implementing language policy and the benefits of using English as the medium of instruction. It also addresses the influence of the language of learning and teaching on the academic performance of learners. It provides a conclusion and proposes recommendations from the findings. The conclusion and recommendation are organised in a way that it attempts to answer the research question of the study.

To begin with, this study revealed that Language in Education policy come a long way, and needs to be taken seriously in its implementation in class. The implementation of Language in Education Policy is a debate since it was endorsed on paper. Its actual practice is not as stipulated that it should promote multi-lingualism, and the home language be maintained. This discussion here is meant to suggest that although there is a need for more research including large-scale studies, substantial evidence documents, etc. the benefits of using English as MOI on implementing LIEP as the study suggests cannot be overemphasised. Some key determinants on strategies that can be used in implementing LIEP so that learning and teaching is enhanced. Learners can engage in learning and expressing themselves in English. Given that language is fundamental to the learning process, this study posed various questions about learners' parents, learners and teachers' views on the effect of the MOI on learners' academic performance, thus necessitating an inquiry into the learners' world.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This chapter summarizes the study presented in the previous five chapters and proposes recommendations on the teacher experiences on implementation of Language in Education Policy to non - English speaking speakers. It focused on isiXhosa speaking learners and educators of the grade 6 class of two Primary

Schools in the rural areas of Lady Frere. This study has explored different views concerning language of instruction such as the language policy in South African Education, acquisition and proficiency of the language of instruction, language choices; interactions in classroom, school and community environment, lack of parental involvement and the issue of teaching resources. It sought to illuminate how the quality of the education offered at these two primary schools seem to be affected by the language of instruction.

The study was conducted using a qualitative case study approach. The researcher used different techniques to collect and analyse the data such as interviews (semi-structured) and observations. Field notes were also used to collect data and the data was analysed through critical discourse analysis that led to common emerging themes.

6.3 RELATING THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

It is a fact that most South African learners use English as a language of learning (Brock-Utne, 2000) as guided by National Education Policy (Act A, 27 of 1996) and the South African School's Act (84 of 1996) . This indicates that it is not easy to run away from English as it is not just a language used for communication purposes but also being used as a MOI in most if not all schools in South Africa in general and Eastern Cape in particular. It is important to note that a MOI might not necessarily be the same as the language used to interact with one another. This means that EFAL learners have to learn to manipulate formal and informal language in order to satisfy the requirements of different school activities. The question that arises is: Are the EFAL learners well equipped to identify, deal and conquer these challenges while at the same time mastering the language?

In view of the above, the study explored educator's experiences on implementing Language Policy as designed by the government on English First Additional language speakers, whereby English is used as medium of instruction in two primary schools in the Lady Frere district. The findings revealed that, educators and learners are faced with many challenges that can affect their use of EFAL as a medium of instruction. Among the issues that came up were schools environment and location, lack of parental support, the culture of teaching and learning (code switching) and

availability of the resources. Despite the challenges mentioned above, for learners, educators and parents, English is still a preferred language for learning and teaching or a medium of instruction.

Based on the findings derived from the research questions and analysed data, the researcher came up with some recommendations for a possible strategic plan for the implementation of Language in Education Policy (for the purpose of the study referring to English as the LOLT) on EFAL learners and educators that may suit the two primary schools in particular and other South African schools in general in the effective teaching and learning process.

6.3.1 RESEARCH QUESTION 1: What provisions have been made to develop teachers to teach additional languages?

In Tanzania, some similar challenges were drawn from the shortage of teaching and learning materials and poor performance standards in government secondary schools (Lindberg & N rman, 2005). There is evidence from the participants which showed that a lack of resources negatively affects learner's progress and learning as seen in their lack of the vocabulary or terminology in the language of instruction. This might have been the case because they could not integrate the content knowledge to their everyday lives since it was mostly done in theory. The findings further suggested that a lack of resources like libraries and reading books can affect learners' acquisition and understanding of the MOI as it appears to limit their abilities to use it in different situations. They misunderstood or misinterpreted instructions which led to poor performance in their school work and could also not respond to open-ended questions. This might have been caused by a lack of resources as they theorized even lessons that required practical. Airey and Linder (2007) are of the opinion that formal teaching materials such as textbooks when developed in isolation from classroom realities; they generally fail to provide critical background information for EFAL learners and educators as they might be progressively context reduced (Schleppegrell, 2004).

