

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO CHALLENGES FACING
FURTHER EDUCATION TRAINING (FET) LEARNERS
IN THE STUDY OF ISIXHOSA IN THE PORT
ELIZABETH DISTRICT**

by

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DECLARATION BY STUDENT

I, Nombulelo Patience Mpofu, student number 201113869, hereby declare that: “An investigation into challenges facing Further Education Training (FET) learners in the study of IsiXhosa” is my work and has never been submitted at any other University for a degree. Where I have made use of ideas or sentences of other people I acknowledge them by means of referencing the source in both in-text reference and end-text reference of the work.

SIGNATURE:

DATE :

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would love to thank God my Creator, who, despite the magnitude of challenges I experienced while this study was in progress, gave me strength, dedication and encouragement to continue. In Him, with all my heart, I put my trust.

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And finally, to my beloved children Bulelwa, Siyongezwa, Viwe and Ayabonga for their unfailing support, and finally, not forgetting my family at large, thank you all.

Dedication

I am dedicating this work to my parents:

To my late father Mzondeleli Wilfred, and Lisibe Elizabeth Mpofu. Your inspiration gave me strength and stimulation.

Thank You

Nombulelo Patience Mpofu.

SUMMARY

This study is about the Challenges Facing (FET) Further Education Training Learners in the study of isiXhosa at (Grade 8 – Grade 12) Level.

Chapter One, deals with the research problem, the objective of the research, literature review, research methods and the application of findings.

The objective of this study is to:

(a) To investigate why Xhosa students have negative attitudes towards their mother tongue; with the specific reference to Further Education Training learners (Grade 8-Grade 12) in the Port Elizabeth District.

(b) To discuss factors that could be taken into consideration to promote the development of indigenous languages.

(c) To discuss and offer recommendations on advocacy as one of the strategies to promote languages.

Chapter Two focuses on theoretical approaches to the study.

Chapter Three focuses on the administrative challenges facing FET educators in teaching isiXhosa to Grade 8 – Grade 12 learners studying isiXhosa in the Port Elizabeth area.

These include the:

- School language policy
- Infrastructure
- Qualified isiXhosa educators
- No developing programs for indigenous languages.
- Inadequate training for the changing curriculum e.g. O.B.E

Chapter Four deals with the actual challenges encountered by educators and learners in the study of isiXhosa in the FET level in the Port Elizabeth district

Chapter Five deals with data analysis.

Chapter Six entails the conclusion and recommendations.

List of Acronyms used:

DAC : Department of Arts and Culture.

DSRAC : Department of Sports, Recreation, Arts and Culture.

LANGTANG : Language Plan Task Group.

PANSALB : Pan South Africa Language Board.

PLS : Provincial Language Service.

SMT : School Management Team.

SGB : School Governing Body.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale

The essential function of a language is communication. Effective communication takes place when speakers understand each other's language. Speakers of different languages these days stay with each other. This kind of setting results into multilingualism. Multilingualism refers to the use or maintenance of more than one language in a certain context. In this regard it may refer to the fact that many languages are spoken in South Africa. It serves as a natural solution to the problem of language contact that is extremely widespread throughout South Africa and the world at large.

The recognition of the multilingual nature of South African society by the Constitution of this country , as (Made 2010) puts it , necessitates the creation of tools of implementation and redress, in the form of appropriate language policies. Such language policies are designed to correct the universal tendency to practise monolingualism in multilingual societies which disempowers non-mother tongue speakers of the dominant language, to the detriment of both their rights as citizens and in communicative equity in exercising these rights.

Many Black South Africans took employment in the industrial centres through urbanization, where they learnt many languages such as Fanakalo, English, Afrikaans and many other languages in the African continent. This resulted into linguistic heterogeneity. Heterogeneity brings speakers of languages together at different workplaces, schools and even places of abode.

This linguistic heterogeneity leads to switching amongst speakers. A great number of parents also contribute to this linguistic heterogeneity by sending their children to private or former Model C schools, most of which do not offer the respective vernacular neither as a medium of instruction nor as a subject. Consequently, those Black South African learners in the private or former Model C schools would treat English as if it were their mother tongue, thus relegating their own African languages to the margins.

These Black South African learners would converse in English even amongst themselves. For example, if someone speaks isiXhosa, most of these learners tend to look down on him/her because they take isiXhosa as an inferior language.

There is a general belief that African languages, including IsiXhosa, are inferior to English and Afrikaans. The result is that in some former Model C schools such languages are not even offered as subjects even if there are enough mother tongue speakers for a class (Nzo, in Herald 07/12/2011).

This is a great challenge because the school system is regarded as obvious means of promoting appropriate language use and language maintenance, and educators should support those initiatives. According to Nzo, (2011), Black South African learners face the following challenges:

- ◆ African learners at former Model C schools are most likely to be deficient in their mother tongue languages.
- ◆ The influence of other languages gives rise to code – switching.
- ◆ The media promotes code – switching.
- ◆ Curriculum changes e.g. O.B.E and N.C.S.

◆ Change in orthography and political upheaval.

The Constitution of South Africa, (1996), makes provision for the use of eleven official languages and the promotion and development of the historically marginalised indigenous languages. These languages are Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, Sepedi, Sesotho, Siswati, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, isiXhosa and isiZulu. Apart from these official languages, the constitution recognizes other formally marginalised languages such as Khoi, San, Nama and Sign languages which must also be promoted and developed.

The language policy is based on (Section 6 of the Constitution of South Africa Act No. 108 of 1996) as it serves the right of citizens to receive government services in their own language. In South Africa, language has been used as a means of segregation. Politics played a major role in the use of language for segregation in South Africa. There were schools which used English as a medium of instruction; others even used Afrikaans as a medium of instruction. This kind of setting led to the exclusion of African languages.

Learners from African communities were also not supposed to be in the same schools with European learners. The introduction of Bantu Education 1953 completely destroyed equal education and the promotion of African languages. The National Party in 1976 forced all schools to use Afrikaans as a medium of instruction, which led to the Soweto uprising. This turned around in 1994 when South Africa became a democratic country.

The constitution mandated changes to the language situation in South Africa, giving social and political recognition to the disadvantaged languages. Section 6 (3) and (4) of the constitution contains languages related provisions for National and Provincial government where it reflects that the government departments should at least use two of the official languages.

According to Section 9 (3) individuals are protected against unfair discrimination on the grounds of language and this is endorsed by the Eastern Cape language policy (2007), where it reflects the recognition of multilingualism in the promotion of human rights, facilitating effective administration and contributing to the development of the country's economy, education and cultural diversity. As a result of the past language policies, particularly the Bantu Education Act, most Africans have thus attached high status to English than that of their mother tongue isiXhosa (*Maartens, 1998*).

This is one of the factors that contributed to the rise of the African/Black parents taking their children to former model C schools where they are taught in English and not their mother tongue, which then leads us to discuss the research problems of this study.

Many IsiXhosa speaking students in the township schools as a result, prefer to speak English even amongst themselves, rather than isiXhosa. They are not even interested in learning isiXhosa at school, particularly at FET level (Grade 8-Grade 12). This has resulted in the consistent deterioration of isiXhosa.

In most instances ,when these African learners speak isiXhosa, which is their mother tongue, they tend to switch to Afrikaans and English. It becomes a problem for teachers to teach isiXhosa to learners who do not have a solid foundation of their mother tongue. This study investigates and explores the reasons why learners fail to use their home language properly.

1.2 Objectives of the study

(a) To investigate why Xhosa learners have negative attitudes towards their mother tongue; with the specific reference to Further Education Training learners (Grade 8-Grade 12) in the Port Elizabeth District.

(b) To discuss factors that could be taken into consideration to promote the development of indigenous languages.

(c) To explore and make some recommendations on advocacy as one of the strategies to promote languages.

1.3 Assumption/Hypothesis

The study is based on the assumption that indigenous languages like isiXhosa are used mostly and effectively at primary school level, but their effective use or role at secondary school is also important but they are just taught as subjects not as a tool to learn other subjects.

The research therefore intends to investigate the validity of this assumption and offers recommendations which might partially resolve the problem.

1.4 Research questions

- ◆ What challenges do FET learners have in studying isiXhosa?
- ◆ What support systems are in place to ensure the development of indigenous languages as languages of learning and teaching?
- ◆ What can be done to encourage learners to study isiXhosa?

It is important to discuss the literature review because it helps the researcher to know which gap this study is going to fill and to protect her from doing something that has been dealt with.

1.5 Literature review

The decline into the use of African languages in general has been an outcry to most South African scholars. Attempts to describe the haunting question of the value and role of future academics of indigenous languages is a deepening mystery and an elusive task. To support this notion Nkuna (2010), foresees major challenges facing higher education institutions of South Africa in retaining and recruiting talent, especially in the discipline of indigenous African languages. He is of the opinion that talent recruitment is critical for indigenous language discipline at South African universities if they are to provide essential knowledge and skills for transformation. He also feels that indigenous languages remain the field of survival.

Ngqangashe (1995), examines the influences of socio political – economic changes on language in a multilingual society focusing on the isiXhosa language speakers in Umtata.

This statement has also been echoed by Langtag (Language Plan Task Group: 1996: 9) saying:

No person should be prevented from using
his/her choice of language within boundaries
of reasonableness.

The language policy (2002), stipulates that the learner's home language should be used for learning and teaching whenever possible, which is concurrent with the constitution, the language in education policy and other official documents.

Further, Gxekwa (2009:4), argues that:

African languages are important because the social, political and economic development of the vast majority of the people of South Africa depends on the proper and systematic use of their indigenous languages. Moreover, failure or refusal to use African languages in many domains adversely affects the African's human rights in general. These include their right to quality education, good health, fair trial, economic justice, access to information and freedom of expression.

Somniso (1996), advances the importance of cross cultural communication and foregrounds the primacy of African languages in his work. He argues that indigenous languages are accessible and ideal tools of knowledge acquisition. Sonkwala (1996), is also of the opinion that primary school learners should study through the medium of isiXhosa to make it easy for them to comprehend their studies. He maintains that a pupil's success at school depends to a degree on his/her ability to express his/her thought impressions and feelings through his mother tongue.

In the same vein, Made (2010), cites the South African Schools Act (1996 6-8) in this manner:

All learners must receive education in their official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions.

The foregoing expresses that teaching isiXhosa would increase knowledge acquisition and sharpen the horizons of its recipients. By the same token introducing it at FET (Grade 8 – Grade 12) as a medium of instruction which is the primary drive of this project would usher in more self assured and knowledgeable graduates. Not only would this develop the language, but would also stimulate the economy and the development of our country since more qualified personnel would be produced at ease. The researcher is of the opinion that the maintenance of isiXhosa should be reasonably practicable where it is used as a medium of instruction in schools but none of them has practically dealt with that.

1.6 Significance of study

The significance of this study lies in identifying and exploring the reasons why the learners in the Port Elizabeth district lack interest in studying isiXhosa and offering solutions to the problem. The goal of this project is to encourage government and language practitioners to formulate strategies to promote indigenous languages.

This study will also open the debate about the relevance of introducing compulsory media of instruction at tertiary level one of which should be an indigenous language.

It is important now to discuss terms which will be used in the study in order to avoid misunderstanding which would thwart the objective of this study.

1.7 Definitions of terms

It is important to define terms which are going to be used in this research to avoid misunderstanding which would thwart the objective of this study.

1.7.1 Multilingualism

According to Hoffman et al (1992), multilingualism comes about when speakers of different languages are brought together within the same political entity.

Though a child from birth uses his or her first language which is referred to as the mother tongue, multilingualism is far more prevalent world wide than monolingualism. A great number of people use more than one language to manage their everyday life than the number of people who manage their lives through the medium of just one language. The multilingual individual very often acquires more than one language by mixing with people who speak other languages.

Multilingualism is often confused with bilingualism, where bilingualism means two languages from (bi-meaning two + lingua-meaning language). Bilingualism is often used when the individual speaks more than one language though the term multilingualism from (multi-meaning many + lingua- meaning languages) is increasingly used in linguistic discussions.

Despite the theoretical discussions concerning the differences, Wei (2000), maintains that these terms are often used interchangeably and can be applied both to individual people and to communities.

Hoffman (1992: 126) argues that:

Bilinguals have a wider and more varied range of experiences than monolinguals, as they have access to two cultures and operate in two different systems. Their need to switch from one code to another has also been seen as beneficial to flexible thinking, as each language may provide the speaker with distinct perspectives.

1.7.2 Indigenous Language

The term indigenous language, ethnic language, vernacular language or native languages are mostly used interchangeably by linguists. According to Birgit Smieda (2003), identity with and loyalty to a specific reference point are the decisive factors for the maintenance or loss of an ethnic language and culture. Yet, an absence of loyalty a certain linguistic or cultural code would mark a loss of identity and a development of one's language or culture would be in vein.

1.7.3 Language Policy

To define language policy can be challenging, as language planning and language policy are closely related to the political, economical, educational and social aims of the country's government. It is therefore not very easy to decide on what basis a language should be chosen for development.

Bamgose (2000: 106) defines language policy as: “a programme of action on the role or status of a language in a given society”.

Prator in Olshtain (2000), sees language policy as “decisions concerning the teaching and use of language and their careful formulation by an authority which has the power to do so, for the governance of others”.

1.7.4 Language Planning

Language planning can be defined as the conscious efforts of the government to lessen language problems and to recognize one or more languages as official languages. Weinstein quoted in Beer and Jacob (1985:2), suggests that:

“Language planning is a government authorized long term sustained conscious effort to alter a language itself or to change a language’s functions in a society for the purpose of solving communication problems”.

In support of the above, Pennycook (2010), says that: “language planning involves public decisions about language, its use, status and development. Those decisions have an overwhelming significance socially, economically, educationally and politically for both the society and the individual”.

Reagan (2002), argues that language planning can serve as a tool for empowering different groups and individuals, thus creating and strengthening national bonds and ties for maximising educational and economic development, He further explains that language planning can be used to maintain and perpetuate oppression, social class discrimination and social and education inequity.

According to Toffelson (1992:8):

Language planning involves all conscious efforts that affect the structure or function of language varieties .

These efforts may involve the creation of standardization and modernization programmes or allocation of functions to a particular language within a multilingual society.

1.7.5 Language Attitude

The term attitude implies a negative way of thinking or behaving towards something. Language attitude, therefore, could refer to the feelings that people have towards their own language, for example when referring to mother-tongue speakers having a negative attitude towards their language, it means they feel inferior about their own language. Dwight Bolinger (1980), is correct in his observation that a person's attitude towards a certain language usually reflects that person's attitude towards the speakers.

According to Lewis (1980:262-273):

Attitude is a mental set which often constitutes a cluster of preconceptions that determine the evaluation of a task, a situation ,an institution or an object before one actually faces it.

It is therefore clear that factors such as status, appropriateness, interest and usefulness are evaluative components of the attitudes towards a certain language. However, attitudes do not necessarily really mirror the real language use, but after shows subconsciously the view of a desire, potential situation instead.

Ammon (1998:97), supports the above as he states that:

Attitude is often used as a generic concept for “belief”, or “knowledge”, and “evaluation”. Sometimes, “evaluation” is seen as the crucial component of “attitude”, and it is stressed that the one and the same belief can be combined with opposite evaluations and consequently opposite attitudes. According to the viewpoint, cognitive beliefs should be treated separately from evaluative attitudes.

Adegbija (1994), in contrast to Ammon, does not separate cognitive and evaluative “attitudes” but defines “attitudes” from a broader perspective as accommodating evaluative judgments made about a language or its variety, its speakers, towards efforts of promoting, maintaining or planning a language, or even towards learning it.

Although one would say, many different factors play a role, but as Veltman (1991:122) puts it: “The future of any given language depends on its actual use. Ibid”

Similarly, though the studies on language use are rather descriptive on macro level, studies on language attitudes show differences from the real language use. They may at some point reveal whether a language is perceived with positive or negative sentiments and used or acknowledged accordingly.

By contrast, Bender(2006:250) writes:

Language attitudes reflect in general the real language use under consideration of all individual and social components, norms and possibilities.

To evaluate therefore a language situation and the attitude implied in it, it is important to investigate or observe the following factors that influence language attitudes:

- Social factors – identity, social solidarity and migration.
- Educational conditions and plans – language within the classroom, outside the classroom and as medium of instructions.
- Language policy of the government.

The above domains of language use and attitudes are closely connected to language policy and language planning therefore will also be discussed in this respect.

The above mentioned elements are also important factors in describing the dimension of language shift which will also be discussed as the result of all the effects.

1.7.6 Borrowing

Borrowing implies linguistic patterns characterized by the speakers' inclusion of foreign words into their language. Such borrowed words from one other language to the other are termed loan words, which means that for example an English word is included into an isiXhosa sentence such as "*Mamela iradio kusasa before uhambe so that ube current nge news*" Smierja (2003).

1.7.7 Code - Switching

A lot of definitions of code-switching have been proposed, but they seem to be related. The most common aspect concerning code-switching is the alternate use of two or more languages or language varieties within the same utterance or during the same conversation.

Gxilishe (1992), Myers-Scotton (1993), Kamwangamalu (2001), Finlayson (1989), maintains that code-switching refers to a situation where a speaker uses more than one language in the course of a discourse.

