

*The attitude of learners towards
language choice:
A case study of Welbedene
Secondary School*

By

Devasagren Madurai Balan

Durban

January 2012

*The attitude of learners towards language choice:
A case study of Welbedene Secondary School*

By

Devasagren Madurai Balan

MEd.; BA (Unizul); BTh. (USA); SPED (TCE); UEDRCM (UDW); Dip.Th. (USA)

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

Doctor Educationis

In the Department of

Educational Psychology and Special Education

Faculty of Education

University of Zululand

Promoter: Prof M S Vos

Durban

January 2012

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis, *The attitude of learners towards language choice: a case study of Welbedene Secondary School* represents my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....

D M BALAN

Durban

January 2012

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to:

- ✓ *My late dad, **David Balan** who was called to Glory on 19 September 2000.*

- ✓ *My beautiful, adorable sister, the late **Cheryl Naidoo** who graduated into the heavenlies on 20 August 2005.*

I thank them both for their inspiration, unflagging support and sound believe in education. They taught me that through knowledge comes wisdom.

I love you and miss you dearly. You will always remain in my heart.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study would not have been a reality had it not been for the indispensable support, guidance and assistance of the following:

1. My Lord Jesus Christ and partners in prayer.
2. Professor M S Vos for her support, encouragement and dedication in critically evaluating my work chapter by chapter, which inspired me to complete this study.
3. My wife, Pamela and my daughters, Taryn Anne and Lauren Abigail for their constant support and encouragement during my research.
4. Mrs Val van Rooyen for typing this thesis.
5. My Editor, Dr M M Spruyt for editing this thesis.
6. My friend, Reginald Kasaval for his assistance, motivation and contribution in various ways.
7. Learners, parents and educators, who despite their heavy commitments, set aside time to respond to the questionnaire.
8. The library staff of UKZN for their assistance in obtaining books and journals required for the research.
9. My friends, Dr Mike Megrove Reddy and Dr Kevin Naidoo for their generous assistance, wherever possible.
10. To all members of my family, mum, dad, brothers and sisters for their constant support and encouragement throughout my academic career.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

	PAGE
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM	2
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	5
1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS	5
1.4.1 Gender issue	6
1.4.2 Attitude	6
1.4.3 Education	6
1.4.4 Educator	6
1.4.5 Communication	7
1.4.6 Learner	8
1.4.7 Language	8
1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY	9
1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH	9
1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF THE STUDY	10
1.8 SUMMARY	10

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE

	PAGE
2.1 INTRODUCTION	11
2.2 LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION POLICY	13
2.2.1 Mother tongue education	13
2.2.2 English as medium of instruction	15
2.2.3 Theory of bilingual education: additive bilingualism	15
2.3 OVERVIEW OF CURRENT LANGUAGE-IN- EDUCATION PRACTICES	19
2.4 COMMUNICATION IN SCHOOL	22
2.4.1 National Department of Education Policy regarding communication in schools	22
2.4.2 Communication in KZN schools	24
2.5 LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH	28
2.6 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED WITH SECOND LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION	31
2.6.1 Reading	32
2.6.2 Writing	32
2.6.3 Speaking	33
2.6.4 Listening	33
2.6.5 Traditional OBE	34
2.6.6 Transitional OBE	34
2.6.7 Transformational OBE	34
2.6.8 The Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS)	35

CHAPTER 2 (continued from previous page)

	PAGE
2.6.9 Assessment	35
2.6.10 Constructivism	36
2.6.11 Syllabus	36
2.6.12 Curriculum	37
2.6.13 Curriculum integration	37
2.6.14 The language, literacy and communication learning area	38
2.7 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON WELBEDENE SECONDARY SCHOOL	38
2.7.1 Recent developments in language policy and its impact at Welbedene Secondary	39
2.8 SUMMARY	40

CHAPTER 3

PLANNING OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

	PAGE
3.1 INTRODUCTION	41
3.2 PREPARATION AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH	41
3.2.1 Permission	41
3.2.2 Selection of respondents	41
3.3 DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH	42
3.3.1 Ethnographic research	42
3.4 QUESTIONNAIRE AS RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	43
3.4.1 Questionnaire design	43
3.4.2 Construction of the questionnaire	44
3.4.3 Characteristics of a good questionnaire	45
3.4.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire	46
3.4.5 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire	49
3.5 INTERVIEW AS RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	53
3.5.1 Advantages	54
3.5.2 Disadvantages	55
3.6 INTERVIEWS	56
3.6.1 Conducting of interviews	56
3.7 SUMMARY	57

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

	PAGE
4.1 INTRODUCTION	58
4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	58
4.3 QUALITATIVE DATA	59
4.4 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION: LEARNERS	60
4.4.1 Gender	60
4.4.2 Age group of respondents	60
4.4.3 Race group of respondents	61
4.4.4 Home language of respondents	61
4.4.5 Language proficiency	62
4.4.6 Language prediction	65
4.4.7 Language preference	66
4.4.8 Language priority	68
4.4.9 Language process	69
4.5 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS	70
4.5.1. Description of the sampled population	71
4.5.2 The school: Welbedene Secondary	71
4.5.3 Educators	72
4.5.4 Biographical information of educators	72
4.5.5 Questions posed to participants and the themes that emerged from collected and analysed data	75
4.6 THEMES OF THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH	76

CHAPTER 4 (continued from previous page)

	PAGE
4.6.1 Problems experienced when teaching multi-ethnic classes	77
4.6.2 Methods to address language problems experienced in class	78
4.6.3 Learner-learner communication is in the 'mother tongue' and educator-learner communication is the language of instruction, viz. English	80
4.6.4 Zulu-speaking learners' participation in lessons are average in comparison with English-speaking learners	83
4.6.5 English first-language learners' support for English as the medium of instruction	87
4.6.6 Zulu-speaking learners' preference for the use of both Zulu and English in the classroom	88
4.6.7 Learners see English as the universal language which would open doors of opportunities for them	91
4.6.8 Educators were not willing to learn any languages other than English	96
4.7 SUMMARY	97

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

	PAGE
5.1 INTRODUCTION	98
5.2 SUMMARY	98
5.2.1 Statement of the problem	98
5.2.2 Literature review	98
5.2.3 Planning of the research	100
5.2.4 Analysis and presentation of the research data	101
5.2.5 Aims of the study	101
5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS	101
5.3.1 A school-based language policy	101
5.3.2 Acknowledging the languages of all learners in a school	103
5.3.3 Implementation of the language policy	104
5.3.4 The development and promotion of the indigenous languages	105
5.3.5 Pre-service and in-service educator training	108
5.4 FURTHER RESEARCH	108
5.5 CRITICISM	109
5.6 FINAL REMARK	109
LIST OF SOURCES	110
ANNEXURES	126

TABLES	PAGE
Table 1	Frequency distribution according to the gender of respondents 60
Table 2	Frequency distribution according to the age of respondents 60
Table 3	Frequency distribution according to the race of respondents 61
Table 4	Frequency distribution according to the home language of respondents 61
Table 5	Frequency distribution according to the language proficiency of learners 62
Table 5.1	Reading 62
Table 5.2	Writing 63
Table 5.3	Speaking 63
Table 5.4	Listening 64
Table 6	Frequency according to languages learners anticipate using in different situations 65
Table 7	Frequency distribution according to learners' preference for Zulu as a subject in the curriculum 66
Table 8.1	Frequency distribution according to learners' choice of languages to be studied as first languages 68
	69
Table 8.2	Frequency distribution according to learners' choice of languages to be studied as second languages

TABLES (Continued from previous page)		PAGE
Table 9	Frequency distribution according to learners' choice of medium of instruction	69
Table 10	Frequency distribution according to gender of respondents (educators)	72
Table 11	Frequency distribution according to age of the respondents (educators)	73
Table 12	Frequency distribution according to the qualifications of the respondents (educators)	73
Table 13	Frequency distribution according to years of completed service of respondents (educators)	74
Table 14	Frequency distribution according to the type of post held by the respondents	74
Table 15	Frequency distribution according to post level of respondents (educators)	75
Table 16	Themes and sub-themes that emerged from the interviews	76

SUMMARY

The aim of this investigation was to determine learners' attitudes towards language choice in secondary school. The focus was on secondary school learners attending schools where the medium of instruction is not in their mother tongue.

An introductory literature review was provided of mother tongue education versus English as medium of instruction. Advocates of mother tongue education argue that a child learns better and quicker through the mother tongue than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium and it is also an important means of identification among the members of the community to which the child belongs. However, black communities are generally opposed to instruction in their home language because they view the indigenous languages as low status languages and as barriers to their upward mobility in a world dominated by English. In the South African society English is associated with prestige as it is in many other countries.

An overview of the current language-in-education practices in South African high schools revealed that depending on which language is taught, as first language either English or Afrikaans is compulsory as a second language. English, as a first language and Afrikaans, which is their third or fourth language, as a second language. The problems experienced with second language instruction were discussed with reference to reading, writing, speaking and listening.

For the purpose of the empirical investigation, a self-structured interview was conducted with the educators. A quantitative descriptive analysis was undertaken of the completed questionnaires and a qualitative analysis of the interviews.

In conclusion a summary of the study and findings emanating from the literature and empirical investigation was presented. Based on these findings the following recommendations were made:

- ✓ A school based language policy should be formulated in accordance with the national language-in-education policy but must also take into consideration the language needs of the learners in the school.
- ✓ Indigenous languages must be developed and promoted by providing financial assistance and/or incentives for literature works and textbooks in the indigenous languages.
- ✓ Educator training should include strategies to teach multilingual classes.

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

According to its Constitution, South Africa is a multilingual country. Besides the eleven officially recognized languages, scores of others – African, European, Asian and more – are spoken here, as the country lies at the crossroads of states in southern Africa.

Mersham and Skinner (2001:22) stipulate that the ability to communicate effectively, together with a broad understanding of theories and technologies of communication, is vital to many careers. Language is a system of communication with other people by the usage of sounds, symbols and words expressing meaning, ideas or thoughts. It can be used in many forms, mainly through oral and written communications as well as employing expressions via body language (Van Schalkwyk, 1982:43). For newcomers to the discipline, formal communication studies can be bewildering: some are too narrowly focused on theory or particular applications of a technology; others are foreign in their content and are unfamiliar to many South African students. The English language is generally understood across the country, being the language of business, politics and the media, but it only ranks joint fifth out of the eleven official languages as a home language (Chick, 2009:31).