6.3.2 RESEARCH QUESTION 2: What teaching strategies are available for teachers?

Language as a means of communication is a very important tool in the classroom because it enables learners to talk, think, read and write. In other words, it mediates learning hence it is regarded as a prerequisite to science learning (Wallace, 2003, p.8). With regard to teaching strategies, the common feature in teaching through English is more teacher talk with little learner involvement, and few challenging questions. Teacher talk or the telling teaching method is less interactive and it does not encourage active participation by learners in their lessons. Therefore the question and answer method is usually effective interactive and learner-centred because it stimulates the learners to think and express their thoughts, its effectiveness is determined by the types and quality of questions asked.

The study revealed that most participants agreed that learners were battling to construct meaningful texts because of their low proficiency in English. In view of this, the learners depended on their mother tongue and had no sufficient vocabulary of the language used as MOI. Hence, they shifted to isiXhosa each time they got stuck. The findings show that most participants were struggling to interpret and understand questions that required higher level of thinking. This negatively affected their performance resulting in them opting to use a code-switching approach to enable learners to use their main language for thinking, discussion and a resource for teaching and learning and clarity. Clegg and Afitska (2010) agree that code-switching provides an additional resource for meeting classroom needs. Nevertheless some participants agreed that code switching hindered their progress in learning the language of instruction as they tended to rely on their mother tongue even though it is not the language of instruction.

The data also revealed that the participants faced difficulties from the lack of proper learner support, guidance and encouragement from home. Parents failed to give both financial support and moral support to learners which might be caused by a lack of knowledge in the language of instruction which disabled them to assist the learners. Parental involvement entails their assistance on high scholastic achievements, offering academic guidance and provision for resources on school related tasks and managing and emphasizing educational activities of their children

rather than pleasurable things like TV programs, choice of books and magazines (Mahlobo, 2003).

In view of the above, English is the EFAL to these learners and therefore, teachers have to contribute their time to see to it that learners try to speak English so as to master the four language learning skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. This would not only help them to have a firm base in English, but it would also contribute towards proficiency and perfection of the attested language. Porter (2009) suggests that teachers have to incorporate instructional conversations, having students participate in discussions during the course of all these activities. However, the findings revealed that learners hesitate to speak English with their teachers and peers in and outside the classroom because they are worried about making grammatical mistakes and thereby feeling embarrassed of their low language proficiency.

6.3.3 RESEARCH QUESTION 3: What teaching training and developmental strategies are available for teachers?

In fact, even teachers with good intentions may “provide inadequate or inappropriate [instruction]” to English language learners because they simply do not know how to work with these diverse learners (Mantero and Mc Vicker, 2006). In this regard, every teacher should be trained with practices that apply to learning English as a second language and literacy development (Lewis-Moreno, 2007). This method of teaching reading and writing would therefore tie with the CAPS policy which requires all teachers to function as language teachers most especially when it concerns academic writing.

Granville and Dison (2009, p.56) recommend modelling as a teaching tool as well as teaching through feedback. Likewise, group work is an interactive strategy where learners learn collaboratively. It encourages learners to explore and discover things on their own, and instil good values in learners (e.g. sharing, tolerance, respect, etc.) if it is managed properly. In terms of the Vygotskian theory, group work can also enable the learners to attain the ZPD if they work in collaboration with more capable peers and under the guidance of a teacher or adult (Foncha and Abongdia, 2014; Foncha, 2015). So if group work is not properly managed, it may not scaffold learners to reach their highest level of learning (ZPD).

Significant changes in their classroom practice are needed if they are to improve the feedback between teacher and learners. They need to structure learning environments that support collaborative problem-solving and construction of English knowledge and offers ample opportunity for classroom discourse.

6.3.4 RESEARCH QUESTION 4: How does the LIEP foster or impede learning?

Slonimsky and Reed (2002) argue that there is a specific challenge that is immediately visible in classrooms during the teaching and learning of content subjects through first additional languages when learner's main language is not the same as the language of instruction in which texts for the different subjects are produced. The data collected from the participants showed that learners were facing different challenges although some were claiming acknowledging the international status. Many of the participants claimed not to use English language at home and showed poor understanding of the language as they were not able to express themselves proficiently and fluently because of the limited exposure and little practice however, the data revealed that most of these learners still have challenge in writing and speaking the language.