Mesthrie (1995:199), defines code-switching as:

Juxtaposition or alternation of material
from two or more languages or dialects.
it can be defined according to formal
and informal terms where formally it
is said to refer to the alternation of
elements longer than
one word from two languages or dialects.

In fictional terms, code-switching can often be seen to serve specific purposes or have stylistic or social effect.

Myers-Scotton (1993:47), refers to code-switching as:

Involving the use of two or more languages
in the same conversation, usually within the
same conversational turn, or even within the
same sentence.

Code-switching is described as a situation where the speaker in a single utterance moves from using one variety of a language to another.

1.7.8 OBE (Outcomes-Based Education)

The Outcomes-based Education system is best suited for realizing values of the society in a transformed South African education system. OBE was introduced as a learner-orientated curriculum whereby the learners do most of the work themselves. They are taught skills more than the content and the educator is just a facilitator and learners are hands on.

1.7.9 Ethnicity

In the South African context ethnicity is not merely a descriptive term, it is rather a normative term, and to defend ethnicity as a legitimate manifestation of human experience and awareness has for many become synonymous with defending apartheid (Mesthrie 2002: 429).

According to Heugh (2001:200), ethnicity is regarded by the government's extra-parliamentary critics as a euphemism for racism and a policy not only inimical to black unity but also part of the government's grand apartheid scheme of divide and rule. It is important to discuss the theoretical framework of this study as it is going to form the basis of the research.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

This study proposes to use socio-linguistic, comparative, expectancy and structural approaches. The reason for using these approaches is that they deal with language studies and are much relevant to this study. Comprehensive and detailed information about these approaches will be dealt with in chapter two.

1.9 Research Design and Methodology

A research design is viewed as all issues involved in planning and executing a research project from identifying the problem through to reporting and publishing the result Punch (2009). According to Newman (1994:319), research methodology is a combination of methods used to achieve the research objectives among others, data collection, data analysis and sampling strategy.

This study will use both quantitative and qualitative approaches because it aims at describing or explaining the situation in schools at the Port Elizabeth district with regards to learning of isiXhosa. Qualitative approach tends to use narrative description and present the findings in the form of general statements about the context nature of events Punch (2009).

It is important now to discuss sampling as one of the methods the research would use to choose the participants.

1.9.1 Sampling

This study will use random sampling. Sampling is when a researcher takes any portion of population as a representative of the whole. Bless et al (2006: 100-101), supports this notion when they say, rather than examining the whole group it is possible to reach accurate conclusions by examining only a portion of the total group.

The researcher will use the Port Elizabeth district high schools. Port Elizabeth district is situated in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality which comprises Uitenhage district and Port Elizabeth district. Schools from the Port Elizabeth townships will be chosen. Four high schools were chosen from each of the listed townships below:

- Walmer
- Zwide
- KwaZakhele
- New Brighton
- Motherwell

To be able to do the selection the researcher will make a list of high schools in each township in the Port Elizabeth district, cut the names and put them in a box. Out of the box four schools will be chosen to represent a township for this study. This gives every school an opportunity to be selected. The same method will be used in selecting isiXhosa teachers in the selected schools.

As said earlier a sample is randomly selected when each member of the population has equal chance of being selected into the sample. Masiphathisane High School will be selected as one of the schools in Motherwell reason being the researcher works in that school. It will be an advantage for her for observation. The researcher will use purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is virtually synonymous with qualitative research. The teachers as well as learners will be randomly selected from various schools in the Port Elizabeth district. The reason for selecting this group is that they teach isiXhosa in the area of research. Parents will also be randomly selected to participate in the research.

1.9.2 Participant Observation

The researcher will use participant observation method. In this case Bless et al (2006), say the observer hide the real purpose of his/her presence by becoming participant. The research will record the facts on what prevails in class. Also, participant

observation is regarded most sensibly as a blend of methods and techniques that is characteristically employed in studies of social situations Mannheim (1995).

As the researcher is an isiXhosa educator at Masiphathisane High School in the Port Elizabeth district (Motherwell), has been observing the learners in an isiXhosa classroom for years. This will help the researcher to have a fair and honest familiarity with the respondents through her involvement in the learning process. However, participant observation has its pros and cons, as indicated below.

1.9.2.1 Advantages.

As a research technique, according to McKernan (1996:61), observation has the following advantages;

- Naturalistic enquiry: The study takes place in the 'natural' environment of the participants rather than an artificial or contrived laboratory reconstruction.
- Time sampling: Unlike the survey researcher, the observer can take as much time as is required to gain a representative sample of behavior – ensuring that trends and behaviors are representative. The advantage is that unlikely as well as likely occurrences will probably be sampled.
- Non-verbal behavior: The observer can make notes on non-verbal behavior, like facial and body movement and gestures, which are not available to the sample survey.

1.9.2.2 Disadvantages.

According to McKernan (1996:62), there are however short comings with observation:

- Data difficult to quantify: Unstructured modes of observation rely heavily on description rather than measurement and counting procedures. It is often difficult to impose a coding frame on massive amounts of qualitative data.
- Small size of population observed: The fact that a group or individual is the focus of the observation may permit discussion of results only in relation to the case studied.
- Generalisability: This is related to the above point; since cases studied are small, it is impossible to generalize the results to larger populations.
- Reactivity: With an observer present in site, a reactive effect may be introduced into the setting which distorts behavior and produces unnatural results. That is, with a researcher present, respondents may behave uncharacteristically.

1.9.3 Non – Structured Interviews.

This study will also use non- structured personal interviews with the respondents, who in this case, will be Further Education Training (Grade 8- Grade 12) educators teaching isiXhosa in the Port Elizabeth area schools. These non-structured interviews will be conducted by the researcher, where and whenever it suits the respondents best. These will be employed as they are equal to direct everyday conversation since it is also part of participant observation (Calteaux, 1996).

The aim is to get the different challenges facing them in teaching isiXhosa in the (FET) learners. They will thus be giving their subjective reality that is guided and managed by an interviewer and later integrated into a research report Henning (2002). This

method however, might raise some ethical problems as there is not a way that it can be used without interfering with the speakers. As such , one would be asking questions like, why does one switch from using isiXhosa to using English in the same utterance or vice versa, which might therefore make the participant aware of the interviewer' s motive.

According to Mckernan (1996:128):

An interview has an advantage over the questionnaire, that of allowing the interviewer to probe areas of interest as they arise as the interview is in progress.

He further explains that it should be stressed that in an interview, there are no right or wrong answers.

According to conventions, answers should then be recorded/ written down for further discussions and be kept for reliable record of the event. In the case of this study, interviews were conducted among 50 teachers in the different Further Education Training (FET) schools in the Port Elizabeth district.

1.9.4 Questionnaire

Questionnaires may also be used which may then allow similar questions to be posited to selected participants to allow open – endedness in case they wish to elaborate on their responses. A self -administered questionnaire will then be completed by approximately 50 educators of Further Education Training (Grade 8 – Grade 12) in the Port Elizabeth area teaching isiXhosa.

These questionnaires will consist mostly of open – ended questions and very few close – ended questions. A copy of general questions to be asked in the questionnaire will be attached as appendix A.

1.9.5 Validity and Reliability.

For one to be sure of the validity and authenticity of the data collected, he/she should try and maintain a healthy distance with the participants by trying by all means not to make them aware that they are being investigated.

In that way the participant's response will determine the correctness of the statements they employ. Thus, validity will be ratified.

For assessing reliability, the same phenomenon will be used at different points in time to assess whether it yields the same results.

1.10 Delimitation of the study.

Investigation into this study is limited to the analysis of the challenges facing educators at Further Education Training level (Grade 8 - Grade 12) in teaching isiXhosa with specific reference to the township schools in the Port Elizabeth District.

1.11 Ethical Consideration.

Ethical matters were taken into consideration.

According to McKernan (1996:241), any researcher must take note of the following ethical criteria:

- All those affected by the research study have a right to be informed, consulted and advised about the object of the inquiry.

- The researcher should not proceed unless permission has been obtained from those concerned.
- No individual participant will have unilateral rights to veto the content of any research report.
- All documentary evidence, such as files and correspondence should not be examined without official permission.
- Copyright law should always be strictly observed.
- The researcher is responsible for the confidentiality of the data.
- Researchers are obliged to keep efficient records of the research and make these available to participants and authorities on demand.
- The researcher will be accountable to the school community who impact on the research.
- The researcher has a right to report the research fairly.
- The researcher must make the ethical contractual criteria known to all involved.

1.12 Outline of Chapters

Chapter One, deals with the research problem, the objective of the research, literature review, research methods and the application of findings.

Chapter Two focuses on theoretical approaches to the study.

Chapter Three focuses on the administrative challenges facing FET educators in teaching isiXhosa to Grade 8 – Grade 12 learners studying isiXhosa in the Port Elizabeth area.

These include the:

- School language policy
- Infrastructure
- Qualified isiXhosa educators
- No developing programs for indigenous languages.
- Inadequate training for the changing curriculum e.g. O.B.E

Chapter Four deals with the actual challenges encountered by educators and learners in the study of isiXhosa in the FET level in the Port Elizabeth district

Chapter Five deals with data analysis.

Chapter Six entails the summary, findings and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL APPROACHES

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework of the study. According to Bless et al (2006:13), theory serves as an orientation for gathering of facts since it specifies the types of fact to be systematically observed. What they are trying to say is that a wrong or right sentence is determined by the linguistic theory which provides rules for constructing of a simple sentence. This means a researcher uses a theory to predict the facts.

This study will use sociolinguistic approach, comparative approach, expectancy theory and structural approach. The reason for using them is that they are associated with multilingualism and socio-culture setting like this one of South Africa. These theories also allow studying language from formal and theoretical point of view and focus on language changes that take place over time.

Port Elizabeth District has informal settlement areas that were initially developed for Nguni speaking Africans who came to Port Elizabeth seeking for work. IsiXhosa is the main Nguni language spoken in this area. The Port Elizabeth district has an influx of people from all walks of life and has become multilingual. Loss of language rules is evident.

Inter-linguistic interference is unavoidable in these black townships of this district as they are on the edge of the industrial centre of Port Elizabeth where all ethnic groups like amaXhosa, Sothos, Zulus, Ghanaians, Nigerians, Pakistanis and others with widely different languages live in intimate contact with each other.

As such, in multilingual societies like these, various African languages have tended to become mixed, thus there is a decline in the learning of these African languages with particular reference to isiXhosa. This is in line with what Hoffman (1992), says as he argues that multilingualism comes about when speakers of different languages are brought together within the same political entity.

Though a child from birth uses his or her first language which is referred to as the mother tongue, multilingualism is far more prevalent world wide than monolingualism. A great number of people use more than one language to manage their everyday life than the number of people who manage their lives through the medium of just one language which encourages code – switching/code mixing which is a challenge. The multilingual individual very often acquires more than one language by mixing with people who speak other languages.

Multilingualism is often confused with bilingualism, where bilingualism means two languages from (bi-meaning two + lingua-meaning language). Despite the theoretical discussions concerning the differences, Wei (2000), maintains that these terms are often used interchangeably and can be applied both to individual people and to communities.

Hoffman (1991:126), informs us that:

Bilinguals have a wider and more varied range of experiences than monolinguals, as they have access to two cultures and operate in two different systems. Their need to switch from one code to another has also been seen as beneficial to flexible thinking, as each language may provide the speaker with distinct perspectives.

Let us now firstly explore the sociolinguistic approach to the study.

2.2 Sociolinguistic approach.

The term “sociolinguistics” was coined in the 1950’s to try and bring together the perspectives of linguists and sociologists to bear on the issues concerning the place of language in society, and to address in particular the social contexts of linguistic diversity. According to Stockwell (2007), the discipline of sociolinguistics comprise of three parts i.e.

- All language events consist of a piece of language in social context.
- Every different social context determines that particular form of language.
- The language used in these particular situations determines the nature of that social event.

In summary; a sociolinguistic approach therefore means the study of language in its social context. It presents a critical synthesis of sociolinguistics centering on the study of language variation and change. It views the essential findings of William Labov, Lesley Milroy and James Milroy, David Sankoff and Gillian Sankoff, Peter Trudgill, Walt Walfram and many others focusing on the crucial variables of social stratification, sex and age Chambers (1995:2).

One cannot run away from the facts that, indeed this study falls under the umbrella of sociolinguistics because as Pierre Bourdieu (1984), explains, “every linguistic interaction, however personal and insignificant it may appear, bears the traces of the social structure that it both expresses and helps to produce”.

According to Chambers (1995:2):

A sociolinguistic theory is an implication
that speakers when making a speech act,
whether consciously or subconsciously
choose a variety.

The study of how language varies in social context and how it can be analyzed and accounted for are the key goods of the sociolinguistics. This chapter explores the degree of difference amongst the speakers and how they use language within themselves as differing because of their access to material resources, power and social status. Also, different varieties of language owe their existence to primary group affiliation such as class, region and age. Such reference points heavily shape how one speaks.

The sociolinguistic approach will draw largely in this study and has been explored under the following topics, patterns of language use – language variation and the social variables which affect language use.

Chambers (1995), fully agrees with the above as he maintains that sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society including the cultural norms, expectations, context on the way language is used, and the effects of language use in society. The focus of sociolinguistics being the effect of the society on language.

Furthermore, because the implication of sociolinguistic theory stresses that the speakers choose a variety of languages when making a speech act, whether consciously or subconsciously, one cannot neglect variation in this study. Wylie (1995), echoes this by saying sociolinguistic theory is the critical synthesis of the study of language variation and change.

It is important now to discuss language variation as it forms part of Sociolinguistic theory.

2.2.1 Language variation

For all languages two facts can be stated without exception. Firstly, all living languages change with time. Secondly, the internalized grammars of the speakers of a language are not uniform. From the first statement, that of a language changing with time, a language ceases to change only when it no longer has any speakers.

From the second statement it can be inferred that people from different geographical regions do not produce exactly the same kinds of syntactic and phonetic structures nor do they all have the same vocabulary items. Differences can also be found among people within a single geographical region who are separated from one another because of economics, religious, racial and other factors.

Variability of language can also be said to be systematic, in that it varies in some patterned way. Variable forms of a language which occur systematically can be situational, i.e. the alternation of two or more linguistic forms is attributable to extra-linguistic factors such as scene (setting, type of activity or subject matter) and participants (sex, age, ethnicity and role relationships). Systematic variability may also be a response to contextual variability. In such cases the speaker varies his use of linguistic forms according to linguistic environment.

Hudson (1980:24), says that the term “variety” of a language can be used to refer to:

Different manifestations in just the same way as one might take music as a general phenomenon and then distinguishes different varieties of music.

Crystal (1987:324), refers to language variety as,

Any system of linguistic expression whose
use is governed by situation variables.

Labov (2001)'s, findings were that the social determinants of linguistic variation can be said to be age, class, gender, occupation, geography, race and ethnicity, ideology and politics.

Blom and Gumperz in Fisherman (1992:454), in reflecting on who speaks way language to whom, when, reveals that,

Different language varieties are associated
with different dominations or social
situations, and these reflect the
different types of relationships and
values that exist for the
particular speakers.

Holmes (1992), argues that different domains can be important in the accounting for the language variety that the speaker selects. Also, participants, the setting, the topic are the three important factors in selecting a code or variety.

From the above, one can infer that the term "language variety" means nothing other than a linguistic item which relates to a particular social setting. Patterns of variation have led to the recognition of two main kinds of language varieties: registers and dialects.

One of the most significant and also most complex determinants of linguistic variation as Stockwell (2007), puts it is social class. He further explains the above by saying in most language communities; however, there is hierarchy of wealth and power that is

defined in relation to economics and prestige that can be covered by the term class. To follow is an exploration of the comparative approach.

2.3 Comparative approach.

Comparative approach is one of the approaches that cannot be neglected in this study as it would give guidelines that can then be considered as “flags” that mark the process of doing this research. According to Vos (1987), to compare is a human activity as old as mankind itself. By the way of comparison Eve found the forbidden fruit more attractive and desirable than other fruits in paradise.

A comparative approach as Collier (1993), suggests describes the core subject of comparative enquiry, which discusses the logic of comparative method as a means of a goal, rather than as an in itself. In other words, which instrument fits the research questions to be answered best, by means of what type of research design?

The above statements therefore require the researcher to elaborate in terms of the strategy of the theoretical design on the basis of a goal – oriented point of reference i.e. what exactly is to be explained. A way of accomplishing the above will then be to argue for a more refined concept of language use among the Further Education Training (FET) level learners and society, and develop concepts that are truly comparative which can thus be related to language use in various (FET) learners in the townships of the Port Elizabeth district at large. In addition, a set of values/policies must be developed that direct the research strategy, aiming at explanations rather than complete descriptions of language use by comparing them across systems through time.

According to Landman (2003), a first and vital step in the process of a comparison is to ponder over the relationship between cases under review and the variables employed in the analysis.

In linguistics, as Appleyard (1993:54) puts it:

Comparative method is a technique for studying the development of languages by performing a feature – by – feature comparison of two or more languages with common descent from a shared ancestor, as opposed to the method of internal reconstruction, which analyses the internal development of a single language overtime.