Lazarus (1998:2) asserts that the so-called Rainbow Nation's linguistic diversity means all eleven languages have had a profound effect on each other. South African English, for example, is fitted with words and phrases from Afrikaans, isiZulu, Nama and other African languages. English has been influential and a language influenced, in turn, by adaptation in the country's different communities. Estimates based on the 2006 census suggest that some 45% of the population has a speaking knowledge of English. English was declared the official language of the Cape Colony in 1822 (replacing Dutch), and the stated

language policy of the government of the time was one of Anglicization. On the formation of the Union of South Africa in 1910, which united the former Boer republics of the Transvaal and Orange Free State with the Cape and Natal colonies, English was made the official language together with Dutch, which was replaced by Afrikaans in 1925 (Hlatshwayo, 1996:22)

Lazarus (1998:3) further stipulates that currently English is the country's *lingua franca*, and the primary language of government, business, and commerce. It is a compulsory subject in all schools, and the medium of instruction in most schools, and tertiary institutions. As a home language, English is spoken by 10% of the population – one in three of which are not European. South Africa's Asian people, most of whom are Indian in origin, are largely English speaking, although many still retain their languages of origin. There is also a significant group of Chinese South Africans, also predominantly English-speaking but who also preserve their languages of origin (Conner, 2008:1).

The rise of a new democratic South Africa has resulted in many significant changes in schools. A noteworthy change is the desegregation of public schools in South Africa, resulting in multicultural and multi-linguistic school populations. However, language policy in practice has not been developed to cater for the different linguistic groups. English is still being used as the sole medium of learning in most KwaZulu-Natal schools and is taught as a first language, whilst Afrikaans is taught as a second language. According to Luthuli (2003:55) black learners are supposedly achieving higher educational standards by attending previously 'racially exclusive' schools, where English is used as medium of instruction.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

According to Samuels (1995:87) language has always been a contentious issue in education in South Africa, from the drive for mother tongue education to the ever pressing need to be able to use international languages such as English. To be able to understand the language and education situation in South Africa

today it is necessary to look at the historical background of languages in schools and tertiary institutions in the country.

Under the National Language Policy Framework (NLPF) organised in 2003 by the Department of Arts and Culture, higher regard was placed on languages other than those of previous European colonizers. Although the expanded policy ideally should have evened out the racial playing field, it has actually continued the existing racial and economic stratification through the subtleties of language. Before 2003, the language policy in South Africa allowed only for two official languages of instruction. Today English is considered to be the language of upward mobility, and Afrikaans is the language of instruction in many schools, while the mother tongues of much of the population are the indigenous languages of southern Africa (De Kadt, 2008:1).

The NLPF passed this new policy to equalize languages within society. However, one must keep in mind it is not language *per se*, but its power to function as a 'proxy' for wider social issues which fans the flames over public disputes over language (Johnson, 2003:599). For this reason, as per Conner (2008:15) the linguistic differences that led to hardship in this country in some ways parallel similar language issues in the black community of the United States of America. By comparing and contrasting these language issues, it may be possible to realize a common goal, and continue to move forward and address existing linguistic inequalities.

Although it was previously compulsory to study English and Afrikaans it is not the case now. As such, schools can choose any of the eleven official languages they wish to include in the school curriculum. In most cases, the languages that are predominant in the region were supposed to be chosen for study (Alberts, 2008:305).

According to the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1998 (DoE, 1998:37), the governing body of a school is responsible for deciding language policy. This must fall within national and provincial frameworks. The issue of language policy in public schools is closely related to the Bill of Rights in the Constitution,

which gives everyone the right to education in the official language of their choice. The Bill of Rights declares that the State must take into account issues such as equity, practicality and the need to redress.

Conner (2008:7) maintains that one of the main reasons why parents choose to send their children to the more privileged schools is that they would learn the English language. These learners however, come from non-English linguistic backgrounds and have a low proficiency in the language. Educators and first-language learners often marginalize them. Thus far little attempt has been made to address the specific language needs of the Zulu-speaking learners attending the previous House of Delegates schools. These learners are unable to participate actively in classroom discussions and to engage meaningfully with the subject matter. Educators have attempted to accommodate second language learners by going through the work slowly and using simple language to communicate. However, nothing concrete has emerged to make learning more accessible to these learners. Educators and learners collude in maintaining the appearance that learning is taking place by 'one-word' answers, 'chorus' answers and 'rote-learning.' The soaring failure rate bears testimony to the Zulu-speaking pupils' struggle to cope in a learning environment that does not make allowances for language differences. Many factors are, undoubtedly, responsible for this state of affairs, but the medium through which education is imparted, is a major concern.

School Governing Bodies have been invested with the task of formulating the schools' language policy (Zulu, 1999:53). Many schools have multi-lingual populations. Nominating the language that should be the medium of instruction is a difficult task. The policies that are laid out in the language policy documentation need to be exercised and this can only be done if Governing Bodies become knowledgeable in this regard.

Mother tongue education is perceived as preventing the upward mobility of black learners (Kwamangamalu, 2010:1-23). This attitude must be viewed against the backdrop of negative attitudes towards the indigenous languages as a result of the British Education Act of 1953. This Act made mother tongue

education compulsory for the first eight years of black learners, with education in English and Afrikaans both being compulsory school subjects and media of learning (Hartshorne, 1995:16). Parents believe that the aim of the aforesaid British Education Act was to give their children an inferior education, which would reciprocally reduce their opportunities in life. Thus, the mere mention of teaching or maintaining the indigenous language or using them as media of learning conjures up feelings of fear and suspicion of a return to the Bantu Education System. Therefore, parents are not entirely supportive of the indigenous languages whilst English on the other hand, is readily embraced as a language that affords unlimited opportunities (Msimango & Samuel, 2001:33).

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem that will be investigated in this study pertains to the attitude of learners towards language choice in secondary schools. Zulu-speaking learners enrolled in former HoD (House of Delegates) schools experience problems with English as the medium of instruction. In essence the study seeks to find answers to, *inter alia*, the following questions:

- (1) Does the language policy of the school cater for the needs of its learners?
- (2) How does the school assist second language learners?
- (3) What are the main challenges facing second language learners?

1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

In the interest of clarity and understanding, important concepts need to be elucidated.

1.4.1 Gender issue

In this study, all references to any gender automatically imply references to the other gender.

1.4.2 **Attitude**

An attitude may be described as a negative or positive relationship with, or predisposition towards an object, institution or person. This includes emotive, cognitive and behavioural aspects (Plug, Meyer, Louw & Gouws, 1991:146; Le Roux, 1993:5).

1.4.3 **Education**

The word 'education' is derived from the Latin root *educare* which means "to draw forth from within" (Smith, 1993:13). Education is a practice – the educational concern is assisting the learner on his way to responsible adulthood. Education may be defined as the conscious, purposive and normative intervention by an adult (educator) in the life of a learner with the aim of guiding him to independence (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:366).

Education as pedagogic assistance is the positive influencing of a 'not-yet' adult by an adult, with the specific purpose of effecting changes of significant value. Du Toit and Kruger (2008:75) say that education refers to the help and support that the learner receives from an educator with a view of attaining responsible adulthood. According to Davidson (2001:88) education is designed to liberate people, helping them to become critical, creative, free, active and responsible members of society.

1.4.4 **Educator**

An educator is a person who educates, who takes responsibility of leading the child into adulthood (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:73). The primary educators are the parents and the secondary educators are the teachers and other concerned adults. The person who chooses education as

an occupation and a vocation becomes a professional educator (Fraser, Loubser & Van Rooy, 1990:5).

In the school situation, an educator is a scientifically schooled educator practising education on a technical level. Badenhorst (1996:24) says an educator is more than a mere teacher of a subject but seeks to impart to the child qualities that will enable him to reach responsible adulthood successfully.

The Department of Education has given the term 'educator' a legal definition. An educator is any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, at any public school, further education and training institution, departmental office or adult basic education center and who is appointed in a post at any educator establishment (DoE, 1998:1-5).

1.4.5 **Communication**

Life involves communication. From small talks to negotiations, from discourses to symposiums, communication impacts upon every member of the human race. More time is spent in communication than any other human activity. It is therefore central to the development of personalities and professional achievements (Reddy, 2002:11).

According to Steinberg (1999:3), when thinking about communication, one immediately thinks about a conversation between friends, a politician making a persuasive speech, a minister delivering a sermon, or even the exchange of glances between lovers. Other people immediately associate communication with mass media such as newspapers, radio and television. To some, communication brings to mind cellular networks, computers, telephones and satellites.

Communication is also used to describe traffic signals. It can be in coded form, such as Morse code or the sign language of the deaf, uniforms and flags and telephone calls. A child's cry, a mother's kiss, a facial expression, graffiti on the

wall of a public restroom, even silence, are also referred to as communication. It is equally difficult to describe why humans use communication. It is commonly understood that people communicate to establish relationships with others, to express feelings and opinions, to share experiences to work together efficiently, to be entertained, and to persuade others to think as they do.

Williams (1992:10) describes communication as the exchange of meaningful symbols, a process that requires a medium. Communication can be transactional and interactive. Moreover, most human communication has some purpose but in the main, they communicate to satisfy their human needs.

1.4.6 **Learner**

He who is 'not-yet-adult' needs the support and assistance of an adult and through a mutual relationship is brought to responsible adulthood (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:71). A learner is a child or adolescent, a person who needs to be educated. Each learner is unique. The learner cannot actualize his potential unaided, so he is dependent upon the educator for assistance from birth to adulthood. The learner is assisted to experience, to become involved and to attribute meaning to his life-world. A learner is a person who is engaged in learning. A learner is also any individual who receives education or who must receive education, according to the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996:7).

1.4.7 **Language**

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:131) language is a body of words and ways of combining them so that man can express himself verbally and communicate. Language is a powerful ability entrusted to man alone.

Language is defined by Alexander (1999:82) as a system for expression of thoughts, feelings, etc. by the use of spoken sounds or conventional symbols, which is a distinguishing characteristic of man as compared with other animals.

This implies, *inter alia*, in this study, that among human beings language is the primary means of communication, with each language comprising a standard set of symbols, signs / signals for the exchange of messages by means of which the members of a cultural group communicate.

1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY

- ✓ To establish whether the language policy at Welbedene Secondary School is in keeping with recent developments in Language-in-Education policy in South Africa.
- ✓ To investigate how language policy decisions are made at Welbedene Secondary School and whose interests they serve.
- ✓ To establish the provision for Zulu learners at Welbedene Secondary School.
- ✓ To investigate the attitudes of learners and educators towards the English language as compared to the Zulu language.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

Research with regard to this study will be conducted as follows:

- ✓ A literature study of available and relevant literature on the attitude of learners towards language choice in school.
- ✓ An empirical survey comprising a self-structured questionnaire to be completed by learners and a semi-structured interview with educators.

The research methodology will be explained in Chapter 3.

1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 2 will be a literature review on learners' attitudes towards language choice in secondary schools.

Chapter 3 will explain the research method followed in the study.

A presentation and analysis of the research data will be provided in Chapter 4.