Most were not lucky to be exposed in the language of instruction which limited their learning and negatively affected their progress in learning. Wildsmith-Cromarty and Gordan (2009) suggest that when first additional languages have no relation to the EFAL learner's everyday experiences and it increases the difficulty of constructing the meaning of concepts, it can as a result contribute to their negative academic performance. Brock-Utne (2005) emphasizes that failure to cater for the above issues can amounts to instructions being given in a language that is not normally used in the learners immediate environment; a language which neither the learner nor the teacher understands and uses well enough.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Retraining educators through in-service training is highly recommended. This could be done in the form of subject workshops facilitated by the exceptionally good facilitators to address FAL issues.

There is a great demand for educators to be creative and inventive in order to come up with approaches to classroom methodology that can fit and accommodate English second language learners.

Learners should be exposed to different programs where their language basic skills could be developed and enhanced. Programs such as debates, presentations, acting and skill based.

It is further recommended that schools without resources should encourage educators to use hand-made teaching resources such as charts, transparencies and any visual aids that they can get hold of. This would be able to help learners make a connection between content knowledge that is being covered and its relevance to everyday life.

The researcher further recommends that teachers should consider the importance of other teaching styles before resorting to code-switching. The use of body language can be very useful if s/he uses gestures, body movement or facial expression to explain things before resorting to code-switching. This is because learners need practice responding to questions in English. If they are not given adequate opportunity to do so, code switching may be pointless. It is evident that whether learners understand concepts in their home language or not, they cannot describe them in English. As a result, it may lead to rote learning and consequently poor performance.

In addition to the above, English as a MOI be taught reading and writing in the early stages of schooling. Secondly, Policy makers need to simplify the language for both teachers and learners. Thirdly, Examination papers need to be set in both mother tongue and English. Fourthly, Implementation of language in Education Policy be monitored. Again, Training programs need to include short courses, in service trainings and full-time training programs. Finally, Department of Education need to run on going language awareness campaign to arouse public interest in language matters.

6.5 CONCLUSION

The researcher believes that the above recommendations can lead to a shift from the obstacles outlined in this study towards alleviating the actual practises done by

teachers when implementing the Language in Education Policy (which in this study English as MOI impede negatively grade 6 EFAL learners in the two primary schools that experience similar challenges. It is also noted that if all stakeholders work together to assist the teachers and learners to understand that the implementation of Language in Education Policy can to producing better students who are proud of their languages and better results Also an early exposure to the language of instruction is a better alternative for the learners to facilitate their demonstration of high order thinking, such as arguing and generalising, critical thinking skills and use of critical language awareness.

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Appendices

Appendix A: learner's interviews

1. Which language do you use at home with your parents?

Xhosa

2. What language is used in school for teaching and learning English?

3. Do you like the fact that content subjects are taught in English. Why or why not?

Yhuu mam, isiNgesi sizakusinceda sive xa kuthethwa isiNgesi, naxa si

bhala iitest zethu.

[Wow mam, English will help us when people are speaking it, even when we write our exams].

4. Do you encounter any problems learning in English? If yes, what are the problems and how do you try to overcome them. If no, why not?

Enyinto sisoloko sithetha isiXhosa ezinye izinto zisixake, uMiss wethu uyasitolikela ngesiXhosa.

[Another thing is that, we always speak isiXhosa, we won't be able to know other things. Our teacher translate for us in isiXhosa]

5. Do you get some support in solving problems in the classroom? If yes state or explain them. If no why?

Yes mam, ndiyasifumana isupport nakwaba badala basekhaya bafunda eHigh school, bandancedisa kwi essay neural mam. [Yes mam, I get support from my older siblings who are in High school, they assist me in essay and oral]

6. Which language(s) is used when teaching Mathematics or Natural Science?

English nesiXhosa ziyasetyenziswa xa sifunda. [English and isiXhosa are during teaching and learning]

7. Which language would you prefer and why?

English, coz xa siye kwezizikolo zabelungu, ndikwazi ukuthetha nabanye abantwana. [English because when we go to other schools (former model C) I can communicate with other children.