This is in line with what Aldridge Owen (1991), as he suggests that comparative literature does not compare literature in the sense of setting one against the other, it provides a method of broadening one’s perspective in the approach, a way of looking beyond the narrow boundries in order to discern trends and movements in various cultures and to see the relations between literature and other spheres of human activity.

Marie – Antoine Jullien in Lang (1998), who is considered as the “Father” of comparative education believes that the meaning of comparison refers to the act of contrasting the features and methods of education in different countries.

He went so far as to specify concretely an appropriate methodology for comparison where he said it involves the use of standard questionnaires to collect information and arranging the findings onto comprehensive tables so that the differences could be appreciated at a glance. That same methodology will definitely be employed in the process of this study.

Some modern positivists have also claimed that, only through comparison can human behaviour be studied truly scientifically. For Khoi Thanh (1986), “comparative

education is more than a discipline, it is a field of study that covers all the disciplines that serve to understand and explain education”.

This is in line with the opinion of Anderson (1976:62), who believed that:

◆ Comparisons are here to stay,

Comparative education apart from its legitimate goal of knowledge and understanding has been justified on the grounds of its contribution four ends that are considered to be worldwide namely:

- Better understanding
- Educational development, improvement or reform
- Development of knowledge
- Understanding and co – operation.

Most scholars’ claim for comparative education is that it contributes to educational development, improvement or reform Anderson (1961).

By implication, comparative approach is of utmost importance to this study as it is reformative. The ultimate implication of using comparative approach in this study is indeed a reformative intention, not in the sense of reforming someone but more particularly in the sense of challenge to how indigenous language (particularly isiXhosa) is used in our society by the FET learners and to what we take for granted socially and professionally. Let us now look at the expectancy theory as it is also essential to this study.

2.4 Expectancy theory.

The concept of “expectancy” refers to the specific outcomes attained by a person dependent not only on the choices that he makes but also on events which are beyond his/her control. Whenever an individual chooses between alternatives which involve uncertain outcomes, it seems clear that his/her behaviour is affected not only by his preference among these outcomes but also by the degree to which he believes these outcomes to be probable. In aligning with the above, Vroom (1964), suggests that an expectancy is a momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome. He further suggests that expectations though, may be described in terms of their strength, maximum strength is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will be followed by the outcome, while minimal or zero strength is indicated by subjective certainty that the act will not be followed by an outcome.

Expectancy theory was first proposed by Vroom (1964), he suggested that a person will decide to behave or act in a certain way because are motivated to select behaviour over another due to what they expect the result of that selected behaviour will be. In essence the motivation of the behaviour selection is determined by the desirability of the outcome. However, at the core of the theory is the cognitive process of how an individual processes the different motivational elements.

According to Kinicki (2007:246):

The expectancy theory is based on the assumption that people are motivated to behave in ways that produce desired and valued outcomes.

In agreeing with the above, Burgoon (1985:289), proposes that:

Language expectancy theory identifies language as being a “rule governed system” through which individuals develop expectations and preferences for what is considered “appropriate” usage in varying situations. (ibid)

Usually, people use language to conform to social norms, but a person’s intentional or accidental deviation from the expected behaviour can have either a positive or negative reaction.

According to Bowers (1964:416), language expectancy theory is based on several key assumptions i.e.

- People develop both cultural and societal expectations about language behaviour which subsequently affect their acceptance or rejection of persuasive message.
- Receivers have normative expectations about the level of fear arousing appeals, opinionated language and magnitude of language intensity appropriate to persuasive disclosure.
- Credible communication are free to select varied language strategies in developing persuasive messages, while less credible communicators must conform to more limited language options to be effective.
- Receivers have normative expectations about appropriate communication behaviour which are gender – specific.

These propositions give rise to the impact of language intensity that indicates the degree to which the speaker's attitude towards a concept deviates from neutrality or persuasive messages. In essence language expectancy theory explains the effect of the use of different linguistic variations. In any situation one will have expectations about what language will and will not be used for an example a learner whose mother tongue is isiXhosa is expected to speak purely isiXhosa at home and with his or her peers.

When language that is unexpected is used, it is often remembered more possibly because the listener thinks about it more, perhaps to try and understand why it was used. For instance, if a teenage girl has picked up a choice language (e.g. Isicamtho or tsotsitaal) from her peers and has started to use it at home, the parent would find the use of such language as appalling. Let us now look at the structural approach.

2.5 Structural approach

A structure is an independent entity with inner relations denoting a set of interconnected elements such that it depends on the other and can be what it is only because of its relations with other elements Saussure (1996).

The structural linguistic theory as Saumjan (1971), calls it, "is a dynamic theory that distinguishes itself from existing structural theories that are static. The basis of this dynamic theory is the concept of synchrony". Structural linguistics as the basic content is the theory of generative (productive) grammars. The essential feature of language being the network of the relations between sounds and meanings which gives structure to the phonetic and semantic substance.

The structural approach plays an important role in this study as language is a form (structure) and not a substance. It is to this term (structure) that the structural linguistic owe its name. Linguistic refers to the scientific study of language and linguistics to the

science of language, of its structure, acquisition and relationship to other forms of communication Oxford English Dictionary (1976).

The theory of forms is based on the above interpretation as it considers phenomena not simply as the sum of elements which must be isolated, analyzed and split up but connected sets which form independent units characterized by inner relations and obeying their own laws. From this it follows that the properties of each element depend on the structure of the whole and on the laws that govern the whole as in the sentence were:

Sentence - is the largest grammatical unit consisting of phrases and or clauses used to express a statement.

Phrase - group of words forming part of the sentence.

Word - sound or combination of sounds (or printed/written symbols) forming a unit of grammar or vocabulary of a language.

Paul M Levitt (1971), says that structure has to do with the way something is organized i.e. “parts” that constitute an organisation which reflect what a sentence is, in that a sentence is “a set of words expressing a statement, question or an order usually containing a subject, object and a verb”. e.g.

❖ *Umama upheka ukutya (Mother is cooking food)*

Umama – Subject

Upheka – Verb

Ukutya – Object

❖ *Umfundi ubhala incwadi (The learner is writing a letter)*

Umfundi – Subject

Ubhala – Verb

Incwadi – Object

Sentences must conform to the isiXhosa grammatical rules in order for them to be meaningful. The meaning of the sentence depends, to a greater extent, on the order in which words occur in a sentence. The syntactic rules of grammar account for the fact that even if the sequence of words in a sentence can be made up of meaningful words, a sentence can have no meaning.

This gives reason as to why Fromkin and Rodman (1998), believe that knowing a language includes the ability to construct phrases and sentences out of morphemes and words.

A sentence such as – Abantwana banamhlanje abamameli (Children of today don't listen) is not relevant although there is a sequence of words, but a sentence like – Abantwana beli xesha abamameli (Today's children don't listen) is relevant. This therefore means that sentences are not just words; they have structure, word order and meaning. Language has to be used with grammatical accuracy.

Learning a language involves much more than learning the sound patterns, grammatical rules and meaning of one's language, it also involves learning the rules of language use needed to communicating with others Amberg (1987).

2.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, in exploring these theories the researcher is trying to increase the impact of language contact on the present use of the mother tongue (isiXhosa) by the learners in the FET level. The influence of the social context on language usage compliments the functional analysis emphasized in the current core policies for indigenous language. An attempt will therefore be made to show that isiXhosa is a dynamic language especially in this area of Port Elizabeth as it is a dominant language spoken here.

CHAPTER 3

ADMINISTRATIVE AND REGULATORY CHALLENGES IN THE STUDY OF LANGUAGES

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will focus on the administrative and regulatory challenges in the study of languages in South Africa. Each province and municipality has its own language policy in South Africa. The language policy framework of the Eastern Cape schools, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality language policy and programmes of isiXhosa language development and promotion in schools will be discussed. Let us first look at the relevant South African language policies which regulate the use of languages.

3.2 South African Language Policy Framework.

In the previous apartheid government, indigenous languages were discriminated. English and Afrikaans were used as National languages with high standard as opposed to Indigenous languages. It is only after South Africa gained democratic status in the 1994 that the African National Congress sought to reverse that form of discrimination and initiated a multilingual policy which sought to replace the dominance of English and Afrikaans by elevating the status of the other nine indigenous languages.

According to the Constitution of South Africa (1996), Act no: 108:

The state took practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of the historically diminished use of indigenous languages of South African people.

This is in line with the interest of the Language Plan Task Group (1996: 9), which states that:

The state has to facilitate, co-ordinate and initiate strategies the strategies to the promotion and protection of language rights of the citizens of the country, particularly so in South Africa, where the legacy of apartheid has to be broken-down by means of promoting the African languages and other marginalised languages including sign language.

The South African Constitution (1996), Section 6 (3) aligns with the above as it states that:

The provincial government may use any particular official language for the purposes of government and no person should be barred from the use of the language of his or her choice.

These languages that the constitution of South Africa seeks to promote and protect are English, Afrikaans, isiNdebele, Sepedi, Sesotho, siSwati, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, isiXhosa and isiZulu. Apart from the above mentioned official languages, the constitution also recognises other formerly marginalised languages like Khoi, San, Noma and Sign language. The recognition of the above mentioned languages by the constitution of South Africa tries to redress the challenges in the study of isiXhosa in the FET schools and in the society at large.

According to Section 6 (4) of the constitution of South Africa, the national and provincial language policy should provide for the use of at least two of the official languages in the government departments. The main challenge of the above policy being the implementation in that there is a continuing use of the English in the national and provincial government departments which also has an impact on the language use in schools. Because this study is based on the Eastern Cape schools, in the language policy framework of the Eastern Cape has also to be looked at.

3.3 The Eastern Cape Language Policy Framework.

A policy is a plan of action, a statement of aims and ideals especially one made by government, political parties and businesses or companies Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (1995:656).

A language policy therefore is what the government has done through legislation to determine how languages should be used. According to the Department of Arts and Culture (2007), in Made (2010:12):

Language policy is an official decision/degree on the status of various languages spoken in heterogeneous or multilingual communities.

The Language Policy Framework of the Eastern Cape is therefore the plan of action drawn by the Eastern Cape government on how language policy should be implemented in the Eastern Cape schools.

This is based on:

- Language equity
- Multilingualism
- Non-discrimination

- Good governance and
- Monitoring

The Eastern Cape language policy framework adheres to the decision of the National Constitution concerning multilingualism for it promises the equitable use of all the languages used in the Eastern Cape Province. It also promotes the use of the four dominant languages in the province namely English, Afrikaans, isiXhosa and Sesotho as official languages, where isiXhosa is the dominant language according to the linguistic statistics of the province.

Although Section 6 (4) of the South African Constitution requires provincial governments to regulate and monitor the use of official languages, and that all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and be treated equally, Kamwangamalu (2004), believes that language policy and language planning in South Africa, has been used as a form of suppression amongst indigenous languages. Consequently, a shift of indigenous language towards the dominant languages (e.g. English and Afrikaans) is likely to threaten the vitality of the indigenous languages as well as the identities of the speakers of those languages.

This is aligned with what was discovered by de Klerk (2000), and Bowerman (2000), as he suggested that the spread and dominance of English increased significantly among the isiXhosa language speakers in the Eastern Cape due to the influx of foreign migrants to the Eastern Cape particularly Port Elizabeth area. As a national resource, the Eastern Cape provincial language policy framework is expected to facilitate therefore effective administration and contribute to the development of provinces economy, education and cultural diversity.

Its success depends largely on careful language planning and implementation which it lacks. Up to this day, as far as the researcher could remember, the language policy of the Eastern Cape Province is not known to the masses of the Eastern Cape specifically the Port Elizabeth area where the study is focused.

Very little has been done for the people of the province to be made aware of their linguistic rights and to make the document be available to the teachers and learners of the Eastern Cape Province.

This indicates that this is indeed a challenge which needs special attention for the development and promotion of isiXhosa as one of the official languages. Considering now the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality language policy, as Port Elizabeth area is part of it, the following has been gathered:

3.4 Nelson Mandela Bay Municipality Language Policy.

The Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality constitutes the following areas, Port Elizabeth, Uitenhage, Despatch and the surrounding areas. As this study is based in Port Elizabeth, it is of interest to look at the language policy of the municipality as a whole as it constitutes these areas. The dominant languages spoken in this Municipality are isiXhosa, English and Afrikaans.

Before the establishment of the democratic South Africa in 1994, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality formerly known as Port Elizabeth Municipality, Uitenhage Municipality and Despatch also experienced the languages frustration of how recognition of South Africa's linguistic diversity resulting in languages inequality and dominance of English and Afrikaans.

It was until the emergence of democracy in 1994 where things changed and the promotion of official multilingualism. It was in 2004 when the municipal officials were asked by the council to draft a language policy for Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality.

Many challenges confronted them e.g.

- Lack of knowledge
- Scarcity of experts in field
- Lack of resources.

The then Port Elizabeth University currently known as Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University was consulted for help and a task team was established. The team consulted with other stake holders e.g. politicians, media, linguists, legal practitioners and the policy was drafted. Having consulted with all stake holders, the policy for the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality was drafted which was designed to:

- Promote equitable use of official languages in the municipality.
- Redress previous marginalisation of isiXhosa as if it is the dominant official language in the municipality.
- Protect and promote language diversity
- Support, develop and maintain multilingual communication in the municipality.

In drafting the policy, the needs and priorities of the individual citizens of the municipality were considered, aligning with what Somniso (2007), in Made (2010:155), said as he stated that:

The most important things to be considered during the formulation of the policy are the needs and priorities of the individual communities.

A holistic and representative policy had to be the end product of this initiation.

Miti in Gxekwa (2009), maintains that African languages are important because the social, political, and economic developments of the vast majority of the people of South Africa depends on proper and systematic use of their indigenous languages. Moreover, failure or refusal to use African languages in many domains adversely affects the African's human and people's rights in general. These include their right to quality education, to good health, to fair trial, to economic justice, to access to information, to freedom of expression, etc....

The policy makers, therefore, given the linguistically diverse population, were faced with the challenge of promoting indigenous languages as medium of instruction in the Provincial schools. This would help promote the importance of the mother tongue amongst the citizens of the province and the student population at large. Government participants, social groups, student movements and other stakeholders were involved in the drafting of the language policy so that it would be as inclusive as possible.

3.5 Language policy in schools

A school language policy is a document compiled by the staff members of the school, often assisted by other members of the school community to which the staff give their assent and commitment. This policy identifies areas in the school's scope of operations and programme where language problems exist, that need the commonly agreed approach that can be offered by the policy. The policy sets out what a school intends to do about these areas of concern.

According to Sonkwala (1992:10-25):

A pupil's success at school depends inter alia, to a degree on his ability to express his thoughts, impressions and feelings clearly. This he can easily achieve through his or her mother tongue because through it he can understand and be understood.

A child should receive instruction both in and through his mother tongue and his privilege should not be withheld from the African child Kashoki (1993).

The above notion has thus been supported by a number of school language policy researchers; even De Wet (1998), believed that the government's acknowledgement of the people's language rights is in the line with the widely published educational principle considering home language that it is most appropriate for importing skills of reading and writing.

In addition, the LANGTAG document of (1996), states that:

The language-in-education policy should take into account the wishes and the attitudes of the parents, teachers and students, that of using the mother tongue in the education.

In the same vein, the department of Education (2002), advises that:

The learner's home language should be used
for learning and teaching whenever possible,
which is in line with the South Africa constitution
according to language in education policy document.

Although this notion of mother tongue education according to the Bantu Education act reinforced the doctrine of separate provision of education for groups of people with different languages, religion and cultures, according to Malherbe (1977), it is indeed "the will of God".

Although language is a crucial factor in educating in that the learners who receive instructions in their mother tongue, will according to Made (2010), achieve competence in all their fields of learning more effectively the Bantu Education act through mother tongue education motive was behind linguistic nationalism. Black learners according to Oliver (2006), "could only receive mother tongue education/teaching in lower and higher grades only in transition to English and Afrikaans thereafter".

English and Afrikaans were seen as the prestigious languages in the past and this entrenched world view hampers the promotion of indigenous languages in the schools today. Former model C schools' language policy is also a challenge that needs to be discussed in this study as is one that also promotes the disregard of isiXhosa as one of the prestigious indigenous languages in education in the FET level.

3.5.1 Former model C schools' language policy

Former model C schools are those schools that were formerly only for “white” learners in “white” suburbs. The medium of instruction in these schools is both English and Afrikaans. Previously, only “white” learners were accommodated to learn in these schools. Announcements, assemblies, newsletters and all instructions are done both in English and Afrikaans. In the new dispensation, Black learners do attend in these former “White” schools, but provision for using their indigenous languages, with particular reference to isiXhosa, as is the dominant African language in the Port Elizabeth area, is shrouded in controversy. The language policy of the Eastern Cape Province recognises the four languages (English, Afrikaans, isiXhosa and isiZulu) as official languages of the Province. Ironically, school tuition is carried out through the medium of only English and Afrikaans.

The researcher visited quite a number of former model C schools in the area and found out that their language policies commonly state that:

- The main language of instruction is English;
- The first additional language is Afrikaans;
- Second additional language is isiXhosa.