Chapter 5 will comprise a summary of the study and certain recommendations.

1.8 SUMMARY

An exposition of the problem, statement of the problem and the aims of the study were given in this chapter. The method of research was briefly explained, certain relevant concepts were elucidated, and the further course of the study was provided.

The next chapter will focus on learners' attitudes towards language choice in secondary schools.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Education should enable people to take root in their culture as well as open them up to other cultures. Africa needs schooling that integrates its languages, history, and social values, according to Alexander (1999:132). The author further states that the need to preserve each person's identity and singularity does not exclude the need for communication and exchange with the rest of the world. If, in every corner of the globe, it is possible to succeed in blending harmoniously a certain quantity of universal knowledge and a certain quantity of indigenous knowledge, this education will enable humans to take root in their local cultures and also to become part of an international culture.

Mesthrie (2002:23) suggests that in order to achieve education that is fairer in Africa, a multilingual education based on the mother language; an education in the African languages of the learner, in partnership with the European and international languages serving today as official languages in the greater majority of African states; an education that builds bridges between early schooling in the formal sector and literacy training for those who are past the age of starting school, must be developed.

According to Mesthrie (2002:154) most African countries continue to endure an unacceptable situation; as soon as they start school, children start learning in a language they do not speak at home. Introducing African languages in the African school systems – as a vector of learning and as a subject of study – is one of the goals of the African Academy of Languages. Mesthrie states that it is expedient to undertake a genuine rehabilitation process for education at continent level, by re-establishing the link between education and culture and by including ethnic languages and history in school curricula. Mesthrie

(2002:155) concludes that this is what is called the re-establishment of the African educational system, characterized by three essential principles; namely:

1. Rebuilding the cultural identity of the learner by taking as a base the simultaneous use of mother tongue and the official language.
2. Linking school to life, by restructuring curricula and promoting professional training, entrepreneurship and educative educational methods.
3. Promoting a dynamic of partnership around and for the benefit of the school, allowing the entire educational community to contribute to a school project in which participants can recognize themselves.

Kwamangamalu (1997:234) argues that taking African languages into account as working languages in all domains of public life must start at school, the best place for building know-how and developing knowledge, before it takes its place in other social spheres. Africa is the only continent in the world where, in most countries, the person on trial within the judicial system does not have access to justice in his mother language, and still has to rely on an interpretation system inherited from the colonial period.

According to Van Tonder (1999:31) the right to choose the language of learning and teaching is vested in the individual. This right has, however, to be exercised within the overall framework of the obligation on the education system to promote multilingualism. This paradigm also presupposes a more fluid relationship between languages and culture than is generally understood in the Eurocentric model inherited in South Africa. It accepts the assumption that there is no contradiction in a multicultural society between a core of common cultural traits, beliefs, practices, etc., and particular sectional or communal cultures. Indeed, the relationship between the two can and should be mutually reinforcing and, if properly managed, should give rise to and sustain genuine respect for the variability of the communities that constitute this emerging nation.

2.2 LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION POLICY

Language-in-Education not only pertains to the teaching of language subjects but also addresses the use of language as a medium of instruction, in school management and in the interaction between school and the public (cf. Annexure 3).

2.2.1 Mother tongue education

Fasold (1984:293) describes a mother tongue as the language which a person acquires in early years and which normally becomes the natural instrument of thought and communication. He further adds that the mother tongue is not necessarily the first language the child speaks, or the language that his parents use because circumstances could have caused him to abandon that language (Fasold, 1984:294).

Blommaert (2006:238) states that it is axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue. Psychologically, it is the system of meaningful signs that in his mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally the child learns quicker through the mother tongue than through an unfamiliar linguistic medium. Black communities are generally opposed to mother tongue instruction because of its association with apartheid's ideology and see the indigenous languages as low status languages and as barriers to their upward mobility.

According to the National Education Policy Investigation Report (NEPI, 1993:29) mother tongue education is seen as a strategy by the government to prevent African upward mobility and ensure a reservoir of cheap labour. Heugh (1995b:43) claims that it is not African languages *per se* which are deficient, but the way they have been used to undermine cognitive development that was the real problem with the previous Bantu Education. It is commonly believed that

the use of African languages during the early years at school resulted in poor performance, which led to a negative attitude towards African languages (Mesthrie, 2002:22).

The implementation of the Bantu Education Act (1953) has contributed to feelings of resistance against mother tongue education; but there may be other factors as well. African languages have been associated with low social, economic and political status in the country while English and Afrikaans have enjoyed high status, thereby encouraging people to develop skills in these 'high status' languages for their advancement (Heugh, 1995b:44).

Slabbert's (1994:5) findings clearly illustrate negative attitudes towards Zulu, one of the country's eleven official languages. She claims that children reject the prescribed reading material and the language it is written in as rural old-fashioned and backward as this quotation illustrates: "We identify an education person with English. Once you see a person reading Zulu you think that person is not educated. The kids are even very embarrassed, shy to read the set book in public, because people will think they are not educated" (Slabbert, 1994:6).

The following sentiment by a teacher in Slabbert's (1994:23) research focus group echoes the general attitude that educators have towards teaching African languages as first language subjects: The teacher suggests that if you can speak the languages, there is no need to learn them and that a person will not get a job with Tswana, so why bother to learn it. Moreover, if it can be spoken then a person can speak it and anyone who can speak the language can teach it. This suggests that the educators in the focus group do not support mother tongue education.

2.2.2 English as medium of instruction

According to Herbert (1992:43) children learn better and more easily if they are instructed in their first language. African children in primary schools should be

taught in their first language. However, as with most of the issues facing African societies, choosing a language to serve as the medium of instruction is not that simple. A host of problems beset African schools, and these require making trade-offs between the best pedagogical methods and what is feasible in practice.

Mesthrie (2002:24) states that it is important to note that there is no single model that will apply to all of South Africa. It would make good sense to teach English as a foreign language even from the time a child starts school. Besides the educational value of learning a second language, this has considerable practical value. The second problem is the vast shortage of teachers who speak the mother tongue languages of the learners. South Africa must place a high priority on allocating resources, including educational resources, to approaches that promote economic development. English is a marketable skill. Workers who are fluent in English have more opportunities than workers who do not.

2.2.3 Theory of bilingual education: additive bilingualism

Bilingual education is a vast field. Milk (1993:91) states that bilingual education refers rather broadly to any educational approach that leads to bilingual outcomes, that is, students who are proficient to some degree in two or more languages.

The South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996:27) clearly stipulates that whichever route is followed, the underlying principle is to maintain home language(s). Hence the department's position that an additive approach to bilingualism is to be seen as the normal orientation of the Language-in-Education policy. Since in South Africa, additive bilingualism is being advocated as a feasible model of language education, it is imperative to examine its merits/demerits. Additive bilingualism involves gaining competence in a second language whilst the first language is maintained. In order for this type of bilingualism to be developed, both languages must have a positive impact on a child's social and cognitive development. Additive bilingualism is

the opposite of subtractive bilingualism. Subtractive bilingualism occurs when a second language is learnt at the expense of the first language.

According to Heugh (1995a:334) to date, no empirical studies have revealed additive bilingualism to result in cognitive disadvantage whereas there is evidence that subtractive bilingual programmes may impair cognitive development.

A comprehensive longitudinal study on bilingual education programmes conducted by Yuen and Ramsey (1991:665) indicate that as the curriculum becomes more cognitive demanding (i.e. from grade four onwards), children in subtractive/transitional programmes tend to fall rapidly behind their peers who are in primary language maintenance programmes. The findings of Yuen and Ramsey (1991:665) are very relevant to this study. Many of the Zulu-speaking pupils who come to Welbedene Secondary School are products of the subtractive education programme in that they learn through the medium of Zulu from grade one to grade four and suddenly, in grade five, English becomes the medium of learning.

Research clearly indicates that this is not a sound educational practice. Cummins (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1982:111) has presented evidence that shows additive bilingualism to be beneficial to children from minority backgrounds. The belief is that there are two aspects of linguistic abilities in bilinguals. The first aspect is called BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills). It refers to aspects of linguistic skills that are used in communication in every day occurrences in informal language and in concrete, cognitively less demanding situations. The second aspect of linguistic ability is referred to as CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). This aspect of language skill involves a sophisticated command of language in cognitively demanding situations.

Lemmer (1995b:90) confirms that educators from a wide range of schools in South Africa who were introduced to the BICS/CALP concepts have accepted Cummins' theory. She explains that educators in desegregated schools report

that learners' performances in admission tests were good. These tests measure surface elements of language such as vocabulary, comprehension and grammar and oral tests which allow for expression in situations that are context-embedded. However, learners' performance in contents subjects indicates that learners lack the subject specific technical vocabulary, reading and writing skills necessary for school success. Cummins (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1982:154) believes that children need five to seven years to acquire CALP in order to give a good account of themselves in academic tasks while the acquisition of BICS takes approximately two years.

Lemmer (1995b:36) mentions the difficulty of acquiring both BICS and CALP simultaneously at school, when at the same time the child has to acquire CALP, which is required for mastery of the upper primary and secondary approach to language learning that appreciates the African languages, which are learned and developed to the levels demanded by CALP.

According to Steyn (1998:129) few attempts have been made to introduce English alongside and in addition to the home languages throughout the schooling process in South Africa. A straight 'for English' policy without maintenance of mother tongue languages would mean that the child would not have the time to develop proficiency in the mother tongue. If the child has not reached sufficient proficiency in the mother tongue before the introduction of English, then as Lemmer (1995a:92) puts it, the child would "suffer the negative effect of semi-lingualism." This means that the child would be functionally illiterate in both languages. It is clear that the past language-in-education policies have resulted in subtractive bilingualism, especially for African learners.

If language development in the first language is to be sustained and if the context for learning it is to be broadened, then Lockett (1995:22) suggests that for African learners, the African languages should be taught both as subjects and media of instruction at least throughout primary schooling. She adds that some subjects should continue to be taught in the African languages throughout secondary school as well. Alternatively, using both languages in the same lesson could ensure that learners study the subject matter in their first

language at the highest intellectual level and at the same time increase their learning of English.

According to Alexander (1999:22) not only will genuinely bilingual education offer greater language learning opportunities, but also the greater use of the African languages as media of instruction will go a long way towards ensuring their familiarity and interaction within international society.

Webb (2002:22) states that it would seem that additive bilingualism may be a viable option for minority and marginalized groups and therefore should be seriously considered as a model of education in South Africa. Furthermore, additive bilingualism will enhance the value of African languages, which is necessary if South Africa is committed to promoting multilingualism. However, additive bilingualism comes with its own problems. For example, additive bilingualism may not be practicable due to the linguistic diversity in certain areas. There is also the cost factor with regards to human and material resources. Furthermore, people may be resistant to maintaining the mother tongue and learning the medium of the mother tongue because of the low status of the indigenous languages compared to the high status of English.