8. Do you understand the lesson taught in English? If yes, why if no, why not?

Sometimes yes and no mam, if simple English iyasetyenziswa ndiyaqonda, but xa kungasetyenziswa amagama anzima andiqonda. [Sometimes yes and no mam, if simple English is used I understand, but if difficult words are used I don't understand]

9. What do you do when you do not understand the lesson

Ndibuza utishala andicacisele okanye ndisebenzise idictionary for amagama endingawaziyo. [I ask my teacher for clarity or I check my dictionary if there are difficult words that I don't understand]

10. What do you think could be done to improve learning in your school or class?

Ndicingba amaphephe mawasebenzise isiNgesi esilula iexam mayibuzwe both ngesiNgesi nesiXhosa. [I think English language must be used simple and the exams question papers be asked in English and isiXhosa]

Appendix B Learner's interviews

1. Which language do you use at home with your parents?
Xhosa
2. What language is used in school for teaching and learning
English
3. Do you like the fact that content subjects are taught in English. Why or why not?

Ewe mam, ndiyayithanda into yokuba sifundiswe ngesiNgesi kuba kaloku xa ndifuna umsebenzi wokuba ngunondaba ndizakukwazi ukukhumsha ndithethe nabantu bamanye amazwe

[Yes madam, I like to be taught in the medium of English because when I seek employment for journalism, I will be able to communicate in English even with foreign people from other countries].

4. Do you encounter any problems learning in English? If yes, what are the problems and how do you try to overcome them. If no, why not?

Ndiyasokola ukuthetha isiNgesi, kuba nzima ukuguqula amagama okanye izivakalisi ezibhalwe ngesiNgesi ndizise esiXhoseni.

[I struggle to speak English; I also struggle to interpret words or sentences written in English to isiXhosa]

5. Do you get some support in solving problems in the classroom? If yes state or explain them. If no why?

It depends mem ba sinikwe enjani na. [It depends on the type of task given]

6. Which language(s) is used when teaching Mathematics or Natural Science?

English utishala usicacisela ngesiXhosa amagama anzima neephases. [English, our teacher breaks down the phrases into Xhosa for clearer understanding]

7. Which language would you prefer and why?

English because exams zinge English mem. [English mam, because exams are written in English]

8. Do you understand the lesson taught in English? If yes, why if no, why not?

Ewe mem coz utishala usicacisela kakuhle ngesiXhosa qho emva kwe phrase yeEnglish. [Yes, because our teacher explains it very well in Xhosa after each English phrase]

9. What do you do when you do not understand the lesson
I ask my teacher

10. What do you think could be done to improve learning in your school or class?

To have more time and good teachers like mine in other Learning Areas

Appendix C: Parents interviews

1. What is your home language?

: Xhosa kaloku [Xhosa ofcourse]

2. What is the medium of instruction used by your child?

3. Do you know the language policy of the school? If yes, what is it?

Sinayo Miss, [yes we do have it Miss] Did you have a decision in the used use of that language? If yes? What influenced the choice of the MOI?

[English is going to help my child to cope with other subjects. When I visit the schools sometimes I hear the teachers using isiXhosa. I was not involved in the decision making of the language policy.]

4. Given that the MOI in this school is English, do you assist him/her with school work?

5. If yes to three above how do you help him/her on his/ her homework/ school work?

6. If no, why not and how does s/he cope with the school work?

7. Given that English is the MOI, have you observed any change(s) in his/ her performance?

8. What changes have you observed in other subjects? What do you think is the cause of this change(s)?

Emntaneni wam , ndiyacingba umsebenzi wakhe weEnglish uphakathi nje, ngamanye amaxesha uyamfumana u50% no 46%zange afumane ngaphezulu. Ndiyacinga ukuba bekufundwa ngesiXhosa ngesenza bhete, kodwa kuba kufundwa ngesiNgesi, uyabethakala

[In the case of my child, I think his written work in English is average, sometimes he obtains 50% and 46% and never more than that. I think if the MOI would be isiXhosa he would excel, but now that English is MOI his performance is affected.]

9. What are your comments regarding the learners work written in English?
10. What do you think could be done to improve teaching and learning in this school?
11. Mam, ndibona okokuba thina singabazali masithathe uxanduva ngokuthi sizibandakanye kwimfundo yabantwana sibancedise nakumsebenzi wabo.

[Madam, I suggest that we as parents must take responsibility by being involved in the education of our children and and assist them in their school work].