Although former model C schools admit Black children whose mother-tongue is isiXhosa, they learn isiXhosa as a second additional language, which is against what Asmara (2003), said in the conference for African languages and literatures into the 21st century where he emphasised that all African children have the right to attend school and learn in their mother tongues.

This learning through the medium of English, for African learners contribute to their poor performance in school and some learners end to neglect their mother tongue and consider English as the most prestigious language. The notion of non-performance by African learners who learn through the medium of English is re-iterated by Endley (1983:17), when he said that:

The pupil's become passive observers rather than active participants in the teaching – learning process if taught in foreign language.

Van Tonder (1999), aligns with the above as he states that learners learn and develop best when using their main (first) language for learning.

This is also in line with the idea brought forward by the Western Cape department of Education in its language policy (2002), as it maintains that:

Children who are obliged to learn through a language they don't know are in most cases extremely disadvantaged and unable to catch up.

As the researcher is an isiXhosa educator in one of the local schools where isiXhosa is the medium of instruction has found out that those learners in the local schools who are close to those learners in the former model C schools also neglect their mother tongue trying to imitate their friends.

This is a great challenge for it influences a negative attitude towards their mother-tongue thus elevating the status of English. Other challenges that need to be discussed are lack of infrastructure, no proper language policies for the local schools, non-qualified isiXhosa educators, non-development programmes for indigenous languages (particularly isiXhosa) and inadequate training for teachers for the curriculum.

3.5.2 Language Policy in township schools.

The research was conducted in the Port Elizabeth district in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality. IsiXhosa is the dominant language in the area and the local schools are mainly for isiXhosa language learners. This is due to a number of factors namely:

- (i) No proper language policies for the local schools.

The researcher, having visited quite a number of schools locally has found out that local schools don't have any language policies, though the national language policy demands such. Even the former model C schools are still adhering to the old education policy that was designated for a single language to be the main medium of instruction and public schools which could then offer special immersion programmes for children who enter the school system with limited proficiency in that language. That is why even in nowadays only English language is a medium of instruction in the former model C schools, though there are also black students in those schools.

The language policy used in the former model C schools adheres to the old school of the mother tongue education for "Whites" where education was intended to promote "White" interests to ensure that the "White" segment of South Africa's population has access not only to the languages of power, English and Afrikaans, but also to the privileges associated with such Baldauf et. al. (2004).

Makoni (2003), posits that the then educational system provided Blacks with elementary – level literacy, training them only the skills of manual labour in order to instil in them feelings of inferiority.

The constitution of South Africa (1994), spells out that provision for language rights maintains that language policy should make provision for the development and use of indigenous languages so that these can function beyond the traditional domains of home, family and immediate community e.g. education system, media, science and technology.

The fact that there is no language policy in these local schools is evident in the fact that even educators give instructions in the language of their choice. Moreover, in class educators in explaining issues mix or switch codes and learners themselves code – switch and mix languages in responding in class. Notices are written in English despite the fact that the schools are predominantly enrolling isiXhosa language speakers.

There is a tendency of code – switching among learners and teachers in the isiXhosa language lesson. There is no policy that controls the use of language in these local schools.

(ii) Infrastructure

The schools the researcher visited lack proper infrastructure meant solely for isiXhosa language learners. There are no proper ideal resources for language learning. There is a short supply of books, materials, no language laboratories, dictionaries, libraries and specialised technical terminology of isiXhosa. This impedes the proper teaching and learning of isiXhosa thus encouraging code - switching and code – mixing.

Concerning the above, De Klerk (2002:199), says that:

The lack of resources in African languages is one of the factors in determining why schools choose English as a medium of instruction instead of African languages.

Agreeing with the above, Heugh (1999:24), states that:

There can be no equality of education in south Africa until there are enough materials in each of the learning area from grade 1 – 12 in all official languages.

(iii) Non – qualified isiXhosa educators.

According to Crawhall (1994), Elliot et al (1995), offering isiXhosa at secondary phase (FET) has proven problematic, due to the lack of suitably qualified educators, appropriate curriculum and textbooks. Having consulted with the educators who teach isiXhosa in the FET level, educators believe that this is due to the circumstances and characterising African languages as a subject at universities, technikons and tertiary institutions. They believe that there is an attitude towards African languages in the above institutions. This attitude is from the scholars at large, the students, the lecturers and the university or tertiary institutions and the government and private sectors.

There is a big gap between schools, universities and other tertiary institutions. The curriculum in the above institution is career orientated towards isiXhosa. African languages are taught from English approach.

There is also inadequate marketing of African languages within the above institutions. IsiXhosa is not a compulsory subject like English, so this reduces its chances of being taken seriously as a subject at these tertiary institutions and universities.

It is apparent that scholarships for the languages are minimal, as a result very few students major in isiXhosa at tertiary institutions. The researcher has discovered that there is an excessive use and recognition of English as the language of the economy and key to communication across linguistic barriers. Many students drop African languages after first year of study for the sake of credits while some do it for conversational purposes. It has since become common knowledge that no determinable career paths are carved by professionals with this course.

Paradoxically, bursaries are plenty for science and engineering students, which results in a few students specialising in African languages at tertiary level, hence the scarcity of highly qualified isiXhosa educators.

(iv) No developmental programmes for African languages.

It is of utmost importance that African languages be developed and promoted by everyone in South Africa regardless of colour or race. As per the Constitution of South Africa (1996), a commitment has been set for the provision of the rights of children to be educated in their own languages which therefore implies that, if African and other previously disadvantaged languages fail to be developed and promoted, then it will disempower the self worth or identities of the respective language groups thus adversely affecting the implementation of the democratic language policies.

For advocacy, there should be language awareness programmes/campaigns set for African languages in schools and organised by the language departments. The public needs to be re-educated about the importance of African languages in these campaigns for the promotion, improvement and maintenance of African languages, by all citizens of the country especially the African children. Because there are African learners even in former model C schools, it is of importance that African languages should also be taken on first languages level in private and former model C schools. “White” children and communities should also learn African languages.

The schools should organise African languages debates in the schools to enhance the importance of African languages amongst learners and educators. Public speeches should be translated or interpreted in African languages which therefore means at tertiary institutions degree programmes should include translation, terminology and orthography. An initiative of organising programmes like Africa day, reading clubs, awards and Xhosa days at tertiary institutions (universities) and even FET level schools is imperative to promoting and developing African languages.

This will help instil the value of African languages among learners. In addition to this notion of African languages development and enhancement, the Cape Town University’s language plan development programme (2003), supports the above by:

- Initiating writing centres and staff/student consultations in the mother tongue.
- Developing dictionaries/glossaries of course concepts.
- Allowing students to write in the mother tongue where appropriate.
- Providing orientation materials in the mother tongue.

- Encouraging students to use their home languages in class to clarify concepts and ideas.

- Training tutors to be multilingual.

As an initiative to uplift the standard of African languages the department of languages should restructure their programmes and market the use of African languages in the department of education.

There are not sufficient strategies and action plans though, for the implementation of the developmental initiatives like bridging the gaps between the Department of Arts and Culture, Science and Technology (D.A.C.T.S) and the Department of Education (D.O.E). There should be action plans, report backs and network formation bodies that are representative of all departments concerning the programmes for promoting and developing African languages. These programmes should be designed such that they work towards short and long term needs.

The said programme should promote African language practitioners who would be knowledgeable and interested in instilling the necessary enthusiasm in the younger generation of African language practitioners. So far, it is clear that without the development programmes for indigenous African languages in both the public and private sectors, interest in and the development of these languages would remain a pipe dream. Without the increased focus by the current government and educational department in ensuring the development and implementation of African languages as languages of education, further language development is unlikely to become a reality.

(v) Outcomes Based Education (O.B.E)

Outcomes – Based Education was introduced to South African educators in 1996 by the then minister of education, Prof S.M.E Bengu as an alternative the racially divided education system prior to the first democratic election of 1995. This new curriculum was designed to transform the old education system to redress the inequities of the past seeking to promote racial equity in schools, encourage critical thinking learners and promote creative learner – centred education in the classroom. To summarise, the new curriculum would attempt to redress three basic concerns – racial inequities in the education, insufficient preparation of learners for the global workplace and a desegregated non-racial approach to curriculum content.

In 1998, the new curriculum model was implemented in South Africa schools at Grade 1 level and was to be progressively introduced to grade 2 in 1999. This curriculum was seen to be a radical departure from the old curriculum model and has seemed to receive unqualified support from various progressive educationalists because of its potential to transform education Skinner (1998: 39).

The opinion expressed is that the old curriculum had been based on the principles of Christian national education and fundamental pedagogic (R.S.A undated d: 8; Naiker (1999: 74); Taylor & Vinje Volt in the P.E.I report (1999: 132). The new curriculum was designed specifically to eradicate the deficits of the old curriculum as envisaged by the national department of education. These deficits were seen as a content based curriculum, an examination driven promotion system, a heavy reliance on textbooks and syllabus, and a heavy dependence on the teacher as purveyor of knowledge in the classroom. This “old system” was criticized as producing learners and job seekers who were not completely prepared for the work environment (Pretorius 1998: vii – ix, R.S.A 1995 a). The “old system” was also condemned as being too concerned with rote learning, passive learning and too much emphasis was placed on content rather than on competences.

One of the most important characteristics of O.B.E is that it is concerned with establishing the conditions and opportunities within the system that enable and encourage all students to achieve essential outcomes Spady (1994).

Spady (1994), suggests and interprets four basic premises of O.B.E:

- All learners can perform successfully, but not at the same pace,
- Each successful learning experience is a stepping stone to more success,
- Schools are pivotal in creating the conditioning for success at school,
- Educators expect all learners to perform optimally.

However, Jansen (1999 b: 207), states that “many teachers interviewed about O.B.E have not grasped O.B.E in Spadyean terms i.e. the principle of success for all learners or culminating demonstrations”.

Critics of O.B.E were tabulated as follows:

- Teachers would have difficulty in reconciling with the new terminology of O.B.E without extensive in – service training.
- Under resourced classrooms,
- Under staffed schools,
- Under – trained teachers will not allow for easy implementation of O.B.E,

- The technical focus of O.B.E will solve and prevent racism or sexism, or even contribute to developing a critical thinking citizen,
- O.B.E cannot foster creative learning,
- The system of assessment in O.B.E changes only moderately,
- Complex administration procedures in schools will place heavy pressure on teachers and make it impossible to perform successfully, especially in the climate of teacher re – deployment and right – sizing.

In agreeing with the above Christie (1999), cited that O.B.E policy frameworks have to give almost no attention to the context of implementation and how the new version could be put in place in the profoundly unequal school context that apartheid left behind.

She further suggests that the policies are generally lacking in detail and specifically no attempts at strategic planning or analysis of points of engagement to transform what actually exists.

- Lack of intensity and quality of teacher training in O.B.E workshops because people who do the workshops didn't even know the subject, so they couldn't tell/equip the teachers.
- Training session were also not enough.
- On quality of the workshops people who conducted the workshops knew nothing about O.B.E.

- Part of the training strategy by the E.C.D.O.E has been the “cascades model” approach in disseminating information to teachers. This system proved to be highly problematic as it lacked training of “master trainers” and the lack of support at school level to cascade information to other teachers at school level Christie (1999).
- Documents given to teachers were only written in English and educators could not fully understand the documents.

3.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, in a nutshell this chapter explores the impact of the administrative and regulatory challenges in the study of languages. A myriad of programmes were foregrounded including but not limited to, the language policy framework of the Eastern Cape Province, the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality language policy and the language policy for schools. It has since come to the fore that previously in the apartheid government, language policy that was used discriminated against the indigenous languages, a malady which was to be addressed by the national Constitution after South Africa gained independence in 1994. The previously marginalised nine indigenous languages became official.

The Constitution of South Africa (1996), Act 108 speaks to the foregoing in the following terms:

The state took practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of the historically diminished use of indigenous languages of South Africa people.

These languages that the National Constitution seek to promote and protect are none other than isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sesotho, Sepedi, Siswati, Xitsonga, Setswana, isiNdebele, and Tshivenda with of course the inclusion of English and Afrikaans. The language policy framework of the Eastern Cape adheres to the decision of the national constitution concerning multilingualism and it also promotes the use of the four dominant languages in the Province namely English, Afrikaans, isiXhosa and Sesotho where isiXhosa is the dominant language of the Province.

The challenge that the Eastern Cape has is that it lacks careful planning and implementation of its language policy. As far as the researcher could remember, up to the day, the language policy of the Eastern Cape Province is not known to the masses of the Eastern Cape specifically of Port Elizabeth area where the study is focused. It has been discovered that very little has been done for the people of the Province to be made aware of their linguistic rights and to avail the document to the educators and learners of the Eastern Cape.

Concerning the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality language policy, it emerged that due to a number of challenges like, lack of knowledge, Scarcity of experts in the field and lack of resources, the municipality had a problem in drafting its language policy, but with the help of other stakeholders' like politicians, linguists, legal practitioners and others they eventually drafted their language policy that was in line with the national and Provincial language policy.

Concerning the school language policies, it has been discovered that former model C schools' language policy still recognises English and Afrikaans as official languages, though indeed there are learners from the Black township whose mother-tongue is isiXhosa in these schools, which profoundly contributes to poor performance and neglect of their mother tongue. The researcher discovered that, in essence, there is no proper language policy for the township schools against the demands of national education.

This is attributed to the following factors:

- No infrastructure,
- Inadequate training for educators,
- No developmental programmes for isiXhosa,
- Ever changing curriculum, (O.B.E)
- No adequate training of educators.

All the above has thus been found to have contributed to the non – development and promotion of isiXhosa thus resulting in a negative attitude displayed by learners towards their own mother tongue.

The following chapter will investigate the challenges that learners and educators face in the study of isiXhosa in the FET level.

CHAPTER 4

CHALLENGES FACING FET LEARNERS IN THE STUDY OF ISIXHOSA IN THE FET (GRADE 8 – GRADE 12)!

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the challenges facing Further Education Training (FET) educators/learner in the study of isiXhosa. The researcher will use questionnaires to highlight these challenges. These questionnaires give evidence as to the challenges facing educators/learners in the Further Education Training (FET), (Grade 8 – Grade 12) in teaching/learning isiXhosa.

This research is done in the Port Elizabeth district of the Eastern Cape. Port Elizabeth district is an area in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality of the Eastern Cape which is dominated by blacks (amaXhosa) that came from the rural areas to seek work. This district constitutes townships like Motherwell, Walmer, New Brighton, Zwide, kwaZakhele and Northern areas for the coloureds and suburbs for the white people. There is also a great influx of blacks from the African countries like Ghana, Nigeria and Pakistan which resulted into a lot of different languages spoken in this area. Most of the parents in this area are working for whites (Europeans) in town as a result their bosses take their children to learn in town in the former model C schools. This has a great influence on the language used by these learners.

The researcher's respondents are educators; learners' and parents from Motherwell, New Brighton, Zwide, Walmer and Kwazakhele. The researcher teaches isiXhosa to Grade 8 – Grade 12 learners at one of the FET schools in the said area. Two hundred participants from different schools will be used in this research.

Hereunder is the number of schools selected for this research. Four schools are randomly selected from each different township in Port Elizabeth area. The school managers are approached by the researcher, the procedure and purpose of the research fully explained and the anonymity of the respondents is guaranteed. The researcher explains thoroughly to the school managers about the confidentiality of the response of the participants in the research and that they are not forced to take part in the research as it voluntary.

4.2 Number of schools that have contributed in the research

TABLE 1:

Name of township	Number of schools
Walmer	4
Zwide	4
Kwazakhele	4
New Brighton	4
Motherwell	4
Total number	20

The second table indicates the number of participants in each school

TABLE 2:

Name of Township	Number of Schools	Number of participants in each school
Walmer	4	10
Zwide	4	10
KwaZakhele	4	10
New Brighton	4	10
Motherwell	4	10
TOTAL	20	200

4.3 Procedure on the use of the questionnaires.

The researcher approached the educators and school managers of the selected schools. All the procedures of the research are fully explained to the educators/learners and the consequences thereof. Selected schools to take part in the research were handed questionnaires sealed in a box.

These boxes will be dropped off in each school where the research will be conducted, and the questionnaires will be placed in the same boxes after the research has been completed. Participants are then told that the questionnaires are to be answered individually and this process should take two weeks. To follow is an example of the number of questionnaires allocated for each school to take part in the research.

4.3.1 Questionnaires.

The following table shows the number of questionnaires distributed out to the schools for both educators and learners. In the 4 schools selected in each township, 10 questionnaires are distributed to each school, giving a total of 40 questionnaires in each township.

Number of questionnaires distributed out to the different schools. A total of 200 questionnaires are distributed out. Hereunder is the table that clearly shows the above:

Table 3:

Name of township	Number of schools	Number of questionnaires
Walmer	4	40
Zwide	4	40
KwaZakhele	4	40
New Brighton	4	40
Motherwell High	4	40
TOTAL		200

4.3.2 Number of questionnaires that were returned.

After two weeks the researcher went to fetch the questionnaires. Not all questionnaires were returned back due to different reasons explained by the school managers.

To follow are some of the reasons given by the schools managers.