In the section that follows an overview of past and present language-in-education policies in South Africa will be addressed. The aim of the overview is to show that these policies have not been receptive to additive bilingualism. The focus of discussion will be on the current language-in-education practices.

2.3 OVERVIEW OF CURRENT LANGUAGE-IN-EDUCATION PRACTICES

Schools in South Africa were racially segregated and administered by separate education departments until the democratic change in 1994. In the former so-called white, Indian and coloured schools, the mother tongue which is either English or Afrikaans, is taught as a first language.

Depending on which language is taught as a first language, either Afrikaans (Second Language) or English (Second Language) is taught as a compulsory

school subject until grade 12. There is a significant difference between a language studied as 'first language' and one studied as 'second language'.

According to Beukes (2005:23) a language studied as a first language is normally more difficult and is studied in greater detail than a language studied as a second language. This is the case because most often, a language studied as a first language is one's mother tongue and therefore one is expected to understand the language on a more complex level than one's second language. For white, Indian and coloured learners the language they study as a first language is usually their mother tongue and the one they study as the second language is usually their second language. However, this is not the case for African learners whose mother tongue in most cases is an African language, which is generally not offered for study in the new integrated schools.

Alberts (2008:303) states that African learners study their second language (English) as a first language and Afrikaans (their third or fourth language) as a second language. They are clearly disadvantaged compared to learners of other population groups.

Ormon (2008:201) interposes that although school populations are linguistically and culturally diverse school desegregation has not impacted on the schools' language policy and either English or Afrikaans remains the medium of instruction for all learners in multicultural schools. The linguistic repertoires, i.e. the total number of languages that the learners or educators speak do not match. So there is a distance between pupils themselves and between the educator and learners because of communication barriers. Integration has in many instances been problematic and there have not been concrete efforts to remedy the situation.

In former black schools (ex-DET), the mother tongue is supposedly used as the medium of instruction in the first four years and from the fifth year English is used as the sole medium of learning. Only one language of instruction is imposed when 'learners do not have cognitive and academic language proficiency necessary for such a drastic change.' (cf. Annexure 4)

MacDonald and Burrows (Heugh, 1995b:43) say that at the end of standard two the learners may know up to 800 words in English but they require 5000 words in English for the standard three syllabus. The cognitively improvised curriculum of the early years poses a difficulty for learners to cope with the demands of the curriculum of standard 3 and beyond. Moreover, the policy of using English as the medium of instruction from the fifth year of schooling is still being practiced in many ex-DET schools although it has proven to be disadvantageous to the learner. Recently, however, many schools are opting for a straight-English-policy although the teaching of English in ex-DET schools is not of the same standard as ex-model C schools and may be debilitating to learners.

According to Webb (1996:141) it is because of the stigmatization of mother tongue education that many formerly 'black' schools have opted for English as the medium of instruction from the first day of schooling. This has happened regardless of the fact that a large number of educators are not competent enough in English and the learners (especially those in rural areas) have a weaker knowledge in English and in many areas English is only heard in the school classrooms.

Although South Africans now have many options in many schools the *status quo* has remained. This begs the question as to why the new constitution is not being fully implemented. Heugh (1995b:48) provides the following reasons:

The models of education used in ex-DET schools are subtractive/transitional and changing this requires a 'fundamental reorientation of education policy and practice'.

Most educators in ex-DET schools are not aware of the relationship between language-in-education policy and inequality and subtractive/ transactional bilingualism and educational failure internationally. Two major educational initiatives (the Herd's Threshold Report and the NEPI report on language) have

been promoted to a type of subtractive/transactional bilingualism. In fact both of them opt for a gradual transition to English (Chetty, 1997:38).

The National Coordinating Committee (NECC, 1992:67) made a strong argument for additive bilingualism but the methodological approach for implementation was incompatible. In fact, a transitional model was chosen which advocated subtractive bilingualism. The National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI, 1993:51) had decided to adopt a programme like this because aid agencies such as the World Bank and Overseas Development Administration support and fund transitions-to-English models of education. Hence in effect, aid agencies have an impact on educational decisions and if this is allowed to continue then additive bilingualism will be a pipe dream.

According to Van Tonder (1999:56) it is evident that current language-in-education policies in school are fraught with difficulties and if suitable changes are not implemented the education system will be a failure as has been the case in other African countries.

Therefore, it would seem that the main choice would be through the medium of English. In the next section mother tongue education and attitudes towards it will be discussed and then the option of English medium education will be addressed.

2.4 COMMUNICATION IN SCHOOL

According to Badenhorst (1996:257) communication is the essence or core of effective motivation. The failure of the school administration to communicate tends to tear down staff morale and to frustrate their behaviour.

Effective communication and language play a significant role in enhancing educator motivation. The ability to motivate educators and learners to form and maintain a caring connection depends largely on interpersonal communication skills (Rue & Byars, 1992:82).

2.4.1 National Department of Education Policy regarding communication in schools

Understanding The South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996:18) effective partnerships is generally characterized by:

- ✓ Mutual trust and respect.
- ✓ Shared decision-making.
- ✓ Shared goals and values.
- ✓ Common vision.
- ✓ Good teamwork.
- ✓ Promotion of the interest of the partnership rather than those of the individual.
- ✓ Respect for the roles of different partners.

From the above, the reader can see the importance of effective communication in all schools. Every one of the characteristics is part and parcel of good communication. Under Section 7 on school discipline (DoE, 1996:9), every school is to have a written code of conduct. The purpose of this is to create a well-organised and excellent school so that effective learning and teaching can take place. This includes:

- ✓ Promoting self-discipline.
- ✓ Encouraging good behaviour.
- ✓ Regulating conduct.

According to the “School Governance Starter Pack” (DoE, 1997:7) the main job of the governing body is to help the principal to organise and manage the school’s activities in an effective and efficient way. In other words, it must help the principal to govern the school well. The organisation of teaching and learning at the school is also the responsibility of the principal. The school governing body guides the principal regarding school policy and the direction of the school. School policy includes the language policy of the school.

The National Department of Education lays down broad guidelines for the effective management of schools and there is no doubt that effective communication is the golden thread that runs across the management of schools.

Naidoo (2001:46) discusses aspects of communication that are required for effective schools. The forms of communication necessary for effective schools are as follows:

Staff appraisal and development.

Staff induction and orientation.

Staff organisation into groups, teams and learning networks, decision-making processes, behaviour, code of conduct, managing diversity and partnerships with the community.

The Department of Education (2000:12) also encourages management to create 'the right school culture'. Some of the features that define this culture are:

- ✓ Management support – the degree to which managers provide clear communication, assistance and support to their staff.
- ✓ Control – the number of rules and regulations, and the amount of direct supervision that is used to oversee and control staff and learner behaviour.
- ✓ Conflict tolerance – the degree to which school community members can talk openly about conflicts and criticism.
- ✓ Communications pattern – the degree to which communication in the school is restricted to the formal hierarchy of authority.

These are just a few examples showing the department's interest in the relevant forms of communication for effective school management.

2.4.2 **Communication in KZN schools**

The KZN Department of Education also stresses the need for effective communication in schools. Naicker and Waddy (2002:27) mention the following important roles of educators, namely: leadership, administration, communal welfare, citizenship and pastoral care.

Naidoo (2001:128) encourages principals to organize workshops for staff, especially principals and their deputies, on the art of articulation and public speaking.

The manual, "Managing and Learning Schools" (DoE, 2001:11) highlights the main processes that are needed to manage an effective school by the principal and the other members of the School Management Team (SMT).

The processes such as staff appraisal and development; staff induction and orientation; staff organisation into groups, teams and learning networks; decision-making processes; behaviour, codes of conduct; managing diversity and partnerships with the community, deal with forms of communication that are essential for the running of the school (Jones, 2000:12).

Each one of these processes involves different communication strategies that will ensure the success in the implementation of the process. A few examples taken from the resource guide School Development Plan by the Department of Education and Culture, KZN, explains under the section staff appraisal and development that 'within a school, educators need feedback and development' (Jenkins, 1999:18). 'Regular feedback on performance help staff assess their strengths and weaknesses and to make the necessary adjustments to their performance' (KZN DoE, 2006:1). The section dealing with staff organisation into groups, teams and learning networks highlights the point that 'Teamwork is

the thread, which runs through all systems in an effective school' (Jansen, 2001:242).

Professor LBG Ndabandaba, past Minister of Education and Culture, Province of KwaZulu-Natal stated, "It is indeed a great pleasure for me to pen a foreword for this, the first manual in a series of twelve, designed to help school management teams run schools effectively and efficiently" (2002:1). Maharaj (2004:43) also looks at school managers as being inviting. They do this by 'communicating positively.' This type of communication encourages the staff to follow the guidance offered by the principal. The principal needs to remind educators to 'show that you are also not perfect.'

It would be wise to 'admit that you lack knowledge in a particular area, acknowledge that you do not have the answers to everything and that you are willing to take risks and that you will make mistakes and grow in the process.' School managers need to 'first cool off' to 'avoid the temptation' to react when they are angry. 'Calm down before you answer, otherwise you may regret your hasty actions'. He also needs to 'spread positive news.' This is to inform members of the staff, 'how good they are and how well they can perform' (Maharaj, 2004:47). Stein (1996:37) states that invitational leadership 'is a very powerful tool for school managers. It is a valuable basis for school management and if implemented it bring out the best in the school community.'

The duties and responsibilities of a principal in a public school are recorded in "Towards Effective School Management – Manual 1" (DoE, 2002:69) under the section Communication. Nine points with regard to communication are listed for the principal.

1. To cooperate with members of the school staff and the school governing body in maintaining an efficient and smooth-running school.
2. To liaise with the circuit/regional office, supplies, personnel, finance sections, and so on, concerning administration, staffing, accounting,

purchase of equipment, research and updating of statistics in respect of educators and learners.

3. To liaise with the relevant structures regarding the school's curricula and curriculum development.
4. To meet parents concerning learners' progress and conduct.
5. To cooperate with the school governing body with regard to all aspects in the SA Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996.
6. To liaise with other relevant governing departments, for example the Department of Health and Welfare, Public Works, and so on, as required.
7. To cooperate with universities, colleges and other agencies in relation to learners' records and performance as well as INSET and management development programmes.
8. To attend courses in order to contribute to and/or update professional views/standards.
9. To maintain contact with sports, social, cultural and community organisations.

These nine points encompass the role that the principals play in the school so that effective management can be achieved through the various forms of communication. The very first point in the duties of the principal indicates the importance of organisational communication in the school as an organisation.