Okunye abaqulunqi, mithetho mabacingele abantu basezilalini ukwenzela ukuba kulemigaqo nathi sikwazi ukufikelela.

[To add more, the policy makers must take into consideration the background of the rural areas so that these policies are implementable and applicable].

Appendix D Parents interview

12. What is your home language?

Xhosa thina mem

13. What is the medium of instruction used by your child?

Bafunda ngesiNgesi mem [The medium of instruction used by my child is English]

14. Do you know the language policy of the school? If yes, what is it?

Hayi yintoni iLanguage policy? [No, what is the language policy?]

15. Did you have a decision in the used use of that language? If yes? What influenced the choice of the MOI?

Uyayazi into yokuba zange ndibandakanywe kwisigqibo selanguage policy.kodwa ndiyayithanda lento befunda ngesiNgesi.

[No, I was not involved in the decision making of the language policy. But I like the fact that they are taught in English]

16. Given that the MOI in this school is English, do you assist him/her with school work?

: Ewe, ndiyamncedisa owam umntwana namgona ndingaziqondi ezinye izinto kuba ngoku izinto zitshintshile isilabhasi ayisafani.

[Yes, I do assist my child though I do not understand other things as the present syllabus is not the same.]

17. If yes to three above how do you help him/her on his/ her homework/ school work?

Ndiqale ndimqondise umbuzo, sijonge nasezincwadini zakhe, ngamanye amaxesha ndicela abaye mem, bamncedise, aba badala. [At times I assist my child first to understand the question. I also refer to the textbook and notes, but if it is something I really do not understand I ask the older ones to help her]

18. If no, why not and how does s/he cope with the school work?

19. Given that English is the MOI, have you observed any change(s) in his/ her performance?

Ndiyacinga kuyambetha ukufunda ngesiNgesi kuba uhlile umgangatho wakhe, xa umbuzo ndiwuguqula uyawuqonda, athi ukuba ebesazi isiNgesi ngele eqhuba kakuhle. [I think English as LOLT affect her performance because if I translate the question in isiXhosa he understands and he usually says if he understood English he would perform better]

IsiXhosa mem kuba ziyambida izinto zoNatural Science, kanti wayeqhuba kakuhle kwezaclass zisezantsi.[Xhosa mam, cos she gets tough time when it comes to subjects like Natural Sciences, but he was doing fine in the lower grades]

9 What do you think could be done to improve learning in your school or class? Ndinga okokuba ilanguage policy mayihlaziye. Amaphepha oviwo mawabhalwe ngesiNgesi nesiXhosa ukwenzela ukuba imfundo iphucuke, kungabikho miqobo. Okunye abazali makuqinisekwe okokuba bayinxalenye yokwakhiwa kwelanguage policy bayazi inxaxheba amabayithathe ekuncediseni kwimfundo yabantwana babo.

[I think the language policy should be revised. Exam papers should be written in both English and isiXhosa. And also parents should be part of the development of language policy, so that they know their role in the education of their children]

Appendix E Teacher's interviews

1. What is your first language?

Xhosa

2. Which of the 11 official languages are you most comfortable with?

Xhosa, English because the language of teaching and learning in our school is English.

3. Do you have a language policy in your school?

Yes there is a language policy and it states that all educators should use English in their classes except those who are teaching isiXhosa

4. If yes, What suggestions do you have regarding the language policy at this school?

5. To me, the learners know how to express themselves in English though they need some assistance at their level. They can communicate with people abroad and more windows will be opened to the world and to knowledge.

5. Is this policy being implemented successfully? Why/why not?

:I encourage learners to speak English throughout the class. But you know what? Language policy as we know, subjects are taught in English from Grade 4-9 by all teachers except isiXhosa. There is a tendency of content subjects teachers who teach in isiXhosa and I feel that they should stop this and teach in English as the policy prescribed. NO, because the teachers are teaching in isiXhosa instead of English.

6. To what extent does it meet the learners' needs?

7. Is this policy a written document or one that is tacitly understood, i.e .that favours the majority speakers of the other languages?

8. Given that English is LOLT, in your opinion do you think it necessary for the learners to be taught in English rather than their mother tongue (isiXhosa). Why?

..... Yes, it is necessary for the learners to be taught in English because English is the language of communication internationally; also doors will be opened for learners for employment and travelling.