- Not having enough time to answer all the questions.
- Lack of interest among some of the learners/educators.
- Some questionnaires were spoilt.

The following table will explain the above:

Questionnaires returned from different schools?

Table 4:

Name of township	Number of questionnaires distributed.	Number of questionnaires returned.
Zwide	40	35
Walmer	40	30
KwaZakhele	40	32
New Brighton	40	36
Motherwell High	40	35
TOTAL	200	168

The total number of questionnaires that were returned is 168 instead of 200.

Considering the overall number of the questionnaires returned, (though not all the questionnaires were returned), there was a good turn up of the investigation. Most questionnaires were returned, which contributed positively to the research. This could be due to the fact that some learners/educators do not consider positively the use of questionnaires. They still have a negative attitude towards interviews and the use of questionnaires, though this procedure was fully explained to them before the start of the research.

4.4 Structure of the Questionnaires.

The questionnaires were designed such that it could be easy for learners and educators concerned to answer them.

Questionnaire for the educators:

The following table explains the type of questions asked in the questionnaires.

Structure of the questions prepared for educators.

Table 5:

Section A	Section B	Section C	Section D
Background information of the respondent	Challenges experienced by the educators and learners in teaching and learning isiXhosa in the Further Education and Training (FET) level	Hyndrancies experienced by the educators and learners in the use of isiXhosa	Recommendations

4.5 Questionnaires prepared for the Educators.

Questionnaires prepared for the educators seek to answer the following questions:

Section A

- (a) Background of the educator.
- (b) Which language the educator (especially one who is Xhosa by birth) use mostly with colleagues?
- (c) How long has the educator been to the teaching profession?
- (d) What subjects does the teacher teach and for how long?
- (e) At what grades does the educator teach?
- (f) Challenges which the educator encountered difficulties in teaching isiXhosa and levels?
- (g) In which year did the teacher start encountering those challenges?
- (h) Which components of isiXhosa language are of serious concern in impeding the teaching of isiXhosa?
- (i) Does OBE have any influence on the said challenges?
- (j) Are there external factors that contribute to this encounter?
- (k) Does the continuing changing curriculum have any influence on the challenges encountered?
- (l) What recommendations are there as regards the efficacy of isiXhosa in education?

Section B

- (a) Which language does the educator employ during the isiXhosa lesson?
- (b) What is the educator's opinion on isiXhosa as an official language as enshrined by the Constitution of South Africa?
- (c) What is the educator's opinion on the use of isiXhosa language in education?

Section C

- (a) Check the interest of educators in using isiXhosa language in all schools including the former model C schools.
- (b) Advise the department of education to incorporate isiXhosa in all schools' syllabi including the former model C schools.
- (c) Advise the department of education to set question papers in isiXhosa for the Grade 12 examinations in all subjects.
- (d) Advise S.G.B's to appeal to parents to encourage their children to speak isiXhosa at home and beyond.

Section D

- (a) Checking what advice and recommendations do educators have that can encourage the use of isiXhosa language by learners, other educators and parents among themselves, at school and at home.

The same questionnaire will be distributed to all the educators taking part in the investigation in each school. The researcher will explain all that is expected from each of the educators, that no one is forced to take part in the investigation, and that everyone is free to give his or her own views concerning the questions. The researcher will inform the respondents that the questionnaires will be kept for the purposes of writing a report, that nobody's name will be mentioned in the final report.

4.5.1 Analysis of each question in the questionnaire of educators.

In the final analysis, answers from the educators from all the schools involved in the research are explored. The total number of answers explored in the investigation is forty four. To follow is a table that shows exact answers to each question in the questionnaire given to educators.

Section A

Question 1

Qualifications:

Table6:

Qualifications	Institution	Area of specialization	Academic	Professional
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Above average of the educators are qualified as professional teachers and have degrees. Not all of them have done isiXhosa language at University as an area of specialization.

Question 2

Which language is mostly used in your area?

Table 7:

IsiXhosa	Isingesi nesiXhosa	Ezinye iilwimi
70%	20%	10%

These results indicate that isiXhosa language is the mostly used language in their environment probably because the Port Elizabeth district where the study is conducted is in-fact an area that has informal settlement townships for Nguni speaking Africans (mainly Xhosa mother tongue speakers).

Also, it is clear that some people tend to speak English and isiXhosa simultaneously either by code-switching or borrowing because the area is populated by various

people of African descent from countries such as Ghana, Nigeria and Pakistan. Many different languages are spoken in this township and some people use English since they cannot not speak other foreign languages.

Section B

Question 3

Which language do you like best give reasons?

Table 8:

IsiXhosa	English
90%	10%

(i) It is my mother-Tongue language

(ii) Identity

(i) Prestigious language

(ii) World of work

The above explains fully that most educators are proud about their mother-tongue (isiXhosa). They are also aware that for them to be proud of who they are, they need to be proud of their language for it defines them. There are those who feel that English is a prestigious language, while isiXhosa is a language of low status which will not help them in the field. These educators maintain that isiXhosa lacks the necessary vocabulary that would qualify it for use across the curriculum.

Question 4

Which other language other than isiXhosa are you able to speak?

Table 9:

English	Afrikaans	Other / specify
100%	40%	10% - Sesotho 40% - Zulu

The above clearly indicates that all the educators can basically speak English, only a few of them can also speak Afrikaans because some chose not to study Afrikaans at all at school. Very few of them can speak other Nguni languages.

Question 5

Which language do you expect your children to be fluent in?

Table 10:

IsiXhosa	Isingesi	Isibhulu	other/specify
60%	40%	-	-

The above indicates that a number of educators would appreciate it if their children could be more fluent in isiXhosa than in English probably because they have fears of their children losing their identity.

Question 6

Which language would you prefer for your children to be educated in? and please support your statement.

Table 11:

IsiXhosa	English
70%	30%

Support your statement.

Supporting statement	Supporting statement
(a) They can speak it fluently and can understand it better.	(a) To be able to communicate with the outside world
(b) It will be easy for them to master other subjects	(b) because isiXhosa has less vocabulary
(c) Not to lose their identity	(c) For them to be easily employed in the job market (d) Examinations are written in English

This table demonstrates that quite a number of educators do feel that isiXhosa is important for their children so as to have value on who they are (identity) as well as using isiXhosa when setting examinations could also help for their children to understand clearly what is expected from them. Also, some educators feel strongly that English is a better language for education which will help their children at tertiary institutions and in the market world.

Section C

Question 7

What is your home language?

Table 12:

IsiXhosa	English
100%	-

All the educators that took part in the research are indeed amaXhosa. This therefore clearly indicates that also the learners that are to take part in the research are indeed isiXhosa language speakers (amaXhosa).

Question 8

What is your second language?

Table 13:

English	Afrikaans	Any other/specify
100%	-	-

This shows that English is the second language of all who took part in the research, which therefore means that it is English that has a great influence on code mixing which affects both educators and learners alike.

Question 9

Which language or languages are used at home?

Table 14:

IsiXhosa	English	Afrikaans	Any other
80%	20%		

Many of the educators, as parents at home use isiXhosa whenever communicating with their family. This shows pride in their home language isiXhosa, though there is a few that use English at home when communicating with their children.

Question 10

Which languages are mostly used at the school where you are teaching?

Table 15:

IsiXhosa	English	Afrikaans	Other languages
70%	30%	-	-

IsiXhosa is the most used language in the local schools. It is evident that English is also used in local schools maybe because some subjects either than isiXhosa language are taught in English.

Question 11

Do learners show much interest in learning isiXhosa or English at your school?

Table 16:

IsiXhosa	English
40%	60%

Many of the learners don't take pride in their own language; they prefer English than isiXhosa, which is the main issue of concern in this study.

Question 12

Which language do you feel free to use when teaching?

Table 17:

Isixhosa	English	Both English & Xhosa
35%	25%	30%

This clearly indicates that more educators prefer using both languages (isiXhosa and English) when teaching. In some cases, this happens even when they are teaching isiXhosa as a language, which also has an influence on the decline of the use of standard isiXhosa by the learners.

Section D

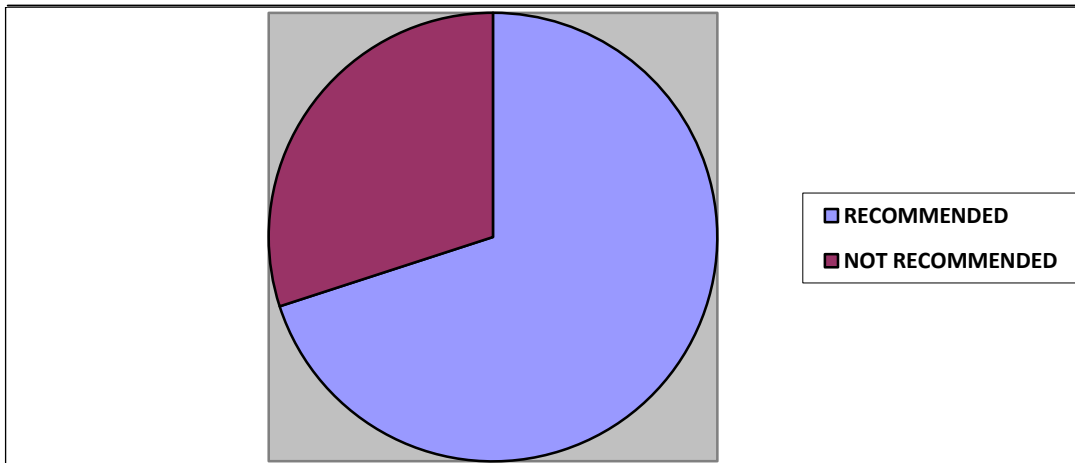
Question 13

Give your own recommendation for using isiXhosa language in education at large.

Table 18:

Recommended	Not recommended
70%	30%

The following diagram fully explains the above.



4.5.2 Summary on views of the educators.

These are the views of the educators:

- IsiXhosa is the widely understood language by the educators as it is their mother-tongue, but they occasionally switch to English at times as the lesson progresses. These educators claim that this is due to the lack of vocabulary of the isiXhosa language.
- Some educators maintain that some of them were not trained in isiXhosa at college.

The majority of educators admit that the use of mother-tongue plays a significant role when teaching any subject as the learners themselves are isiXhosa first language speakers, so for them to understand clearly what is explained to them, educators usually use isiXhosa for explanation.

The above agrees with what Ncoko et.al. says in Lilli Theresa (2003), that code-switching is a valuable resource for multilingual learners that need to be tapped as a strategy for teaching and learning.

In support of the above Myers – Scotton (1993:57), argues that

The choice of language can depend on social goals to be achieved in a particular speech situation.

Carstens (1998), agrees with all the above as he supports the views of the education in saying as well as the majority of teachers admit that the use of the mother tongue plays an important role in teaching of other subjects, they are hesitant to use the mother tongue due to unconditional support of its terminology.

The restricted role for the use of African languages (isiXhosa as regards this research) implies that they lack the status of English.

Sonkwala (1992:129), maintains that:

Learners switch to other languages like English when communicating with other racial groups as they do not understand their mother-tongue. Many of the subjects at school are taught in English, or there is no Xhosa terminology for technical and scientific subjects.

The foregoing scholars agree with the educators that it is difficult to teach in the mother-tongue due to the lack of isiXhosa terminology for technical and scientific subjects.

The (educators) of course are very keen to the idea of using mother-tongue (with particular reference to isiXhosa) in education as that can be of great help for the learners to have a greater understanding of what they are learning.

Singh (2007), agrees with what the Constitution of South Africa (1994), which entails that concerning the use of African languages as an official language in education as he says my choice would be to educate learners through the use of their mother-tongue.

In support to the above, Sonkwala (1992:129), maintains that:

The use of mother-tongue by learners provides them with the sense of security and confidence. Also, using a mother-tongue when learning, learners will fully understand the subject matter.

4.6. Questionnaires prepared for learners.

The researcher again prepared questionnaires for the learners as explained at the beginning of the chapter. The following was explained to the respondents:

- The procedure of the research.
- The scope of the research including the quantitative aspect of the study.
- The aim of the questionnaire will be to gain information about the challenges facing educators/learners studying in isiXhosa at Further Education Training level (Grade 8 – Grade 12) in the Port Elizabeth district.
- That the questionnaire will be kept for the purposes of writing a report, but nobody's name will be used in the final report.
- That no learner is forced to take part in the research.
- About the confidentiality of their response to the questions.
- Their freedom of asking questions and answering them.
- To follow are the general questions that guide the respondents.

Section A

- (a) Background of the learner
 - His/her name
 - His/her date of birth
 - His/her residential address
 - His/her grade
- (b) Language used at home.
- (c) Medium of instruction.

Section B

- (d) Which language do they prefer at school for learning, to teach them and to write examinations?
- (e) What challenges do they encounter when learning isiXhosa?
- (f) Reasons as to why they always mix isiXhosa with English when talking.
- (g) What are their recommendations to the department concerning the use of isiXhosa when learning, across subjects?

Section C

- (h) How do they feel about the inclusion of isiXhosa as an official language in the Constitution of South Africa (1994)?

4.6.1 Analysis of each question in the questionnaire of the learners

Included in this analysis are the answers given by the learners from the different schools. The total number of questionnaires distributed to the different schools is 60.

The following table explains that.

Section A

Question 1

Home language

Table 19:

Isixhosa	Other/specify
100%	0

The above table shows that all the respondents are indeed isiXhosa first language speakers.

Question 2

Which language is used for communication at home?

Table 20:

IsiXhosa	Mix isiXhosa and English	Other / specify
80%	20 %	-

Most of the respondents taking part in the research do speak pure isiXhosa at home, but some mix isiXhosa with English when communicating to each other. The remainder accounts for those who view as a global language that would be ideal at work.

Question 3

Through which language are you taught at school?

Table 21:

IsiXhosa	English	isiXhosa & English	Other/specify
75%	-	25%	-

According to the above table, isiXhosa appears to be the most used language at the different schools, though it appears that some schools use both isiXhosa and English at schools. This is due to the fact that most textbooks used in the school are written in English. IsiXhosa language is the only subject in schools that has isiXhosa textbooks and it is taught accordingly.

Also, according to the department of education, languages that are to be used in the schools are the languages of that particular region (isiXhosa, English, Afrikaans).

Section B

Question 4

Which language do you prefer to use at school?

Table 22:

IsiXhosa	English	Afrikaans	Other/specify
80%	20%	-	-

Many respondents prefer mother-tongue (isiXhosa) as they feel confident in it, although there are those that strongly feel that they should be taught in English, because of its global reach.

Question 5

Do you encounter any problems / challenges in learning your mother-tongue (isiXhosa)?

Table 23:

Yes	No
78%	22%

Many of the learners, as the table indicates, do encounter some challenge in learning isiXhosa probably due to:

- Level of difficulty
- Lack of terminology / vocabulary
- Lack of resource books
- Influence of the media, peers from former model C schools, parents.

Question 6

Should isiXhosa language be used by educators in teaching other subjects at schools?

Table 24:

Yes	No
75%	25%

Fairly a number of the respondents do feel that isiXhosa should be used by educators when teaching other subject reasons being they understand the subject matter better when explained in their mother-tongue.

Section D

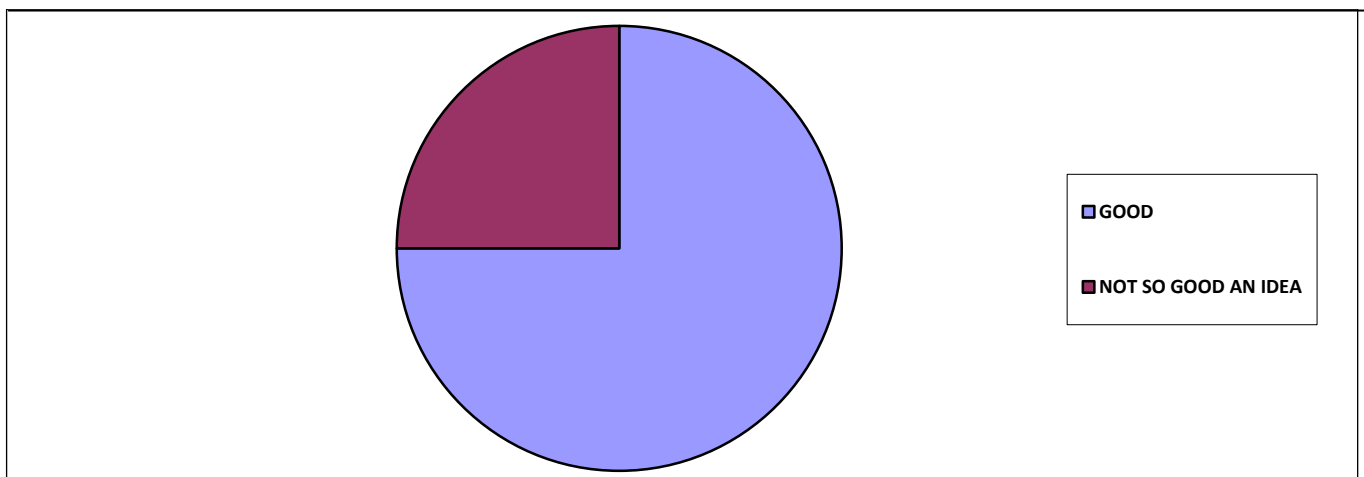
Question 7

How do you feel about the inclusion of isiXhosa as an official language in the Constitution of South Africa?