The Department of Education and Culture (Module Four, Leadership), in Resource Materials for Women in Education Management (DoE, 2000b:34), emphasizes that principals play a key role in any needs that take place in school. It refers to the term 'organisational change' as meeting 'the needs of the community, the school has to adapt to changing circumstances, regardless

of the causes.’ The same manual (2000:36) also lists the factors that contribute towards positive change at school level. They are:

- ✓ Effective communication.
- ✓ Healthy group relations.
- ✓ An open organisational climate.
- ✓ Effective leadership styles.

Notice and effective communication ranks very high on the list and therefore the principal is assigned the task of implementing these changes in the school so that the school can function as an organisation.

The Department of Education and Culture is a firm adherent to the government’s policy of ‘*Batho Pele*’, which means ‘people first’. This deals with ‘service delivery’ in all schools. According to module five, ‘one of the most significant skills that we need in customer service is the ability to communicate properly’ (2000:87).

2.5 LEARNERS’ ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH

Webb and Kembo-Sure (1999:11) maintain that the exact role of language as an element of socio-cultural identity in African communities has not yet been adequately investigated. Smit (Bekker, 2003:1) contends that the two main structural criteria of any society are social identity and power. It is the complex relationship between language, social identity and power that explains why people have language attitudes. Blommaert (2006:24) notes that group identities not only determine opinions and discourses about others, but also other forms of behaviour towards them such as language behaviour, a topic that forms part of language attitude studies. Language attitude studies can therefore be reliable indicators of group identity, because language, an important aspect of a society’s culture, is also often a symbol of group

membership. Thus a common language (or language varieties) can be used to create positive social identity.

Alexander (1999:213) says that ethnic groups that consider their language to be of crucial importance can bolster and enhance their social identity by accentuating their language – that is striving for positive ethno-linguistic distinctiveness. Social divisions and potential for conflict are often fuelled by language as a symbol of socio-cultural identity. Although most coloured people in the Western Cape now speak Afrikaans as their mother tongue, there are also signs of a language shift to English among the younger generation of the ‘coloured middle-class’ and elite. The ‘coloured middle-class’ have adopted a largely westernized lifestyle, and have maintained few, if any, of the cultural practices of the past.

In a research paper, Dyers (2008:49-72) reports that in terms of language as a marker of identity, the response of Xhosa learners revealed that they did not apparently feel concerned about preferring English to their mother tongue in many domains. They saw the language as being a common language in South Africa, and as having largely instrumental purposes in their lives, helping them to find better jobs and education, and giving them a passport out of the townships. Xhosa remained closely related to their sense of themselves and their culture and traditions, and some of them were prepared to acknowledge the importance of Afrikaans in the Western Cape. At the same time, they would also have been affected by the clear messages sent out by the government and other black role models, *viz.* that English is the language of people who have “made it”.

According to De Kadt (2008:1-5) the future language dispensation in South Africa has been widely discussed, yet little is known about the attitudes of ordinary second-language speakers towards English. This is the language that all agree will remain dominant for the foreseeable future. English was generally seen in instrumental terms, as a very necessary job skill and *lingua franca*; thus the link between English and education was constantly stressed. In interpreting these findings, it is suggested that a perception of English with these terms only

is not without its dangers and that, in spite of the expectation that a general competence in English will help bring about a more just society, it might well on the contrary contribute to a further perpetuation of the present inequities in South Africa.

According to Chick (2009:31-39) English has escaped the stigma which has been attached to it elsewhere in Africa as part of the colonial heritage and has emerged not only as a language of liberation but also as the language with which the new order has been associated since 1990.

Samuels (1995:80) talks about the 'unassailable position of English' in South African society. He points out that parents believe that students do not have to learn their first languages at school other than as subjects in the lower grades and they do not believe that English should be replaced by African languages because they see English as the language of power and status which would allow for the vertical movement of their children. He further compiled the following statements from parents:

- ✓ "You are nothing in this world without English." This perception is also shared by learners who made the following comments:
- ✓ "I believe English is essential. After all it is regarded as a universal language. Most countries speak it so why don't we?"
- ✓ "We need it to get somewhere in life."
- ✓ "I chose English because you have to know it. Cause you can't get a job without knowing English."

Slabbert's (1994:7) study supports the notion of English being a high status language as is evident from the following statement by one of her subjects:

- ✓ In my school if you know English you are everything. No, it is not important if you can do maths. If you know English you become a prefect."

Despite the overwhelming support for English, Slabbert (1994:7) found that learners' comprehension levels of very basic conversational language were extremely low. This suggests that monolingual educational communication through the medium of English will deprive the majority of African learners of effective communication in the classroom. Webb (1996:151) echoes this view by claiming that despite the fact that English has been taught as a second language for many decades, only about 17% of the South African black population has as yet acquired the ability to participate in a reasonably complex discourse in English.

A study conducted by Wojcicki (1994:2) indicates an overwhelming support amongst Africans for English as the official language. A total of 2 125 interviews were conducted towards the end of 1993 amongst African men and women nationally. It was explained to the correspondents that all public notices and communication from the government would be printed in the official languages (English and Afrikaans). Respondents were asked to choose the language they preferred for these purposes with provisions being made for multiple choices. English was the preferred choice in all categories of respondents with more than 4 out of 5 of each segment opting for English. Zulu was second in line with support from around one-third of the respondents. Tswana and Sotho received a further third of the votes but Afrikaans received less than 10% support.

Chick and Wade (1997:274) provide an interesting input about the relevance of English amongst African people. They elicited the responses of 636 African students in a questionnaire administered in March 1996. Fifty of the respondents were matriculation level students while the rest of the students were from tertiary institutes. Of these students, 465 were from institutions in the Durban Metro area and 171 were receiving education in rural areas.

A focus on the responses of Zulu first-language speakers who constitute 79% of the total sample revealed that English has a symbolic value for them: 57,9% indicated that for them English is the language of international contact and

29,78% indicated that for them English is the language of national unity. Only 3,25% of the total responses were negatives ones – that is very few associated English with corruption, oppression or division.

What the studies reviewed here show is that English is associated with prestige in South African society, much as it is in many countries both in Africa and elsewhere. Against this background the issue of access to English through schooling will remain a major priority among South Africans.

2.6 PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED WITH SECOND LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

Ayres and Hopf (1990:98) said that reading, writing, speaking and listening are communication skills that are important in all subject areas in the school curriculum. Hence literacy should have a central position in the curriculum. Even so, differences between the learners' level of literacy mean that some learners fail to acquire the verbal foundations for learning. For this reason many learners fall short of proficiency as they proceed through the school.

2.6.1 Reading

According to Long and Robinson (1998:14) the more time learners have to study the facts, a principle or practice a skill, the better they learn. Teaching and study time in school, as well as school work done at home, advance learners' reading. Experience with a variety of reading activities helps learners acquire the necessary skills needed to be successful.

Long and Robinson (1998:34) further state that English as a second language poses a formidable problem to learners. Therefore, the time allocated for acquiring reading skills is not enough. More time must be allocated to this facility in order to hone learners' perceptiveness to reading a new language. Recognition of new sounding words and new terminologies are taxing in a new

system of language education. The only method to improve this problematic area is by introducing better teaching aids and more time to practice.

2.6.2 **Writing**

Writing is the final product of several separate acts that are hugely challenging to learn simultaneously, states Hillocks (1996:265; 552). Among these separable acts are note-taking, identifying a central idea, outlining drafting and editing. Both young and old people can encounter the discouraging 'writer's block' if they engage in more than one or two of these activities at once. Learners must be encouraged to attain excellent writing skills. The problems encountered are a lack of support from parents. Coupled with this is a lackadaisical approach by educators to the problems faced by learners. Literature and direct writing experiences are lacking as well. To improve a learners' writing ability, strong motivation, supportive parents, inspiring educators, informative literature and direct experiences as well as exposure to skilful peers and fine writers, are necessary.

2.6.3 **Speaking**

According to Hunsaker (1990:231) students learning a second language have difficulty with new fangled pronunciation, for example, the 'ph' as denoting the 'f' sound. Learners have little opportunities for practicing specific speaking skills. Moreover, the speed rate at which they speak, the volume and precision of pronunciation may differ substantially from their 'native tongue.' Another of the problems encountered is that learners fail to grasp that speeches differ in formality, such as when speaking to a judge, a teacher, a parent, or a playmate (Kwamwangamalu, 2003:285-289). The author asserts that learners have problems from lack of understanding the differences among various dialects. The subjects in the curriculum and examples from the media may provide occasions for different forms of speech. Learners improve formal speech when educators provide insights on how to organise their ideas for presentation.

Griffiths and Hamilton (1994:36) maintain that educators can also help to reduce such fears by maintaining a friendly atmosphere in the class and providing opportunities for increasingly large groups. Learners can practice presenting information, answering questions and holding group discussions. More frequent classroom presentations and discussions enable educators to diagnose and remedy problems.

2.6.4 **Listening**

Listening skills are essential for learning, maintains Coakley (1997:65), since they enable learners to acquire insights and information and to achieve success in communicating with others. Some learners invite problems when they fail to seize listening opportunities from life within and outside the school. This problem persists because they let their minds wander or when they concentrate on what they want to say rather than what a speaker is saying. Du Toit and Kruger (2008:7) suggest that educators show learners why good listening, especially second language listening is crucial in some situations. Poor listening can lead to unnecessary arguments and problems. The final listening problem is that learners do not listen selectively for specific kinds of information, such as the main purpose, the themes, the details, and any implications. Asking them questions about what they heard may enhance students' listening skills. They may be given practice in note taking and could be asked questions about the facts and inferences that may be made from their notes.

2.6.5 **Traditional OBE**

According to Chisholm, Motala and Vally (2003:11), traditional OBE encompassed negative elements of education, such as rote learning, subject divisions, content-based knowledge and summative assessment. Traditional and transformational OBE would be depicted as opposite ends of the continuum. Regarding second language instruction and learning, rote learning puts at risk the learners' understanding of the real meaning of the words 'learnt

by heart.’ It becomes repeating ‘parrot fashion’ words that do not make sense when analysed in retrospect by the learner.

2.6.6 **Transitional OBE**

Transitional OBE lies between the two extremes of traditional and transformational OBE. According to Berlach (2004:1-2) transitional OBE extends beyond the traditional OBE in that higher order competences are emphasized – ‘it centres curriculum and assessment design around higher exit outcomes.’ Having graduates who are broadly competent persons best reflects its vision.

2.6.7 **Transformational OBE**

Spady (1991:97) states that transformational OBE has its roots in the future scanning procedures found in well designed strategic planning and design models. Marsh (1997:41) describes transformational OBE as being future oriented and committed to success for all learners. It includes clearly defined and publicly derived ‘exit outcomes’ that reflect changing societal conditions and a curriculum framework that derives from the exit outcomes.