9. What do you think are the advantages or benefit of using English as LOLT?

..... English is beneficial because learners get chances to qualify for sponsors and learner ship opportunities to go abroad

10. How are the learners coping with the LOLT?

11. What are the challenges that you face when implementing the language policy in school?

... For effective implementation of the policy, there need to be adequate teaching and learning materials in the schools which is of course not the case here. Secondly, the language policy is not implemented at school because the teachers teach in isiXhosa or mix English with Xhosa.

12. Do you think using English as LOLT has an influence in the academic performance of learners?

...Yes it does. This because learners when they are required to explain or discuss in the examinations, they leave blank spaces but not that they do not know the answer, but they struggle to express themselves in English

13. Finally, what else do you have to say about language policy in schools?

...: I hate the fact that the language policy did not accommodate isiXhosa speakers. Everything should be done equally. For instance in the former model C school during examinations, question papers are set in English and Afrikaans. I suggest promoting bilingualism the question papers for exams must be written in isiXhosa and English so that if the learners do not understand English, they can check the isiXhosa version.

14. Your opinion and suggestion to policy makers?

Appendix E: Questionnaires

1. What is your first language?

Xhosa

2. Which of the 11 official languages are you most comfortable with?

: IsiXhosa, I am comfortable in English because as a Maths teacher, the language of learning and teaching is English. I use English as stipulated by the language policy.

3. Do you have a language policy in your school?

Yes, there is a language policy as we know that from Grade 4, all the content subjects are taught in English except those teachers who teach isiXhosa. There is a tendency of teaching content subjects in isiXhosa.

4. If yes, what suggestions do you have regarding the language policy at this school?

It needs to be written or allow learners to learn in the language of their choice

5. Is this policy being implemented successfully? Why/why not?

No, I don't think the policy is implemented successfully because I find myself using isiXhosa instead of English, since the learners seem to be confused when taught in English.

6. To what extent does it meet the learners' needs?

It helps because they will be able to communicate with other people from other countries or nationalities.

7. Is this policy a written document or one that is tacitly understood, i.e. that favours the majority speakers of the other languages?

Yes it is written, though I have never seen it

8. Given that English is LOLT, in your opinion do you think it necessary for the learners to be taught in English rather than their mother tongue (isiXhosa). Why?

It is important for the learners to be taught in their mother tongue because when they know their mother tongue it is easier for them to understand. Understanding is easier when learning in your mother tongue, it also reflects their origin.

9. What do you think are the advantages or benefit of using English as LOLT?

The advantage of English as LOLT is that learners can express themselves without problems and moreover they will have the opportunity of having jobs in other countries. English is an International language and learners will be able to communicate because South Africa is a multilingual country.

10. How are the learners coping with the LOLT?

11. What are the challenges that you face when implementing the language policy in school?

... I think parents, teachers and the SGB (school governing Body) need some training so that all stakeholders are on the same page. The aim of promoting bilingualism could be fostered through in-service training because the actual practices in our school are failing the actual aim. Teachers have the tendency of teaching in isiXhosa instead of using English.

12. Do you think using English as LOLT has an influence in the academic performance of learners?

Yes, if you mark the learners' examinations, these learners are free to answer closed questions but struggle a lot with open ended questions and as a result this affects their academic performance.

13. Finally, what else do you have to say about language policy in schools?

I think the South African government must develop the isiXhosa language instead of looking for a solution that can lead to the officialisation of some local languages. Official languages have to be taught but government must encourage linguistic to combine our languages and give them equal status.

14. Your opinion and suggestion to policy makers?

Appendix F: Consent form

FORT HARE UNIVERSITY

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Dear Participants,

The implementation of Language in Education Policy (LIEP) in the learning and teaching: a case study of two primary schools in Lady Frere District. You are kindly requested to participate in this research study conducted by Mrs Nomakhosazana Rani towards a Master degree in Education (M.Ed.) from the faculty of Education at University of Fort Hare. The results of this research will contribute to the thesis which will be written in fulfilment of the requirements for the M.Ed. You are selected as a possible participant in this study because as a teacher you are at the fore front of curriculum implementation and as grade 6 teachers, you have a very huge responsibility in preparing learners for the Senior Phase in the General Education and Training (GET) Phase and hence for their future ahead.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to explore the implementation of LIEP in learning and teaching (LoLT), and how teachers use the teaching methods on English as the language of learning and teaching especially in Grade 6 learners at schools in the GET band in the Eastern Cape.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, I would like to interview you for 15 to 30 minutes on the use of English as a language of learning and teaching.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

You will not experience or be exposed to any potential risks or discomfort by taking part in this study.

4. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. No names of any participants will be mentioned; participants will be given a participant number that will be utilised in the thesis for

ease of reference, and only the researcher will be able to identify the participant. All the interviews to be conducted will be recorded and participants have rights to review and edit the tapes. Also, the recordings will be used for thesis purposes only and only the researcher and his supervisors will have access to the recordings. After the thesis is written by the researcher and assessed and graded by the university, the recordings will be erased.

5. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Participation in the study is voluntary. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

6. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact

Me or my supervisor, Dr. Jane - Francis Abongdia at +27(0) 43 704 7118 or e-mail her at: jabongdia@ufh.ac.za

7. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Mr Awusi William at 043 704 7509 or e-mail him wawusi@ufh.ac.za at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

The information above was described to me by Mrs Nomakhosazana Rani in the implementation of LIEP in the learning and teaching, as I am in command of these languages. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

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

Name of Participant

Signature of Participant

Date

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCHER

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

Signature of Researcher

Date

Appendix G Permission letter from Department of Education



PRIVATE BAG X 1152* LADY FRERE* 5410* REPUBLIC OF SOTH AFRICA*
TEL: 047 878 0351/4* FAX: 047 878 0358* CELL: 083 241 9126* Enquiries: Khosi Rani

TO: CES - CURRICULU

FROM: SES – LANGUAGES

LADY FRERE

DATE: 02 MARCH 2015

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS

Madam

This serves as a request to conduct a research in two schools in the district. The schools are Lady Frere J.S.S. and Nonkunzi Senior Primary Schools. The research will not take the teaching and learning time. A structured interviewed is prepared, in a very comfortable and unintimidating atmosphere.

This research aims at benefitting both the schools and the district. My topic is “The implementation of Language in Education Policy in teaching and learning. It is a case study which will look at two schools in the district.

Ethical and professionalism will be of high importance in this study. Nobody will be held responsible for their responses and respondents name will be kept confidentially.

Hope you find this in order.

Yours in service

N.J. Rani

Appendix H Permission letter from school A



PRIVATE BAG X 1152* LADY FRERE* 5410* REPUBLIC OF SOTH AFRICA*
TEL: 047 878 0351/4* FAX: 047 878 0358* CELL: 083 241 9126* Enquiries: Khosi Rani

TO: THE PRINCIPAL
LADY FRERE JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL
LADY FRERE

FROM: SES – LANGUAGES
LADY FRERE

DATE: 02 MARCH 2015

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE YOUR SCHOOL

Sir

This serves as a request to conduct a research in your school. The research will not take the teaching and learning time. A structured interviewed is prepared, in a very comfortable and unintimidating atmosphere.

This research aims at benefitting both the schools and the district. My topic is “The implementation of Language in Education Policy in teaching and learning. It is a case study which will look at two schools in the district.

Ethical and professionalism will be of high importance in this study. Nobody will be held responsible for their responses and respondents name will be kept confidentially.

Hope you find this in order.

Yours in service

N.J. Rani

Appendix I Permission letter from School B



PRIVATE BAG X 1152* LADY FRERE* 5410* REPUBLIC OF SOTH AFRICA*
TEL: 047 878 0351/4* FAX: 047 878 0358* CELL: 083 241 9126* Enquiries: Khosi Rani

TO: THE PRINCIPAL
NONKUNZI SEN PRIMARY SCHOOL LADY FRERE

FROM: SES – LANGUAGES
LADY FRERE

DATE: 02 MARCH 2015

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE YOUR SCHOOL

Sir

This serves as a request to conduct a research in your school. The research will not take the teaching and learning time. A structured interviewed is prepared, in a very comfortable and unintimidating atmosphere.

This research aims at benefitting both the schools and the district. My topic is “The implementation of Language in Education Policy in teaching and learning. It is a case study which will look at two schools in the district.

Ethical and professionalism will be of high importance in this study. Nobody will be held responsible for their responses and respondents name will be kept confidentially.

Hope you find this in order.