Table 25:

Good	Not so good an idea
85%	15%

The above clearly indicates that of course many of the respondents do feel strongly that, including isiXhosa as one of the official languages in the constitution is a good idea because it encourages everyone to understand the value of isiXhosa language. The following chart clearly shows the above:



4.6.2 Summary of the views of the learners

The following are the views of learners:

- (a) Learners understand isiXhosa easily because it is their home language, they all belong to the Nguni clan of amaXhosa.
- (b) Many of the learners who participated in the research do speak mostly isiXhosa at home and amongst themselves, though there are some of them who indicated that at home their parents do encourage them to speak English as they claim that English is ideal for employability.
- (c) It is evident that even at school most of the learners use isiXhosa while some of them mix it with English because of the lack of terminology of isiXhosa. Those learners also claim that even their educators code - switch while teaching them.
- (d) Some of the participants felt that isiXhosa could be used as a language of learning in schools for better understanding of subject matter and uplift of the standard of isiXhosa language.
- (e) It is apparent that most learners feel that the mixing of isiXhosa and English amongst them is due to a lot of factors like:
 - Influence of the media.
 - The fact that their areas of abode are multilingual.
 - Influence of the learners from former model C school.
 - Attitude of their parents towards isiXhosa.
 - Lack of specialization by educators.
 - Negative attitude of educators.

Arnet Wikes (1995),’s opinion is that the common tongue used in most Black Township is either a hybrid of Zulu or Xhosa. This is because of the circumstances of township life that compel them to accept and use these hybrid forms.

Nyathi Ramaholo (1991), discovered that when doing an investigation on the decline of Setswana discovered that though Setswana is spoken by about 90% of the population either as a mother-tongue or first language in Botswana, there appeared a decline in the learning of Setswana.

Because learners that participated in the research come from the Port Elizabeth district of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality, in the black townships where there is an influx of blacks from north countries like Ghana, Nigeria and Pakistan; inter-linguistic interface is unavoidable. Various African languages have tended to become mixed thus there is a decline in the learning of isiXhosa amongst amaXhosa children.

Blom and Gumperz in Fisherman (1972:200), reflect that:

Different languages varieties are associated with different denomination or social situations, and these reflect the different types of relationships and values that exist for the particular speakers.

According to Myers – Scotton (1992:166):

The choice of one code rather than the other is driven by a negotiation principle. It symbolizes the set of rights and obligations which the speaker wishes to be in force between the speaker and addressee.

In encouraging the use of mother-tongue which is isiXhosa as far as the research is concerned Sonkwala (1992), maintains that if the mother-tongue can be accepted as an alternative medium of instruction, that would be of great advantage as the learners can speak, read, write and fluently understood it.

UNESCO (United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization) (2006), submits the following:

According to different studies, it has
been shown that children do better
of they get basic education through
their mother-tongue.

According to all the above sociolinguistics, it is apparent that as well as some learners feel that using English is important for the upliftment of their standard, it is important to learn through the use of one's mother-tongue (isiXhosa) as the research is concerned because that contributes to the upliftment of isiXhosa as a language and learning through one's mother-tongue helps the individual in clearly understanding subject matter.

4.7 Conclusion

What transpired from the discussion in this chapter is that there are of course challenges facing educators in teaching isiXhosa to Further Education Training (FET) level learners due to a number of causes:

- Attitude of educators towards isiXhosa language
- Attitude of parents towards isiXhosa language
- Influence of learners from former model C schools
- Influence of the media
- Lack of specialization by educators
- Lack of vocabulary and terminology

However, the Constitution of South Africa (1994) has afforded 11 languages spoken here in South Africa an official status with isiXhosa included, a lot needs to be done to uplift the standard of isiXhosa thus affording it its value. Chapter five will focus on the data analysis of the study.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses data collected through questionnaires in the previous chapter of the research. As well as collecting this data was not a child's play, as the study is sociolinguistic in nature, the researcher consulted the previous work done by sociolinguists on this regard and was helped by consulting the managers of the schools that were to participate in the research. Educators that currently teach isiXhosa in the Further Education Training (FET) level that is Grade 8 – Grade 12 were also consulted.

Learners at this level were also consulted and it was evident that there are really challenges concerning the teaching and learning of the isiXhosa language in the Further Education Training (FET) level that is Grade 8 – Grade 12. This chapter will then try and analyze those challenges that transpired from the discussions and answers to the questionnaires distributed to educators and learners in the different schools in the area of Port Elizabeth district in the Eastern Province.

To follow are a number of influences that transpired from the discussions and the questionnaires which will then be discussed:

- ✓ Migration and Urbanization
- ✓ Attitude of the parents towards isiXhosa language
- ✓ Attitude of the educators towards isiXhosa

- ✓ Influence of learners from former model C schools on isiXhosa language

- ✓ Influence of the media

5.2 Urbanization

To urbanize according to the South African Oxford Secondary School dictionary (2008:965), is “to change a place into a town-like area”. Thus urbanization refers to changing from being a country dweller to living in a town or city.

Hoffman (1994), sees Urbanization as a phenomenon that is related to both migration and industrialization.

Port Elizabeth district, where the study is being conducted is part of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality. It constitutes the following townships, Walmer, Motherwell, New Brighton, kwaZakhele, Zwide and the Northern areas. Initially, these townships constituted people from the rural areas who came to Port Elizabeth to look for work. As it is now, there is an influx of African people from the north countries like Ghana, Nigeria and Pakistan. Many different languages are therefore spoken in this township resulting into multilingualism.

This language contact phenomenon results in the Xhosa’s of this particular area not speaking pure isiXhosa, which aligns with what Thipa (1984), says that “the language of the rural Xhosa speakers is purer than that of urban Xhosa’s due to the multilingual setup of the latter”. This means that because of migration, the language used by the Xhosa speakers in these townships is not purely isiXhosa, there is a code - mixing involved.

The communication system of the Xhosa speakers is therefore affected by language varieties in the area.

5.3 Migration

Migration refers to the movement of people from their own area of abode to another area. People may leave their area in search of employment or may be forcefully removed by the government to an informal settlement. Port Elizabeth, where the study is based, is typical of the above.

Because these townships are informal settlement areas, there is an influx of people from the north countries such as Ghana, Nigeria and Pakistan. Many different languages are spoken in this township which has an influence on the language used by the occupants of the area (amaXhosa). The migration of people from northern countries affects the communication system of the Xhosa speakers in the area. The influence that their different languages have on isiXhosa speakers leads to code switching and code mixing, which is evident in the language that is used by the learners formally in class during lessons and informally amongst themselves.

Migration and Urbanization are directly involved in bringing languages into contact with one another. The results of language contact as explained by the previous researchers results to borrowing, bilingualism, multilingualism and code mixing.

A change in tradition may be observed in the urban areas in that children who have grown up in the townships have become parents and serve as role models to their children in the process of spontaneous language acquisitions Calteaux (1994).

For communication purposes parents speak mixed isiXhosa in their communities and even at home. It is therefore apparent that their children would acquire that form of communication that is mixing isiXhosa with English. When members of a society speak more than one language, code - switching and code mixing in the same conversation is a common phenomenon.

Thipa (1980), maintains that urban Xhosas show a greater tendency to borrow from English when speaking as they are exposed to western influences and experiences. He further argues that the language of the rural Xhosa speaker is purer than that of the urban Xhosas.

This means that in a way, because of migration the language used by xhosa speakers in the Port Elizabeth area is not purely isiXhosa, there is code – switching and code mixing involved. The communication system of the xhosa speakers is affected due to exposure to multiple linguistic interactions.

In agreeing with the above Crystal (1997), suggest that language contact can e seen logistically in the growth of loan words, patterns of phonological and grammatical change, mixed forms of languages and a general increase in bilingualism of various kinds.

To follow are the examples of variations in the lexicon found in urban Xhosas in the Port Elizabeth area as compared to the rural forms.

A person from the urban area (Port Elizabeth) would say:

Urban isiXhosa

English form

Ndiphe *udika*

Give me a fat cake

Bafike *late* eskolweni

They arrived late at school

Beka lo <i>washing</i> (i) phezu ko <i>machine</i> (i)	Put the laundry on top of the washing machine
Andi <i>feel</i> (ishi) kamnandi	I don't feel good
Ayizo <i>intentions</i> (i) zam uku <i>failure</i> (a)	It is not my intentions to fail
Zi <i>right</i> (i) ezi <i>answers</i> zikweli phepha	The answers on this paper are the correct ones
<i>Transfer</i> (ela) ezo mpahla kula <i>drawer</i> (a)	Transfer those clothes to that drawer.

A person from the rural area would simply say in pure isiXhosa:

Ndiphe amafetshu

Bafike kade esikolweni

Beka loo mpahla phezu komatshini

Andiziva kamnandi

Ayizo njongo zam ukungaphumeleli

Zlungile ezimpendulo zikweli phepha

Khuphela loo mpala etyesini.

From the above, one can deduce that the influence that the different languages have on isiXhosa speakers really leads to code – switching and code mixing.

5.4 Attitudes of parents towards isiXhosa language

In many studies of multilingual behavior, the following domain (home) has proved to be a very crucial one. Multilingualism often begins in the family and depends upon it for encouragement or protection.

According to Mesthrie (2003:155):

Patterns of language choice vary according to the speakers social background and the types of interaction in which they engage.

The mother tongue is important as a means of maintaining ethnic identity and in securing certain material advantages, other than that, the people at the top of the socioeconomic scale use English at home with their children to help them “do better at school”. This becomes prevalent in their children who tend mix their mother tongue (isiXhosa) according to the research with English.

The majority of the parents in the township areas in the Port Elizabeth district of the Eastern Cape Province where this study is conducted are mainly domestic workers in the white suburbs in town with little or no education at all. They often communicate with their bosses and the children of their bosses in English, thus giving English language high status.

Some parents go to the extent of taking their own children to their places of work for holidays where they would have to learn to communicate with the children of their parent's bosses. They are therefore forced to learn to speak English so as to be able to communicate with the children of their parent's bosses.

This then encourages these children to speak more English than isiXhosa their own mother-tongue during holidays. This invariably causes these children to identify with the "White" world, thus speaking English even when they are at home with their Black counterparts.

Saville – Troike (1992), maintains that "linguistic features are used by people to identify themselves with others and to mark and maintain different social arenas and divisions".

To follow is an example of the conversation of children who have an English language influence:

Speaker A (was not on holiday)

Speaker B (was on holiday in town)

Speaker A.

Nomsa ubuphi ngePasika?

Spaker B.

Was on holiday girl

Speaker A.

Phi?

Speaker B.

eJeffs

Speaker A.

Ubhamba nabani?

Speaker B.

With my mom

Speaker A.	Bekumnandi ke?
Speaker B.	Of course yes!
Speaker A.	Nibuye nini?
Speaker B.	Sibuye only yesterday
Speaker A.	Xa uphinda uhamba ungandishiyi
Speaker B.	Sho girl.

The above shows that speaker B portrays an English influence.

Extra and Maartens (1998), believe that speakers often abandon their vernacular forms in favor of other prestigious features to share with those varieties which seem prestigious.

Similarly, parents vary greatly in their attitude towards their own language, and it is usually their attitude that determines how committed they are to the idea of instilling learning of their home language in their children. Some of the parents of these informal settlement areas (Port Elizabeth townships) tend to send their children to former model C schools in town because of having the belief that English, which is the medium of instruction in those schools, has a high value than their own language isiXhosa.

Having done that, according to the responses of the respondents in the research, the parents tend to speak English at home with their children or mixing isiXhosa with English because they believe that by doing so they are improving their children's English language which they maintain will help them in the world of work.

To follow is a conversation between mother and child:

Parent: Luyolo *my child*, andizi funi ezi *friends* zakho.

(Luyolo my child, I don't like your friends!)

Luyolo: *Why* mama?

(Why mother)

Parent: *I don't understand why* besoloko belapha *till late*.

(I don't understand why they are always here till very late)

Luyolo: Siyafunda mama.

(We're studying mother)

Parent: *No* maan, mabangahlali *till late! That's very bad*.

(No man, they shouldn't stay till late! That is very bad.)

Luyolo: *Okay* mama ndizobaxelela.

(Alright mother, I will let them know.)

Parent: *Please do, otherwise* ndyabathanda, *they must just go home on time*.

(Please do, otherwise I like them, but they must just go home on time.)

The above conversation clearly indicates how parents mix isiXhosa with English when talking to their children with little or no regard of the damage this does to the mother-tongue.

Richard (2008), says that “if grandparents do not use a language like isiXhosa with their children, when these children are parents themselves ,they will tend to use very little , if at all, with their own children”.

Kieswetter (1995), believes that “parents allow their children at home speak English in preference to their mother tongue to improve their spoken English”. So does Van Tonder (1999), as he maintains that “although research has not been conducted it seems clear that the current trend in the majority of South African schools is that learners as well as their parents favor English as a language of learning and teaching. It is assumed that the reason being that people regard English as a language of empowerment”.

Olivier (2004:6), supports the above notion in saying:

Parents want their children to study in English than in their own languages reason being to ensure a successful financial and social future generation. Parents also believe that the job market demand knowledge of English.

5.5 Attitude of educators towards teaching isiXhosa languages.

According to the response of the educators to questionnaires, different school environments can influence the educators to have different patterns of mixing languages according to particular contexts. This research was conducted in the township schools in the Port Elizabeth district that are greatly informal settlement areas, which were solely meant for Nguni speaking Africans (particularly amaXhosa) who came to Port Elizabeth seeking for work.

IsiXhosa is the main language spoken in this area, when analyzing data, it became apparent that when educators talk to each other as well as when talking to the learners have an overall pattern of code mixing and code – switching where they tend to mix isiXhosa with English. Borrowings, reborrowings and mixes are also part of their conversation style. Sometimes there is a complete switch to English when emphasizing or highlighting a particular point. Isixhosa falls away as the major language because of the superiority attached to speaking English.

Carstens (1998), argues that “although the majority of teachers admit that the use of the mother tongue plays a significant role in the teaching and learning, especially in concept formation and understanding, and express fairly and positive feeling towards mother-tongue teaching and learning, they are hesitant to use mother-tongue due to unconditional support of terminology in the mother-tongue”.

He further says that “the empowerment through English as well as international participations are valued extremely high and that monolingual mother tongue teaching or evaluation might jeopardize the freedom won after apartheid”.

Sonkwala (1992), argues that using mother-tongue in teaching and learning for isiXhosa speaking learners would be disadvantageous in that;

- ✓ They would find it difficult to communicate with other racial groups;
- ✓ Books and reading material for various subjects is unavailable in the mother tongue (isiXhosa).
- ✓ There would be problems with scientifically and technical terminology.

This means that, educator's no longer value teaching and learning in their own language isiXhosa. Though they are teaching in xhosa dominated schools they don't seem to be encouraging learners to learn the indigenous language. This encourages the learners to speak English in class and among themselves. Educators resort to using English when explaining issues in class or giving instruction to the learners though they are themselves amaXhosa.

To follow are some examples of code mixing:

Educator: *Morning class, how are you today?*

Learners: *Morning Sir/Madam, we are well thanking you. How are you Sir/Madam?*

Educator: *Thank you, sit down.*

Educator: *Today sizokufikelwa zi visitors from NMMU, please behave!*
(Today we are excepting visitors from NMMU, please behave)

Learners: *Kulingile ma'am.*
(That's fine ma'am)

Educator: *After break ke, nincede ni assemble(ishe) phaya elibrary*
(After break, please assemble in front of the library)

Please ask as many questions as possible, ningoyiki nivile.
(Please ask as many questions as possible, don't be afraid)

Learners: Kulungile *ma'am*.
(That's fine ma'am.)

Educator: *After that ke, nibuyele eklasini.*
(After that, you can return to class)

Learner: *Sorry ma'am! Are we supposed to bring any stationary xa sisiya phaya elibrary?*
(Sorry ma'am! Are we supposed to bring any stationary when we're going to the library?)

Educator: Ewe sisi. *Bring your writing pads and pencils so that you take notes xa ithetha la visitor.*
(Yes darling. Bring your writing pads and pencils so as to take notes while listening to the visitor.)

The above examples simply demonstrate how the educator de-value the use of isiXhosa language as he/she speaks English while addressing learners that are themselves isiXhosa first language speakers. This then encourages the learners not to speak pure isiXhosa even when they are talking amongst themselves which displays the conscious notion of switching phrases that is displayed by educated people playing with languages.

Some of the reasons that the educators attach to mixing isiXhosa with English in class is that isiXhosa language lacks vocabulary so they use English terms in explaining certain words. To follow are some of the words that lack Xhosa vocabulary as indicated by some educators during the research.

Words that refer to persons:

- ✓ President
- ✓ Boyfriend
- ✓ Engineer
- ✓ Land surveyor
- ✓ Architect
- ✓ Technician
- ✓ Girlfriend

Mechanical words:

- ✓ Carburetor
- ✓ Gear lever
- ✓ Radiator
- ✓ Alternator

Technological words:

- ✓ Internet
- ✓ Fax machine
- ✓ Radio
- ✓ Laboratory
- ✓ Microwave oven
- ✓ Cell phone
- ✓ Computer
- ✓ Photo copier

Some of the concepts below used in everyday life.