It also includes a variety of methods that assures learners successful demonstration of all outcomes and provides more than one chance for learners to be successful. It incorporates a criterion referenced and consistently applied system of assessment, performance standards, credentialing and reporting.

2.6.8 **The Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS)**

Because the initial National Curriculum Statement for OBE was generally perceived to be problematic, the Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, in 2000 appointed the new committee popularly known as the ‘Chisholm Committee.’ This committee revised the initial curriculum statement and released the Revised National Curriculum Statement. It was released online in

the form of eight electronic documents in Adobe acrobat format (Chisholm, Volmink, Ndhlovu & Muller, 2000:1-20).

The RNCS strengthens and consolidates Curriculum 2005, which was first introduced in 1998. It does so through simplifying and streamlining its main design elements while at the same time ensuring that learning expectations are clearly spelt out at each grade. This RNCS is made up of critical and developmental outcomes, learning outcomes and assessment standards.

2.6.9 **Assessment**

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:167) state that assessment of learning is an essential element of OBE. There seems to be a move from input-based, norm-referenced, summative assessment to outcomes based, criterion-referenced formative assessment. According to Chisholm (2004:22) assessment standards can be used to demonstrate the depth and breadth of what to be assessed and the extent to which learners are achieving the linked learning outcomes.

Continuous assessment means that educators need to assess learners not only through marking their work (summative assessment) but also assessing different kinds of written and oral work written for exam and/or tests. The purpose of such assessment is to assess strengths and weaknesses. It is formative and developmental thereby promoting competence in learners.

2.6.10 **Constructivism**

Klopper (2000:4) defines constructivism as a theory of learning that is grounded on the premise that human beings continuously and automatically construct knowledge of their interaction with other entities in the environment.

According to Hanley (2007:1) learners actively take knowledge, connect it to previously assimilated knowledge and make it theirs by constructing their own interpretations. Klopper (2000:34) explains that humans use basic elements of

knowledge known as image schemas to construct knowledge in the form of mental models that represent their understanding of which things there are in the world that they live in, how things interrelate and in which interactions they can be involved. Learning is therefore a process of continually adjusting mental models to accommodate new experiences.

2.6.11 **Syllabus**

Marsh (1997:4) describes 'syllabus' as a summary statement about the content to be taught in a course or unit, which is often linked to an external exam. The emphasis is on what content is taught at school.

According to Moore and Kearsley (1996:43) the single most important instrument of structure in a course is the syllabus, which outlines the goals and objectives in a course, prerequisites, the grading/evaluation scheme, materials to be used (textbooks, software), topics to be covered, a schedule and a bibliography. Each of these components defines the nature of the learning experience.

2.6.12 **Curriculum**

According to Parker, Andrich and Firth (1998:16) the curriculum is dynamic and includes all the learning experiences provided for the learner. Marsh (1997a:5) describes curriculum as an interrelated set of plans and experiences, which a learner completes under the guidance of the school. It includes all persons associated with the school, who might have some input in planning the curriculum.

It might normally include educators, school councils, and external specialists such as advisory inspectors. The basic elements of curriculum design must reflect the intentions of the teaching-learning goals for any educational program. Curriculum considerations flow from the curriculum goals (what a

learner knows and is able to do), and how best to teach or assess those goals in a unified or mutually supporting manner. The vision of lifelong learning supported by OBE forms the heart of the Revised National Curriculum project.

2.6.13 **Curriculum integration**

Parker, Andrich and Firth (1998:16) states that particular attention is required to ensure that there is congruence between the various dimensions of learning. Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:240) state that independence of the intellectual, emotional, physical and intuitive domains of human functioning bring about learning that is more effective.

The Curriculum is relevant to the learner when it takes into account a combination of the general and specific content. This means that the curriculum must focus on learner values, thinking processes, and cultural diversity, and discovery and workplace experiences. The curriculum must provide situations for the transferences of learning and knowledge, taking into account various problems and situations.

Curriculum integration increases the relevancy of learning experiences by connecting learning to real life applications. General and vocational education concepts and skills must be incorporated into the curriculum design. Integrated school-to-work curriculum influences what skills and information learners learn, how well they learn, and how transferable these skills and knowledge are to real-world applications.

2.6.14 **The language, literacy and communication learning area**

According to Chisholm *et al.* (2001:14) the Language, Literacy and Communication and Learning Area includes all eleven official languages; Sepedi, Ssotho, Setswana, SiSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, IsiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu, languages approved by the Pan South African Language Board (PANSALB), as well as the South African Certification Authority (SAFCERT) such as Braille and sign language.

In a multilingual country like South Africa it is important that learners reach high levels of proficiency in at least two languages as well as being able to communicate in other languages. By the end of Grade 9, they should be able to use both languages to demonstrate the competencies in the Critical Outcomes (Balan, 2002:21-24).

2.7 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON WELBEDENE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Welbedene Secondary is situated on the periphery of Chatsworth and Welbedacht, a low socio-economic residential area in Durban. This school has been a so-called Indian school and an ex-HOD (House of Delegates) school. The teaching staff consists of 21 Indian educators. There are 620 learners in the school, including 279 Zulu-speaking and 341 English-speaking learners. Welbedene Secondary had admitted learners from different population groups before it became state policy to do so. Therefore, at Welbedene Secondary, there has been a gradual increase in the number of Zulu learners.

In 1991, when state schools were granted permission to desegregate, there was not a sudden influx of black learners to Welbedene Secondary. Unlike other schools, which were caught by surprise with the sudden influx of black learners, Welbedene Secondary has had the advantage of developing strategies over a long period of time to accommodate learners from different population and language groups. However, despite this advantage and changes in legislation regarding the status of languages in South Africa, Welbedene Secondary has continued with 'business as usual', that is, English is used as the sole medium of instruction and is taught as a first language and Afrikaans is taught as a second language.

In the next section, recent developments in language policy and its significance at Welbedene Secondary will be discussed.

2.7.1 Recent developments in language policy and its impact at Welbedene Secondary

According to the Constitution of South Africa, the country has 11 official languages (Lazarus, 1998:2). This basically means that the status previously accorded to English and Afrikaans has now fallen away; that is, where it was previously compulsory to study both English and Afrikaans. As such, schools can choose any of the eleven official languages they wish to include in the school curriculum and in most cases, the languages that are dominant in the region will be chosen. In the KwaZulu-Natal region, the two dominant languages are undoubtedly English and Zulu. Hence, schools that previously taught only English and Afrikaans, have the option of including Zulu in the curriculum.

An important factor that would determine the inclusion of Zulu in the curriculum is the number of Zulu learners in the school. Since at least 45% of the school population at Welbedene Secondary consists of Zulu learners, it is worth investigating how the choices of languages as subjects and media of learning and teaching are made, who makes the choices and what factors determine the choices that are made.

According to the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996 (DoE, 1996:5-8) the governing body of a school is responsible for deciding language policy. They must do this within national and provincial frameworks. The issue of language policy in public schools is closely related to the Bill of Rights (DoE, 1996:1-2) in the Constitution, which gives everyone the right to education in the official language or languages of their choice, where practical. To ensure that learners have reasonable access to education in a language of their choice, the Bill of Rights says the State must take into account issues such as equity, practicality and the need for redress.

2.8 SUMMARY

The literature on communication and language policies and its implication on learners were reviewed.

Also examined were current language-in-education policies in South Africa, mother tongue education and learners' attitudes towards English.

Furthermore, the Revised National Curriculum Statement and the role of OBE in the classroom were briefly discussed.

In the next chapter, the methods of data collection used in this study will be explained.

CHAPTER 3

PLANNING OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Research in the preceding chapter on learners' attitudes towards language choice in secondary school was conducted by means of available relevant literature. In order to investigate the findings from the literature study, it is necessary to undertake empirical research. The collection of empirical data will be done by:

- ✓ administering a self-structured questionnaire to learners (cf. Annexure A);
- ✓ interviews with educators; and
- ✓ observation of classroom interactions.

3.2 PREPARATION AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

3.2.1 Permission

With the aim of administering the questionnaires (Annexure A) to learners as well as conducting interviews with educators, the researcher requested written permission from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (Annexure B).

3.2.2 Selection of respondents

Respondents were randomly selected from Welbedene Secondary School, to include all race groups. These learners were selected from Grade 9 and Grade 10. The reason for the choice of Grade 9 learners was the fact that they were to choose their subjects at this stage so the researcher was interested in determining which languages they would be keen to study. The Grade 10 learners had already chosen their subjects of study and the researcher's aim was to ascertain their reactions to their choices. To obtain a justified cross-

section the researcher randomly selected 55 learners from English first language speakers (Indians) and 45 Zulu first language speakers. These were the groups that could possibly contribute significant information as regards the requirements of this research.

Educator respondents (interviewees) were purposefully selected according to different subjects that they teach.

3.3 DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

3.3.1 Ethnographic research

Watson-Gegeo (1988:576) describes ethnography as “the study of people’s behaviour in naturally occurring ongoing settings, with a focus on the cultural interpretation of behaviour.” Watson-Gegeo (1988:582) explains that as a product ethnography is a detailed description and analysis of a social setting and the interaction that goes with it. She explains further that method ethnography includes the techniques of observation, participant-observation, interviewing of participants, audio or video tapings of interactions for closer analysis, collection of relevant or available documents and other techniques required to answer the research questions posed by the given study.

Ethnography considers the subjective experiences of both the investigator and participants thus adding a depth of understanding often lacking in other approaches (Goetz & Le Compte, 1984:9). An ethnographic study seemed suitable for this purpose because it allowed the researcher flexibility.

In the next section, the different methodologies will be explained in detail, their rationale and advantages and their disadvantages. According to Ramanathan and Atkinson (1999:49) in ethnographic research, different kinds of data are used because it is believed that multiple perspectives enable a more valid description of complex social realities than any simple kind of data could alone. Of the sources for data collection used, a description of the questionnaire is

given. Next, the interviews are described. This will be followed by a description of observations and tape recordings of classroom interaction.

3.4 QUESTIONNAIRE AS RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

According to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:504) a questionnaire is a set of questions dealing with some topic or related group of topics, given to a selected group of individuals for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under consideration. Simply put, a questionnaire is a prepared question form submitted to certain persons (respondents) with the view to obtaining information.

Churchill and Peter (Schnetler, 1993:77) have shown that the measuring instrument has the greatest influence on the reliability of research data. The characteristics of measurement are best controlled by the careful construction of the instrument. There is, however, insufficient appreciation for the fact that a questionnaire should be constructed according to certain principles (Kidder & Judd, 1986:128-131; Behr, 1988:155-156).