Yours in service

N.J. Rani

Appendix J Ethical clearance certificate



Province of the
EASTERN CAPE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Private Bag X1152, LADY FRERE 5410* REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
Tel : +27(047) 878 0354/6 Fax : (047) 878 0358 enquiry- C.N. Bula

COMPILER	DATE	TEL. NO.	FAX NO.	FILE NO.
Mrs. C.N. Bula	04.05.2015	047 8780351	047 8780358	

TO: RANI N.J.
SES – LANNGUAGES
FROM: CES – CURRICULUM
LADY FRERE
DATE: 04 MARCH 2015

SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN LADY FRERE SCHOOLS

Dear Madam

This is a response to your letter dated 02 March 2015. It is a pleasure to inform you that we as the department of Lady Frere allow you to conduct the research in both Nonkunzi and Lady Frere J.S.S. schools.

I would like to conscientise you of the teaching times. Further more I would also request that the identity of any responded to be kept confidentially.

We wish you success in your endeavors.

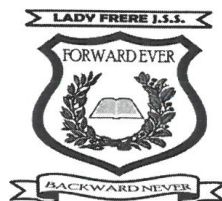
Yours in service

C.N. Bula

LADY FRERE JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

Enquiries:

047 8770064
0721270480



P.O Box 77
LADY FRERE
5410

10 March 2015

EMIS NO: 200600361

TO: Mrs N.J. Rani
Department of Education
Lady Frere District
LADY FRERE

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

Dear Mrs Rani

Thanks for your letter which we receive as a school. It is a pleasure to inform you that we will allow you to conduct your research at our school. However we will also be glad if you can observe our teaching times and not temper with them.

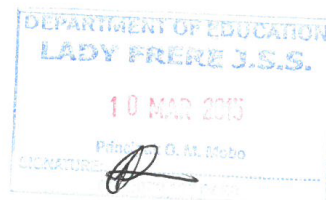
We also hope that you will keep the secrecy of the participants in our school.

We also want to wish you well in your studies.
Thanking you in advance

Yours in service


.....

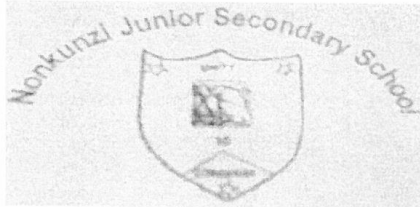
O. Mobo
(Principal)



NONKUNZI JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

Enquiries:

0746186325



P.O.BOX 150

10 MARCH 2016

LADY FRERE
5410

EMIS NO: 200600616

TO: Mrs N.J Rani
Department of Education
Lady Frere District
Lady Frere

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

Dear Mrs Rani

Thanks for your letter requesting us to allow you time to conduct research at our school. It is a pleasure to inform you that time is granted to you to conduct research; however we can be glad if we can meet with you so that we can arrange time.

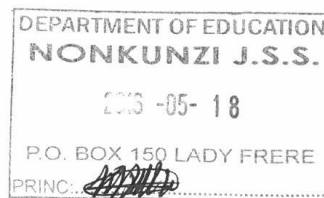
We also hope that you will keep the secrecy of the participants in our school.

THANK YOU IN ADVANCE

Yours in service

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be "K.H. Vetezo", written over a horizontal line.

K.H.VETEO (PRINCIPAL)



Editing Certificate

University of the Western Cape

Cape Town, South Africa

May 17, 2016.

CONFIRMATION OF EDITING

This is to confirm that I Dr. Dinis Da Costa edited for language use, the thesis entitled the place of language policy in education in teaching and learning: a case study of two primary schools in the Eastern Cape Province by Nomakhosazana Jeanette Rani. This editing involved issues such as spelling, punctuation, and sentence and paragraph structure as well as language usage. I hold a PhD degree in Linguistics from the University of the Western Cape.

Regards

Dr. D. Da Costa

Cell no: 0727774508



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Certificate Reference Number: ABO061SRAN01

Project title: **The Implementation of Language Policy in Education in teaching and learning: A case study of two Primary schools in the Eastern Cape (Lady Frere District).**

Nature of Project: Masters

Principal Researcher: Nomakhosazana Jeanette Rani

Supervisor: Dr J Abongdia

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

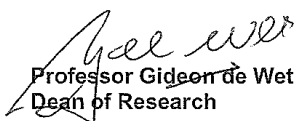
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely


Professor Gideon de Wet
Dean of Research

08 June 2016