- ✓ *Analyze le poem*

(Analyze this poem)

- ✓ *Isituation okuyo ayitsho ukuba uzo kupass(a)*

(Considering your situation, you won't be able to pass)

- ✓ *Nincede niclean(e) iclass namhlanje.*

(Will you please clean the class today?)

- ✓ Beka le *duster* phezu kwetafile.

(Put the duster on top of the table)

- ✓ Kwezi *exams* kuzo qalwa nge *languages*.

(The examinations will start with languages)

- ✓ Zonke iigrade *twelves* kufanele zize esikolweni *on Saturday*.

(All grade twelve learners should come to school on Saturday)

- ✓ Kufuneka ndiye kwi *Workshop* ngomso.

(I am supposed to attend a workshop tomorrow)

From the above, it is apparent that certain words are more relevantly used in another language than the other.

This view is supported by Holmes (1992), as he writes that people may borrow words from other languages to express a concept for which there is no obvious word available in a language they are using. This aligns with what McMahon (1994), says as he explains that one of the motivating factors for the switching of codes is sheer necessity.

Extra and Maartens (1998), agree with the above statements by saying it is thus far easier for members of a group to use a shared “academic” code than attempt to translate the ideas into vernacular by searching for an appropriate expression or coining one just for the sake of using the vernacular.

Educators therefore code mix isiXhosa with English in class in order to keep pace with the technical, social and institutional developments. This maybe caused by the fact that they perceive English to be more prestigious than isiXhosa or, as already been stated, there is no existing reciprocal word in isiXhosa.

According to the research it has also been deduced that not only code mix to fill the lexical gaps in one language, but also code mix even if the information or the message could be conveyed in only one language. The research indicates that intralexical mixing is frequent. It poses a consistent morphological pattern in lexical categories such as nouns, verbs, locatives and adverbs. The mixed morphological structure is achieved through the use of prefixes and suffixes.

Below are examples of such morphemic mixing on nouns, verbs, locatives and adverbs:

◆ Morphemic mixing in nouns:

Ndigalele *i-tea*

(Pour me some tea)

Senbenzisa *i-glue* kweso sihlangu

(Use glue to repair that shoe)

uMama undi thengele *i-underwear* entle.

(My mother bought me beautiful undergarments)

I-ANC ngu mbutho wam

(I support the ANC)

Sebenzisa *i-ruler* xa ukwela umgca

(Use a ruler to draw a line)

Beka i-*duster* phezu kwetafile.
(Put the duster on the table)

Clean(a) i-*blackboard* please.
(Please clean the blackboard)

Sanuku dlala ama-*dice* eclass(ini)
(Don't roll dices in class)

◆ Morphemic mixes in verbs:

N*disolve*(ele) le-sum
(Solve this sum for me)

Be ndini-*watch*(ile) izolo
(I was watching you yesterday)

Aba bantwana ba-*rob*(a) abanye
(These children are robbing the others)

Lo mntwana uya-*complain*(a) qho
(This child is always complaining)

Aba bafundi ba-*corrupt*(a) abanye
(These students are corrupting the others)

uThemba uya-*punish*(wa) ehli nje
(Themba is always being punished)

Ndiya ku-*promise*(a) aku soze *upass*(e) ba awufundi
(I promise you that you will not pass if you don't study)

Le-class iya-*clean*(wa) qho ngo lwesihlanu
(This class is cleaned every Friday)

◆ Morphemic mixes in locatives:

Phumani e-*class*(ini) wam
(Get out of my class)

Nge-*Valedictory* ze kunxitywe i-*uniform*
(During the valedictory please wear your uniforms)

Iyani kwi-*lines* kuzo kuthandazwa
(Go to the lines so that we can pray)

Phaya e-*library* zikhona incwadi
(There are books in the library)

Uthengelwe izi hlangu nge-*birthday* yakhe
(They bought him shoes for his birthday)

Faka imali e-*bank*(ini)
(Deposit money into the bank.)

◆ Morphemic mixes in adverbs of time:

Ngo-eight ngomso nize eclass(ini)

(Come to class at eight tomorrow)

Siza kubhala i-test nge-27 ka-June

(We will be writing a test on the 27th of June)

Isi sikolo sa vulwa ngo-1992

(This school was opened in 1992)

Ngo-quarter past eleven iya phuma i-break

(Break starts at quarter past eleven)

Crawhall (1994), and Elliott et.al. (1995), also cited that teaching isiXhosa language as a subject in the Further Education Training (FET) has proven problematic because of the lack of suitable qualified educators, in-appropriate text books and curriculum.

From the investigation, it is evident that educators, who teach as a subject in the Further Education Training (FET), also mix isiXhosa with English thus de-valuing isiXhosa as a language. This encourages learners to neglect isiXhosa and not attach value in learning the language.

To follow are the teacher's utterances during an isiXhosa lesson:

- ✓ *Today siza kufunda ngo kubhalwa kwe-formal letter*
(Today we will be learning on how you write a letter)

- ✓ *Kufuneka umfundi abhale i-address yakhe kwi-top right side yephepha*
(The learner must write his/her address on the top right-hand side of the paper)

- ✓ Ninga libali uku bhala *i-date*
(Don't forget to write the date)

- ✓ Waku gqiba uku bhala *i-address* yakho *you skip a line*, ubhale *i-address* yale ndawo ubhalela kuyo *on your left side* yephepha
(When you've finished writing your address skip a line, and then write the recipients address on the left hand side of the paper)

- ✓ *You skip a line* ubhale *i-salutation*, waku gqiba ungene emxholweni
(Skip a line and write a greeting, then start with the letter)

- ✓ Isiqu *se-letter* yakho *should be divided into three paragraphs*, *i-introduction*, umongo nesiphelo
(Your letter should be divided into three paragraphs, an introduction, the body and an ending)

- ✓ Unga libali uku bhala igama ne-*surname* yakho ekugqibeleni.
(Don't forget to write your name and surname at the end)

From the above, it is evident that in the whole lesson the teacher mixed isiXhosa which portrays the concern of Gebeda (1975), as he says that most of the isiXhosa teachers at high school find the task of teaching isiXhosa tiring and full of frustrations.

Some of the teachers feel that the syllabus for isiXhosa is demanding and they do not have enough material or resource books concerning teaching isiXhosa. They maintain that even those people responsible for isiXhosa language department at the Department of education (inspectors/EDO's) as far as isiXhosa language is concerned do not supply them with enough resources to assist them in teaching and learning isiXhosa.

Teachers therefore, as supposed to be instrumentals in encouraging factors to have interest and attach value in learning isiXhosa language are unable to do so.

De klerk (2002:199-200), argues that:

If the language curriculum for African languages are not overhauled radically, and are not resourced in terms of the text books, and the material, the gap between wealthy and poor will widen.

This has a great impact on teaching African languages and has a potential of devaluing the use of learning and maintaining African languages with particular reference to isiXhosa. The credibility that African language teachers attach to the language (isiXhosa) itself can help boost the interest of learners in studying their own language isiXhosa thus boosting its maintenance.

This will then be in line with what Batibo (2005), says as he reflects that a language maintains its vitality as the speakers of that language remains stable as they maintain alliance to their own languages.

5.6 Influence of learners from model C schools

Model C schools, according to Kieswetter (1995), “are government schools in traditionally white neighborhood that opted for racial integration”. English is the medium of instruction in these schools, as well as the language spoken at home by the majority of the learners.

Some Black learners who attend these schools live in the backrooms of their mother's bosses in the area, and some commute daily from these surrounding townships to the school. The data within this context reveal that Xhosa learners from Port Elizabeth area who themselves speak isiXhosa as their mother tongue, who attend these former model C schools reveal an overall pattern of code – switching and code mixing. There appears a vast difference between the conversational patterns of learners from the former model C schools and from the surrounding township schools.

Learners from model C schools are also influential in encouraging learners from the local schools where the medium of instruction is isiXhosa to neglect their own mother tongue. According to the investigation, it has been apparent that black African learners (amaXhosa) whose mother tongue is indeed isiXhosa prefer or have a tendency to use English in class, during their leisure time and even at home with their parents who indeed are Xhosas. This worsens when these learners listen to radio or watch television broadcast in languages foreign to them.

Although these learners maintain that they express themselves better in their mother tongue, isiXhosa, they choose to speak English since English is widely considered language of economy, power and advancement. One factor that contributes greatly to that is the fact that many of the learners in the area of Port Elizabeth who are in fact African language speakers (amaXhosa) attend school in former model C schools in city, where the medium of instruction is English. Many of them, as the previous chapters have clearly shown, are encouraged to take their children to the former model C schools in the hope of acquiring better knowledge.

These parents take their children to these former model C schools because they maintain that they should learn English because they believe fluency in English will help them in their children in the world of work. They therefore regard their own language isiXhosa as inferior or useless. These children from the former model C schools mix with the children who attend schools in the township at home and socialize with them.

Their conversation (those that attend school in the city) when talking to those who attend school in the township exhibit an overall pattern of code mixing, code – switching, borrowings and re-borrowings of isiXhosa and English. This therefore results in the influence of this code – switching and code mixing to the learners from the township schools where they also want to identify with their fellow friends from the former model C schools.

To follow is an example of the conversation of the student (Nomsa) from the former model C school, and (Thandi) from the township school.

Thandi: Molo Nomsa kunjani?
(Hello Nomsa! How are you?)

Nomsa: *Hi girl I'm fine* unjani wena?
(Hi girl I'm fine, how are you)

Thandi: Ndi-*alright* nam. Benibhala ntoni sasa namhlanje?
(I'm well thanks. What were you writing today?)

Nomsa: mmmh *English and Biology*.

Thandi: ebenjani wethu ama phepha?
(How were the exam papers?)

Nomsa: *Oh well not so good. Anyway ke I've tried my best.*
(Oh well, not so well. Anyway I've tried my best)

The above examples show how the learners from the former model C schools switch from using isiXhosa to using English when talking to the learners from the township schools.

This expresses the mixed identity of the learners of the former model C schools which is cited by Gxilishe (1992), when he says “that the speech of children who attend multiracial schools is characterized by mixed identity”. Kieswetter (1995), echoes the above by saying “the conversational pattern used by pupils from multiracial schools is used to indicate simultaneous identities”. It functions as a linguistic variety or badge of identity. It is the “in way” of talking.

These learners from the former model C schools are first language isiXhosa speakers (amaXhosa), and are speaking to other isiXhosa first language speakers (amaXhosa) from the township schools, they speak English language instead of speaking their own mother tongue (isiXhosa). Township learners tend to envy them and negate their language to acquire English.

The township learners imitate what their fellow friends from the former model C schools do, that of speaking English amongst themselves at school and during their leisure time. These learners from the township schools forget the fact that those learners from the former model C schools are exposed to spoken English on a daily basis as the majority of the learners there are English first language speakers. English is labeled as the language of intellectuals and achievers hence the high value attached to it. Learners from the former model C schools only use isiXhosa to frame their ethnic identity and group solidarity. They use English for social position, status and level of education.

To follow are examples of phrasal insertions that are frequently used by learners from the former model C schools.

- ✓ Time phrases – last night, yesterday, same day, one day, of late.
- ✓ Question phrases – is it so?, like that?, when?, see that? Is it?, why?, what?, See that?, you see?
- ✓ Discourse makers – of course, sure, because, okay, no problem, anyway, perhaps, maybe, at least, to tell you the truth, I mean,
- ✓ Set expressions – Its not fair, that's true, that's bad, of course not, I don't know,
- ✓ Expressions – Wow!, gosh!, really!, neh!
- ✓ Terms of address – My dear, darling, love, dude, sweet heart, my sweet.

Though the learners from the townships school tend to be influenced by the way the learners from the former model C talk, they exhibit an overall pattern of code mixing but for them isXhosa is a dominant language. English verbs and nouns (content morphemes) are mixed with Xhosa prefixes and suffixes (system morphemes) within a single word as in the following examples:

◆ Noun forms

I-lessons

I-school fees

I-RDP

Ama-boyfriend

I-girlfriend

I-purpose

I-examination

I-subsidy

I-phone

◆ Verbal forms

Undi-*promise*(ile) izolo
(You promised me yesterday)

U-*shout*(e) umntwana
(He/she shouted at the child)

Ndiya-*try*(a) ukulala
(I'm trying to sleep)

Ba-*decide*(e) ukulala
(They decided to sleep)

U-*notice*(e) i-dent
(I noticed a dent)

Ukuyi-understand(a) impilo
(You don't understand your health)

U-pregnant(e) umntwana
(He impregnated that child)

U-miss(ishe) iplane
(He/she missed the plane)

U-drive(e) eshushu
(He drove under the influence of alcohol)

U-plant(e) imbotyi
(He/she planted the seeds)

U-pass(e) i-matric
(He/she passed his/her matric)

U-correspond(e) i-maths
(He/she is a mathematics correspondent)

The above implies that code – switching does occur during their conversations, though it's seldom within those learners from the township schools, to follow are some of the examples extracted from the conversation of the learners from the township schools, *Luvo* and *Luphumlo*.

Luvo: Uyivile i-*choir* namhlanje?
(Did you hear the choir today?)

Luphumlo: Ewe *sonny* icule kamnandi, *but* i-*tenor* ibingavakali.
(Yes sonny they sang beautifully, but the tenors were flat)

Luvo: *No sonny*, ngoku ibisitsho kamnandi kangaka.
(No sonny, I thought they did quite well)

Luphumlo: bekukho i-*discord* maan *here and there*, usiva nje ukuba i-*tenors* zi-*out of tune*.
(There was a discord here and there, but you could hear that the tenors were out of tune)

Luvo: *I think* unento *sonny* ngakwi-*tenors*.
(I think you have an attitude towards the tenors)

Luphumlo: *No sonny its just that yeyona part* ndiyithandayo, *as a result* ndiva nje xa kukho into e-*wrong(o)*.
(No sonny, its just that it's the one part I though roughly enjoy, as a result I can gather if there's is something wrong)

Luvo: *Well!* Azi phakelani ntanga, *lets drop it*.
(Well! lets agree to disagree.)

The above learners justify using English class and in their conversation by indicating that English would stand them in good stead of advancement and employment.

- ✓ For easy understanding and comprehension of many of their subjects as they are written in English.
- ✓ Boost their pass rate as examination papers are written in English, not in isiXhosa.
- ✓ To develop better understanding of the subject jargon.

- ✓ During examinations, they have no choice but to answer questions through the medium in which questions are set i.e. English.
- ✓ In the communicative value of English in a multilingual country like South Africa, particularly their place of abode i.e. Port Elizabeth which is multilingual as has been explained in the previous chapters.

5.7 Sociolinguistic Implications.

In a multilingual country like South Africa, especially the Port Elizabeth district, in the Eastern Cape Province, where diversity is prominent because of the influx of Africans from north countries like Nigeria, Ghana and Pakistan, the choice of language or language use in education has always been a difficult one. This section will sociolinguistically analyse how English is predominantly used in class during teaching and learning by educators and learners.

Further, sociolinguistic implications such as code mixing and code-switching during the inculcation of lone words from English into Xhosa will be discussed to indicate what implications these have on the mother tongue of the learners and educators (isiXhosa). Much has been said about academics about the mixing of English with isiXhosa by educators and learners in teaching and learning and about the desirability of using mother tongue (isiXhosa) as medium of instruction.

Mtuzi in Rhodes (1990), said that “educating African language speakers in an English medium, which is culturally and linguistically foreign, can stiffen educational development”.

Because code – switching and code mixing is prominent in the language use of the educators and learners, a need for further differentiation of the two is desirable. Code – switching has been explained in chapter two; to follow will be a brief explanation of code - mixing.

5.7.1 Code – Mixing.

Code - mixing is relevant to the township learners though at times they do code – switch, but very seldom, and when they do the switch tends to be very short.

Code - mixing according to Bokamba (1988), involves grammatical constituents from both languages used within the same sentence e.g. lexical and phrasal insertions and morphologically mixed utterances. He further says that in lexical and phrasal insertions switches can involve single morphemes, words and phrases in a single sentence. These are small switches which fulfill a lexical need. Such insertions can form part of conversational patterns that include code mixing or code – switching.

Lexical and phrasal include:

- ✓ Discourse markers e.g. anyway, because, but, don't you think, that's why, at least.
- ✓ Adverbial time and place phrases e.g. yesterday, today, at the end of the month, in town.
- ✓ In terms of address e.g. my friend, my dear, sweetie, love.
- ✓ Question forms e.g. what? Why? Where? How? And then? When?
- ✓ Bare forms e.g. altogether, all the way, free, so.

To follow is a conversation of two learners from a township school.

Speaker A: Siza kufikelwa zi-visitors zase NMMU
(We are excepting visitors from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University)

Speaker B: *What time wethu?*
(At what time?)

Speaker A: *andikho-sure ke, maybe ngabo-four*
(I'm not sure, maybe around four)

Speaker B: *Bazo kwenza ntoni?*
(Why are they coming here?)