3.4.1 Questionnaire design

A well-designed questionnaire is the culmination of a long process of planning the research objective, formulating the problem, generating the hypothesis, etc. A questionnaire is not simply thrown together. A poorly designed questionnaire can invalidate any research results, notwithstanding the merits of the sample, the field workers and the statistical techniques. Huysamen (1989:61) objects to poor design rather than to questionnaires as such. A well-designed questionnaire can boost the reliability and validity of the data to acceptable tolerance (Schumacher & Meillon, 1993:42).

It therefore stands to reason that questionnaire design does not take place in a vacuum. According to Dane (1990:315-319) the length of individual questions, the number of response options, as well as the format and wording of questions are determined by the following:

- ✓ Choice of the subject to be researched.
- ✓ Aim of the research.
- ✓ Size of the research sample.
- ✓ Method of data collection.
- ✓ Analysis of the data.

Against this background the researcher can now look at the principles that determine whether a questionnaire is well designed. It is thus necessary to draw a distinction between a questionnaire's content, question order, type of questions, formulation of questions and the validity and reliability of the questions.

3.4.2 **Construction of the questionnaire**

Questionnaire design is an activity that should not take place in isolation. The researcher should consult and seek advice from specialists and colleagues at all times during the construction of the questionnaire (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:198). Questions to be taken up in the questionnaire should be tested on people to eliminate possible errors. A question may appear as correct to the researcher when written, but can be interpreted differently when asked.

There should be no hesitation in changing questions several times before the final formulation, keeping the original purpose in mind. The most important point to be taken into account in questionnaire design is that it takes time and effort and that the questionnaire will be re-drafted a number of times before being finalized. A researcher must therefore ensure that adequate time is budgeted for in the construction and preliminary testing of the questionnaire (Kidder & Judd, 1986:243-245). All of the above was taken into consideration by the researcher during the designing of the questionnaire for this investigation.

An important aim in the construction of the questionnaire for this investigation was to present the questions as simple and as straightforward as possible.

3.4.3 Characteristics of a good questionnaire

Throughout the construction of the questionnaire the researcher had to consider the characteristics of a good questionnaire and according to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:190), Mahlangu (1987:84-85) and Norval (1990:60) the following are vital:

- ✓ It has to deal with a significant topic, one the respondent will recognize as important enough to warrant spending his or her time on. The significance should be clearly and carefully stated on the questionnaire and on an accompanying letter.
- ✓ It must be as short as possible, but long enough to get the essential data. Long questionnaires frequently find their way into the wastepaper basket.
- ✓ It must seek only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources.
- ✓ Questionnaires should be attractive in appearance, neatly arranged and clearly duplicated or printed.
- ✓ Directions for a good questionnaire must be clear and complete and important terms clearly defined.
- ✓ Each question has to deal with a single concept and should be worded as simply and straightforwardly as possible.
- ✓ Different categories should provide an opportunity for easy, accurate and unambiguous responses.
- ✓ Objectively formulated questions with no leading suggestions should render the desired responses. Leading questions are just as inappropriate in a questionnaire as they are in a court of law.

- ✓ Questions should be presented in a proper psychological order, proceeding from general to more specific and sensitive responses. An orderly grouping helps respondents to organize their own thinking so that their answers are logical and objective. It is preferable to present questions that create a favourable attitude before proceeding to those that are more intimate or delicate in nature. Annoying and/or embarrassing questions should be avoided if possible.

3.4.4 **Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire**

Data can be gathered by means of a structured questionnaire, *inter alia*, the following ways: a written questionnaire that is mailed, delivered or handed out personally, personal interviews and telephone interviews (Kidder & Judd, 1986:221). Each mode has specific advantages and disadvantages, which the researcher needs to evaluate for their suitability to the research, the specific target population being studied, as well as relative cost. This researcher used the written questionnaire as research instrument taking into consideration certain advantages:

3.4.4.1 **Advantages of the written questionnaire**

- ✓ Affordability is the primary advantage of written questionnaires because it is the least expensive means of data gathering.
- ✓ Written questionnaires preclude possible interview bias. The way the interviewer asks a question and even the interviewer's general appearance and interaction may influence the respondent's answers. Such biases can be completely eliminated with a written questionnaire.
- ✓ A questionnaire permits anonymity. If it were arranged in such a way that responses were given anonymously, this would increase the researcher's chances of receiving responses which genuinely represent a person's feelings, beliefs, opinions or perceptions.

- ✓ They permit a respondent a sufficient amount of time to consider answers before responding.
- ✓ Questionnaires can be given to many people simultaneously; this is to say that a large sample of the target population can be reached.
- ✓ They provide greater uniformity across measurement situations than do interviews. Each person responds in the same manner to questions because standard instructions are given to the respondents.
- ✓ Generally the data provided by questionnaires can be more easily analysed and interpreted than the data obtained from verbal responses.
- ✓ Through the use of the questionnaire approach the problems related to interviews may be avoided. Interview 'errors' may seriously undermine the reliability and validity of survey results.
- ✓ Respondents may answer questions of a personal or embarrassing nature more willingly and frankly on a paper questionnaire than in a face-to-face situation with an interviewer who may be a complete stranger. In some cases, it may happen that respondents report less than expected and make more critical comments in a mail questionnaire.
- ✓ Questions requiring considered answers rather than immediate answers could enable respondents to consult documents in the case of the mail questionnaire approach.
- ✓ Respondents can complete questionnaires in their own time and in a more relaxed atmosphere.
- ✓ Questionnaire design is relatively easy if the set guidelines are followed.
- ✓ The administering of questionnaires, the coding, analysis and interpretation of data can be done without any special training.

- ✓ Data obtained from questionnaires can be compared and inferences made.
- ✓ Questionnaires can elicit information which cannot be obtained from other sources. This renders empirical research possible in different educational disciplines.

3.4.4.2 Disadvantages of the questionnaire

The researcher is also aware of the fact that a written questionnaire has important disadvantages. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:190), Kidder and Judd (1986:223-224) and Mahlangu (1987:84-85) the disadvantages of the questionnaire are, *inter alia*, as follows:

- ✓ Questionnaires do not provide the flexibility of interviews. In an interview an idea or comment can be explored. This makes it possible to gauge how people are interpreting the question. If a respondent interprets questions asked differently the validity of the information obtained is jeopardized.
- ✓ People are generally better able to express their views verbally than in writing.
- ✓ Questions can be answered only when they are sufficiently easy and straightforward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions.
- ✓ Answers to written questionnaires must be seen as final. Rechecking of responses cannot be done. There is no chance of investigating the given answer for a clarification of ambiguous answers. If respondents are unwilling to answer certain questions nothing can be done to it because the mail questionnaire is essentially inflexible.
- ✓ In a written questionnaire the respondent examines all the questions at the same time before answering them and the answers to a different question can therefore not be treated as 'independent.'

- ✓ The researcher is unable to control the context of question answering, and specifically the presence of other people. Respondents may ask friends or family members to examine the questionnaire or comment on their answers, causing bias if the respondent's own private opinions are desired.
- ✓ Written questionnaires do not allow the researcher to correct misunderstandings or answer questions that the respondents may have. Respondents might answer questions incorrectly or not at all due to confusion or misinterpretation.

3.4.5 **Validity and reliability of the questionnaire**

There are two concepts that are of critical importance in understanding issues of measurement in social science research, namely validity and reliability (Huysamen, 1989). Rarely do questionnaire designers deal consciously with the degree of validity and reliability of their instrument. This is one reason why so many questionnaires are lacking in these two vital qualities (Norval, 1988:15).

Questionnaires have a very limited purpose. In fact, they are often one-time data gathering devices with a very short life, administered to a limited population. There are ways to improve both the validity and reliability of questions phrased in the least ambiguous way. In other words, "Do the items sample a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation?" Terms must be clearly defined so that they have the same meaning to all respondents (Cohen & Manion, 1994:111-112).

Kidder and Judd (1989:53-54) mention the fact that although reliability and validity are two different characteristics of measurement, they "shade into each other." They are two ends of a continuum but at points in the middle it is difficult to distinguish between them. Validity and reliability are especially important in educational research because most of the measurements attempted in this area are obtained indirectly. Researchers can never guarantee that an educational or psychological measuring instrument measures

precisely and dependably what it is intended to measure (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:198). It is essential, therefore, to assess the validity and reliability of these instruments. Researchers must therefore have a general knowledge as to what validity and reliability is and how one goes about validating a research instrument and establishing its reliability (Huysamen, 1989:1-3).

3.4.5.1 Validity of the questionnaire

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:560) define validity as the extent to which a measuring instrument satisfies the position for which it was constructed. It also refers to the extent in which it correlates with some criterion external to the instrument itself.

Validity is that quality of a data-gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to determine what it was designed to determine. Generally, validity refers to the degree to which an instrument succeeds in measuring what it has set out to measure. Behr (1988:122) regards validity as an indispensable characteristic of measuring devices.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:237), Mulder (1989:215-217) and Dane (1990:257-258) distinguish between three different types of validity:

- ✓ Content validity, where content and cognitive processes included can be measured. Categories on topics, skills and abilities should be prepared and items from each category randomly drawn.
- ✓ Criterion validity, which refers to the relationship between instrument and an independent variable (the criterion should be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination).
- ✓ Construction validity, where the extent to which the test measures a specific trait or construction is concerned, for example, intelligence, reasoning ability, attitudes, etc.

- ✓ It means that validity of the questionnaires indicate how worthwhile a measure is likely to be in a given situation. Validity shows whether the instrument is reflecting the true story, or at least something approximating the truth.
- ✓ A valid research instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some 'real' ability, attitude, or prevailing situation that the researcher can identify and characterize (Schnetler, 1993:71). If the ability or attitude in itself is stable, and if a respondent's answer to the items is not affected by other unpredictable factors, then each administration of the instrument should yield essentially the same results.
- ✓ The validity of the questionnaire as a research instrument reflects the sureness with which conclusions can be drawn.

Establishing validity requires that the researcher anticipate the potential arguments that skeptics might use to dismiss the research results (Dane, 1990:148-149).

The researcher employed the questionnaire as an indirect method to measure parental authority perspectives of their grade one children. Because of the complexity of the respondents' attributes one is never certain that the questionnaire devised will actually measure what it purports to measure. Items in the questionnaire cannot be measured like height, mass, length or size. From the interpretation of the results obtained and the sureness with which conclusions could be drawn, the researcher is, however, convinced that the questionnaire to a great extent did measure that which it was designed for.