Speaker A: *Kuthwa baza kusi-teach(a) i-computer*
(They are coming here to teach us about computers)

Speaker B: *Hayi mna ndiza ku-propose(a) bafike Friday*
(I will propose that they come Friday)

Speaker A: *Ngoba kutheni?*
(Why Friday?)

Speaker B: *Kaloku xa zifika namhlanje, it means asizo bana xesha lokuya e-town*
(If they come today, that will mean that we will not be able to go to town)

Speaker A: *I so wish zifike early, so that siphume on time for ukuya e-town*
(I so wish they arrive early, so that we can be able to go to town on time)

Speaker B: *Izibe ke iya bore(a) into yaku ba singakwazi uku-attend(a) izinto zethu ngenxa yezi visitors zivela kwe-institutions.*

(It's really boring, the fact that we can't attend to our problems, because of these visitors that come from these institutions.)

Speaker A: *But ke Sana ziya nceda, who else would do what they are doing.*
(But they are really doing us a favor, who else would do what they are doing?)

Speaker B: *Asizo kubhatala mali?*
(Are we going to be paying for this?)

Speaker A: *Hayi sisi it's free of charge.*
(No girl, it's free of charge.)

The above conversation is in constant agreement with the feature of multilingualism and bilingualism that is prominent in the learners from the township schools in the Port Elizabeth area. From the reasons given by educators and learners in chapter three for employing code – switching and code mixing, what is of importance is the choice medium of communication between speakers and listeners that can result in mutual understanding not the grammaticality of such.

Code - switching and code mixing among learners in the Further Education Training (FET) is a common feature in Xhosa medium schools to such an extent learners struggle to construct a single pure isiXhosa sentence. In the response given by educators, even them when teaching isiXhosa language as a subject, they do not stick to isiXhosa language, they tend to mix isiXhosa and English in their lesson.

When speakers switch from one language to the other in class or in their conversation, there is no rule governed behavior, code – switching helps the speakers to establish a common ground which then results in mutually meaningful communication between the speakers.

Code – switching therefore may appear to be informative between educators and learners and be interpersonal among learners themselves. This aligns with the factors that influence code – switching which are:

- ✓ Social class

- ✓ Sex

- ✓ Age

- ✓ Level of education

Taking into account the classroom situation where teaching is characterized by code-switching, this becomes appropriate for learners and educators for imparting new concepts that lack vocabulary in isiXhosa for better understanding and retention of the language, resulting in the desired level of understanding which results in better examination results and better work performance by learners. Code-switching can be formal and informal. It is formal when speaking to strangers or people of different ethnic group and informal when used with peers.

Switching also depends on the intentions of the speaker, for example when the speaker wants to be recognized where it is then used as a status symbol. The social setting and the topic also plays an important role in code-switching.

All the above are of course mainly for functional grasp of the foreign language for communication and interpersonal purposes not for identity. This switching among the learners in the township schools does happen but seldom and when they do, the switches tend to be relatively short.

5.8 Influence of the media.

Media is a form of technology that is used to communicate information. This refers to different kinds of technology like television, radio and newspapers. Various types of media have an impact on the language use of learners that are isiXhosa first language speakers (concerning the study). These learners frequently read newspaper written in English and are frequently listen to radio or television stations that broadcast in English. The following accounts for this type of behavior:

- ✓ Concerning newspapers, there is a limited choice in isiXhosa newspapers in their area. Those that are available are mainly available once in a week e.g. Ilizwi. Even the news covered by this particular newspaper (Ilizwi) as far as they are concerned is not up to standard.
- ✓ As far as radio and television is concerned, learners prefer to listen to channels that broadcast in English e.g. Radio includes Metro fm, 5 fm, Algoa fm, etc; and Television includes Sabc 3, Mnet, e-tv, etc as to those that broadcast in isiXhosa like Umhlobo wenene. In the Port Elizabeth area for example, there is one fully established radio station that broadcasts in isiXhosa that is Umhlobo wenene, but its programs focus mainly on the older generation neglecting the interest of the youth.
- ✓ Learners believe that there is too much talking in Umhlobo wenene and the music that is played lacks variety, news updates are not up to standard and youth topics are very few. As well Umhlobo wenene is an isiXhosa radio station, very few programs focus on academic development promoting isiXhosa language, and these programs are only broadcast on Tuesdays and Wednesdays whilst learners are at school. It is important therefore for the people concerned with the development of media to do more so as to promote accessibility of more material written in isiXhosa for public reading and public listening.

5.9 Conclusion

In conclusion, the analysis of data according to separate contexts has revealed that the domains within which learners and educators from the Further Education Training (FET) level (Grade 8 – Grade12) interact do in-fact affect their overall conversational patterns. The differences in their school environments that influence these learners result in different patterns of code – switching and code mixing.

Learners who attend school in the township areas of the Port Elizabeth district exhibit an overall pattern of code mixing in their speech patterns. English verbs and nouns (content morphemes) are mixed with isiXhosa prefixes and suffixes (system morphemes) within the same word. Lexical and phrasal insertions are often made in English. The relevant frequency of code – switching is also prominent in these learners.

One explanation could attribute to the fact that Port Elizabeth area is composed of urban townships where these learners interact on a daily basis with other learners who attend school in the former model C schools situated in the city. Also, parents are seen as playing a vital role in encouraging their children to speaking English their reasoning being that English will be of benefit to their children in the job market.

The researcher is of the view that a lot should be done in promoting and developing the use of isiXhosa language amongst the learners, for the maintenance and upliftment of isiXhosa language. Chapter six will concentrate on the summary, findings and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Summary

This chapter is a summary of the key aspects that were discussed in this study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the challenges encountered by the Further Education Training (FET) level educators and learners in the study of isiXhosa from (Grade 8 – Grade 12) in the Port Elizabeth district. This investigation is based solely on research done in the township schools of the Port Elizabeth district in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality in the Eastern Cape Province.

The motivation being that the townships of this district are mostly informal settlement areas that were meant for Blacks who came to Port Elizabeth to seek employment, so isiXhosa is the dominant language spoken, but due to the influx of Blacks from Northern countries like Ghana, Pakistan, Nigeria and others, more languages are spoken here, which resulted in language therefore affecting the overall conversational patterns of these learners and educators.

The differences in the school environments of these learners influence them such that patterns of code – switching and code – mixing are a result. The motivation for this code – switching being a portrayal of the complexity and diversity of the Eastern Cape society particularly Port Elizabeth district.

This perhaps recognises what Khati (1992), says, as he argues that it can be stated categorically that there can be virtually no situation where two or more languages are in intimate contact and code – switching not to occur.

In fact, other than portraying abnormal behaviour, code – switching and code – mixing from these influences is an indicator of multilingual competence.

More factors have of course been discovered as having an influence on this, e.g. influence of former model C schools, media, attitude of the parents/educators, migration, urbanization and the ever changing curriculum. This has also resulted in the negative attitude shown by FET learners towards their own language isiXhosa which results in code – switching and code – mixing.

Quite a number of schools from different townships have been randomly selected to participate in this study. The school managers, teachers and learners of different schools have been informed before hand regarding the investigation. Questionnaires are distributed to the different schools and again collected for data analysis. The role of the education system in handling the issue of the elevation of indigenous languages as per the constitution of South Africa after the achievement of democracy in 1994 is also looked at where challenges in the language policy are looked at.

The vital factor that has been emphasized throughout the study is the influence of English language on isiXhosa language. Other factors are:

- The influence of learners from the former model C schools,
- The influence of media
- The attitude of parents
- Lack of adequate training for educators

- The ever changing curriculum e.g. O.B.E and N.C.S. Nated 2005 now C.A.P.S.

6.2 Findings

There are many factors that the researcher has acquired from the research that seem to be the root cause of the challenges that the study seeks to address. Multilingualism should be encouraged in South Africa where every citizen is free to express him/herself in the first language that is his/her mother tongue language. The status of the previously marginalised languages should be elevated and developed accordingly so that they acquire the necessary sophistication of the developed languages of the world.

To improve the status of isiXhosa language inside and outside the educational environment to promote cultural diversity, which therefore means the government has to opt for the language policy of systematic multilingualism in all schools. That policy will therefore project into the revival of indigenous languages particularly isiXhosa, reforming, standardising and developing it Alexander (1993).

Most learners feel most comfortable when questions are asked in isiXhosa and when answering those questions, using isiXhosa, which helps them in that they answer questions with great confidence. Because of the learner's poor command of English language, some drop out of school prematurely.

Most teachers indicate that it is not because of their code – switching when teaching that the results are poor but that is due to a number of factors including but not limited to the following:

- No infrastructure
- Poor socio – economic background

- Inadequate preparation
- Lack of language developmental programmes
- No adequate language facilities e.g. libraries, language labs and books
- Lack of advocacy programmes.

Concerning whether isiXhosa would be an ideal medium of instruction in the FET level, and would the results of the learners improve? The following might shed some light:

- It would be advantageous because learners can speak, read, write and understand isiXhosa fluently.
- Mother-tongue gives learners a sense of security confidence.
- Syllabus would be completed timeously.
- It will improve pass rate.
- Learners will understand subject matter easily and quickly.
- It encourages full participation of most of the learners in class.
- It encourages uninhibited interaction among learners and educators and learners themselves.
- This will lead to better understanding and efficiency if debates in class can also be administered in isiXhosa.

- With examination papers, if they can be written also in isiXhosa, that would ensure better understanding and better clarity, which will boost/uplift pass rate.
- Allowing educators and encouraging them to use mother tongue in explaining social and natural science's concepts would give rise to elevation of the understanding problem of the learners.

A learner's mother tongue is the best and only aid that can help in explaining foreign concepts. This will help in true understanding of the concept thereby

- Avoiding mechanical rote learning,
- Encouraging or promoting less school dropouts,
- Promoting a healthy and positive attitude towards school,
- Encouraging parents to easily assist their children with homeworks.

In general, language contact is prevalent in the learners of the township schools in the Port Elizabeth districts which portrays that something has to be done to counter the situation. To follow are some of the recommendations that can be of great help.

6.3 Recommendations

This study has proven positively towards the use of mother-tongue (isiXhosa) in education particularly in the schools that are dominated by Black learners. From the investigation gathered, it is clear that schools should have proper language policies to monitor, evaluate and improve the use of indigenous languages.

The School Management Teams (S.M.T) and School Governing Bodies (S.G.B) should therefore see to the implementation of those policies for the enhancement of

those languages. Educators as the vehicles of change should instil the love of indigenous languages in learners thereby promoting their value and importance, which would help FET's adhere to the requirements of the language policies. In this way, proficiency in indigenous languages would be an ideal to be proud rather shunned.

Adequate resources must be provided to schools for the enhancement of teaching of indigenous languages. From the study, it has been clearly stated that infrastructure i.e. libraries, language laboratories and e-learning facilities should be made available. Books and other material should also be made available on time for schools.

Concerning language development programmes, the study reveals that there are limited workshops organised by the Department of Education concerning indigenous languages. There are no workshops for *isigama esitsha* (new terminology) which gives reason as to why some people would think using borrowed words for instance is not permitted.

It is a requirement that language teachers/educators undergo new autography training for them to impart that knowledge to the learners thus enhancing/improving their vocabulary. There is a great need for advocacy programmes to be organised in schools to promote isiXhosa language. IsiXhosa language debates can be held monthly and incentives therefore be given to the best learners to promote the love of the language. The schools can also formulate reading clubs, Xhosa days and other programmes where incentives like awards, bursaries and scholarships could be made available to those learners who wish to further their studies in isiXhosa at tertiary level.

The municipality in collaboration with other stakeholder's e.g. language bodies should encourage the use of three languages as per requirement of the national language policy. This would help in the elevation of the status of the mother-tongue thus encouraging its development and maintenance.

According to Kamwangamalu (1997:366):

For indigenous languages to be competitive with English or Afrikaans in education, they must be “cleansed” of the stigma of inferiority.

This could be achieved when indigenous languages like isiXhosa are used for mutual intelligibility, clarity and understanding among learners. Also, when instructions are given to learners in mother tongue, learners will understand them better, and interpersonal relations will develop among learners and educators. This will alleviate good examination pass rate and will help improve the status of the language (isiXhosa).

Mtuze (1999), argues that “African languages must be relegated of their inferior role in the new South Africa. IsiXhosa should be given prominence and recognition and be used as medium of instruction”. Also, Mdana in Sonkwala (1992), echoes the above in saying “learning becomes easy and meaningful when gained through one’s mother tongue”.

Mother-tongue e.g. (isiXhosa) should be used as a medium of instruction so as to benefit all learners because it will improve their limited understanding and lack of proficiency. Learners can then be assured of success as they would have no problem in understanding and answering the exam question paper, which will boost their pass rate in their schools and in the Port Elizabeth at large. There would also be no gap between family and school life which presently is confusing and creates an artificial world for learners.

Advocating for isiXhosa as an official language or language of instruction is an educational reality if schooling is to be meaningful and effective. This can only be achieved if parents, academics, educators, businessman, community leaders, departmental officials and learners can work together in promoting isiXhosa as a medium of instruction not only in the township schools but also in former model C schools.

The curriculum committees should also work together; produce educational aids that will promote isiXhosa. These aids should help uplift the educational value of isiXhosa as mother tongue instruction and help inexperienced teachers on lesson planning and preparation which at the end would include positive attitude towards the study of isiXhosa language, thereby uplifting its value among learners and the society at large.

6.4 Concluding remarks.

To summarise the key aspects highlighted in this study, Africans have to be proud of their indigenous languages as language is the key symbol of identity. It has been discovered that there is an attitude within the teachers/learners/parents towards African languages. This attitude is based on a number of factors including:

- The colonial marginalisation of language.
- No infrastructure
- Poor socio – economic background
- Inadequate preparation
- Lack of language developmental programmes
- No adequate language facilities e.g. libraries, language labs and books

- Lack of advocacy programmes.
- The influence of learners from the former model C schools,
- The influence of media
- The attitude of parents
- Lack of adequate training for educators
- The ever changing curriculum e.g. O.B.E and N.C.S. Nated 2005 now C.A.P.S.

Based on all the information that has been collected concerning these challenges, strategies need to be introduced and action plans need to be implemented so as to overcome those challenges. There is still a big gap between the school language policies, the Metropolitan language policies, the Provincial language policies and the National language policies. According to the study it is evident that the former model C school's language policy is not in line with the National language policy that reflects that the status of all the indigenous languages should be elevated with particular reference to isiXhosa.

Though isiXhosa is the dominant language in the Port Elizabeth area, the learners/teachers/parents doesn't afford it a high status. There is also nothing done by the government to help in developing these African languages. The challenge is for the language planners to demonstrate that indeed African languages have a vital role to play in the political economy.

Some suggestions by the language practitioners should be relayed to the Department of Education concerning this. Suggestions such as:

- African languages should be started in grade 1 to tertiary institutions just like other languages so that learners would have a fair choice and willingness to take African languages as a speciality course.
- IsiXhosa should be compulsory and be medium of instruction in schools.
- At tertiary institutions subsidies should be provided in the faculty of languages particularly for the indigenous languages (isiXhosa).
- The Department should organise workshops for the constantly changing curriculum.
- Language seminars should be held fortnightly to look at issues like new terminology.
- The Department should provide enough resources for the enhancement and development of African languages.
- The school governing bodies together with all the other stakeholders should help formulate policies that will help instil the value of teaching and learning African languages in schools.

Appendix A

Questions

Section A

1. Background of the educator?

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2. How long have you been in this profession?

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3. What subjects are you teaching? And what grades?

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4. From what year did you start teaching isiXhosa?

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5. Which components of isiXhosa do you consider as of serious concern?

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6. Does O.B.E have any influence on your experiencing these problems?

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7. What are the external factors that you consider having influence on the above challenges?

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8. Which language do you prefer using mostly when talking amongst other educators?

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Section B

1. Which language do you feel free to use whenever talking to the learners during an isiXhosa lesson?

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2. How do you feel about the issue of using isiXhosa as an official language as demanded by the curriculum?

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3. How do you feel about the use of isiXhosa language in education?

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Section C

1. How do the educators in the former model C schools feel about using isiXhosa as medium of instruction?

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2. What do you think can be done by the Department of Education to encourage teaching and learning of isiXhosa in former model C schools?

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3. How can the Department of Education be encouraged when setting examination papers?

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4. How can the parents be encouraged to have an influence on the elevation of the status of isiXhosa amongst themselves and their children?

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Section D

1. What recommendations and advice do you have concerning the use of isiXhosa at home and in education?

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Appendix B

Questions for the learners

Section A

1. Background of the learner?

- His/her name
- Date of birth
- Residential address
- Grade
- Subjects

2. Home language?

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3. Language through which you're taught at school?

.....

Section B

1. Which language do you prefer at school for learning/teaching and writing exams?

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2. What challenges do you encounter when learning isiXhosa?

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3. Give reasons as to why learners always mix isiXhosa with English when talking amongst themselves and in class?

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4. Do you have any recommendations/advices for the department to help in the use of isiXhosa for learning across subjects?

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Section C

1. How do you feel about the inclusion of isiXhosa as an official language in the Constitution of South Africa?

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