3.4.5.2 Reliability of the questionnaire

According to Mulder (1989:209) and Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:512) reliability is a statistical concept that relates to consistency and dependability. There is a consistency of obtaining the same relative answer

when measuring phenomena that have not changed. A reliable measuring instrument is one that, if repeated under similar conditions, would present the same results or a near approximation of the initial result. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:194) and Kidder and Judd (1986:47-48) distinguish between the following types of reliability:

- ✓ Test-retest reliability (or coefficient of stability) is estimated by comparing two or more repeated administrations of the measuring instrument. This gives an indication of the dependability of the results on one occasion, which may then be compared with the results obtained on another occasion.
- ✓ Internal consistency reliability. This indicates how well the test items measure the same thing.
- ✓ Split-half reliability. By correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same measuring instrument, one can calculate the split-half reliability.
- ✓ In essence, reliability refers to consistency, but consistency does not guarantee truthfulness. The reliability of the question is no proof that the answers given reflect the respondent's true feelings (Dane, 1990:256). A demonstration of reliability is necessary but not conclusive evidence that an instrument is valid. Reliability refers to the extent to which measurement results are free of unpredictable kinds of error. Sources of error that affect reliability are, *inter alia*, the following (Mulder, 1989:209; Kidder & Judd, 1986:45).
- ✓ Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or temporary differences amongst members of the group being measured.
- ✓ Variations in the conditions of administration between groups: these range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as omissions in verbal instruction.

- ✓ Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, chance differences in what the observer notices and errors in computing scores.
- ✓ Random effects by respondents who guess or check off attitude alternatives without trying to understand them.

When the questionnaire is used as an empirical research instrument there is no specific method, for example the 'test-retest' method, to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. Therefore, it will be difficult to establish to what extent the answers of the respondents are reliable. The researcher, however, believes that the questionnaires in this investigation were completed with the necessary honesty and sincerity to render the maximum possible reliability.

3.5 INTERVIEW AS RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The interview can be used as a research instrument on its own to collect data, testing or developing the hypotheses or sampling respondents' opinions (Conrad, 2009:23-25). For the purpose of this research it was decided to use the interview as a research technique, in conjunction with the written questionnaire, to obtain information from selected respondents on learners' attitudes towards language choice. Interviews are also one of the most widely used techniques to collect data.

According to Weiner (2000:369-406) the interview can be defined as a conversation for the purpose of gathering information. Cohen and Manion (1994:291) define the interview as a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for specific purpose of obtaining relevant research information, and focuses on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation.

3.5.1 Advantages

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:104-125) the following are advantages of the interview as research instrument:

- ✓ Interviews are flexible and an idea can be explored. This makes it possible to gauge how people are interpreting the question.
- ✓ People are generally better at expressing their views verbally than in writing.
- ✓ All items can be answered if there is a close involvement between the interviewer and the respondent.
- ✓ The questions can be explained or rephrased by the interviewer so as to obtain a clearer response from the respondent. This avoids misunderstanding of questions.
- ✓ Interviewees can explain their answers.
- ✓ The interviewer can reassure and encourage the interviewee.
- ✓ It makes rechecking of responses possible.
- ✓ Questions are treated (asked) independently.

3.5.2 **Disadvantages**

According to Cohen and Manion (1994:277) interviews also have disadvantages, namely:

Interviewers have to be carefully trained. The responses of the interviewee can be compromised if the interviewer is not consistent.

The sample size is small. This means that the findings may not be fully representative.

No anonymity due to the presence of interviewer.

It is costly in terms of time and money.

There is limited time in answering the questions.

It is difficult to analyse the responses to open-ended questions.

There is less uniformity in questions and responses. The manner and tone with which the question is asked may influence the respondent's answer.

The respondents may be less frank when answering questions of a personal nature.

Interviews can be prone to subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer. The interviewer can influence the data in terms of 'leading on' or influencing the interviewee's responses. If the two individuals know each other, there may be a tendency for the interviewee to give information that the interviewer would want to hear.

In the preparation and conducting of the interviews the researcher took into consideration the advantages and disadvantages thereof.

3.6 INTERVIEWS

Six educators were purposefully selected to be interviewed; a mathematics educator; two geography educators; two Afrikaans educators and the school principal. Educators at the school were interviewed to ascertain which languages were used in their classes because the researcher wished to gain insight into their attitudes towards the different languages and how they coped with multilingual classes. Their views on what they thought the media of learning should be at Welbedene Secondary were also elicited. Their views

were important because they influence the language policy at the school. The interview was semi-structured.

Seliger and Shohamy (1990:167) explain that semi-structured interviews consist of specific core questions that are prepared in advance and from which the interviewer elicits deeper insights by asking further probing questions that allow for the elaboration of information. The advantage of interviews is that they allow for probing, in-depth answers, flexibility and free response. In interviews, people have a tendency to disclose thoughts and feelings more readily to a person than they would with other methods of data collection.

3.6.1 **Conducting of interviews**

Prior to the educators being interviewed, the purpose of the interview was outlined. They were informed that they were being interviewed for research purposes and that their teaching was not being criticized but that the researcher was interested in what went on in multilingual classes and how learners interacted in class. They were also informed that tape-recording the interviews was an advantage because it would not be possible to write down everything that was said. It was necessary to state the intentions because experience has shown that educators tend to be very suspicious and wary when they are questioned about their teaching. The educators selected cooperated because the researcher has gained their trust as an educator in the school.

Some of the interviewing strategies as suggested by Woods (2000:4-5) were used such as starting off gently, not asking intimate and intimidating questions and most importantly, being pleasant.

Thereafter the researcher listened to the audio cassettes and transcribed the data, beginning with a rough handwritten transcription. The data was then typed and the researcher returned to the tapes to fill in missing or unclear responses.

3.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher outlined the main aspects of the methodologies used in this investigation and provided a rationale for choosing them. Furthermore their merits were explained as well as the constraints and limitations of the methods used. Investigating an issue as sensitive as language policy in a school setting, as well as being an intricate part of the setting does pose certain difficulties for the researcher as discussed in this chapter. In the following chapter, analysis is made of the data collected, i.e. the learner questionnaires, the educator's interviews and transcripts of classroom lessons.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the collected data will be analysed and the results thereof will be discussed. After giving a brief explanation of descriptive statistics and qualitative data, the findings of the research will be examined under the following headings:

- ✓ Biographical data of the respondents.

- ✓ The discussion of the data obtained by means of completed questionnaires and interviews.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The purpose of research is to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or person (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2006:104). Descriptive research is one of the methods of research used to study a person or persons scientifically in the education situation. It attempts to describe the situation as it is, thus there is no intervention on the part of the researcher and therefore, no control.

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:355) say descriptive studies do not set out with the idea of testing hypotheses about relationships, but want to find the distribution of variables. In this study nomothetic descriptive research was employed with the aim of describing learners' attitudes to language choice. The researcher was primarily concerned with the nature and degree of existing situations at Welbedene Secondary School, situated at Chatsworth in the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

4.3 QUALITATIVE DATA

Qualitative data involves the identification of themes, sub-themes and categories, and the systematic exposure of the connection and interconnection between them and the arrangement and structure which holds the whole together.

Qualitative data obtained by means of interviews can be voluminous and sitting down to make sense out of pages of interviews and field notes can be overwhelming (Creswell, 2003:150). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2003:68-69) data analysis is eclectic, in other words there is no 'right way' with regards to interpretation and presentation of data.

The analysis of qualitative data is based on data 'reduction' and 'interpretation.' Voluminous amounts of information have to be reduced to certain patterns, categories and themes and then interpreted according to some schema. However, despite the variation, usually two aspects of a study are presented as data:

- ✓ The context.
- ✓ The quotations of the participants' (respondents') language.

The actual statements of the people interviewed (or observed) represent their constructions of their life-world, the meanings they give to social situations and events. The researcher's task is to arrange these views in a logical manner, making the participants' meanings as clear as possible.

4.4 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION: LEARNERS

4.4.1 Gender

Table 1: Frequency distribution according to the gender of respondents

	Gender	Frequency	Percentage
1	Males	50	50%
2	Females	50	50%
TOTAL		100	100%

Table 1 shows an equitable distribution of males and females. The reason for this was to ensure a gender balanced response.

This was an expected result because the research sample was randomly selected to ensure an equal gender percentage.

4.4.2 Age group of respondents

Table 2: Frequency distribution according to the age of respondents

	Age	Frequency	Percentage
1	14	63	63%
2	15	23	23%
3	16	12	12%
4	17	2	2%
TOTAL		100	100%

The majority of the respondents (63%) in the research sample are 14 years of age and are in Grade 9. Thirty-seven percent (37%) of the learners are 15 years and older and in Grade 10 (Table 2).

4.4.3 Race group of respondents

Table 3: Frequency distribution according to the race of respondents

	Race	Frequency	Percentage
1	Indian	55	55%
2	Black	45	45%
TOTAL		100	100%

This was an unexpected finding because of sample selection (cf. 3.2.2) (Table 3).

4.4.4 Home language of respondents

Table 4: Frequency distribution according to the home language of respondents

	Home language	Frequency	Percentage
1	English	55	55%
2	Zulu	45	45%
TOTAL		100	100%

The frequency distribution according to the home language of the respondents in Table 4 corresponds with the distribution in Table 3, as was expected. The mother tongue of the 45% black learners is Zulu and that of the 55% Indian learners, English.

4.4.5 Language proficiency

Table 5: Frequency distribution according to the language proficiency of learners

Table 5.1: Reading

LANGUAGE	ENGLISH				ZULU			
	English		Zulu		English		Zulu	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Good	52	95%	18	33%	-	-	-	-
Average	3	5%	26	47%	15	33%	13	69%
Poor	-	-	11	20%	26	58%	31	29%
No skill	-	-	-	-	4	9%	1	2%
TOTAL	55	100%	55%	100%	45%	100%	45	100%

Table 5.1 shows that the majority (95%) of the English speaking learners in the research sample said that their reading of English is good. This result could have been expected, as the mother tongue of the English learners should be English.

Most of the Zulu-speaking learners (69%) in Table 5.1 indicated that their reading proficiency in Zulu is good. A possible reason for this finding is that the learners were taught in Zulu from the foundation phase, and because their mother tongue is Zulu.

According to Table 5.1 the larger percentage (47%) of the English-speaking learners said that their reading ability in Zulu is average. This can be attributed to the fact that Zulu has only recently been introduced into our ex-House of Delegates (HOD) schools. Most of the Zulu-speaking learners (58%), reported the lowest level of proficiency in English; possible reasons being that English is not their mother tongue, and they attended black primary schools where the medium of instruction is predominantly Zulu.

Table 5.2: Writing

LANGUAGE	ENGLISH				ZULU			
	English		Zulu		English		Zulu	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Good	51	93%	18	33%	-	-	32	71%
Average	4	7%	26	47%	12	27%	12	27%
Poor	-	-	8	15%	29	64%	1	2%
No skill	-	-	3	5%	4	9%	-	-
TOTAL	55	100%	55%	100%	45%	100%	45	100%

Table 5.2 shows a high percentage (93%) of English-speaking learners in the research sample that indicated that their writing of English is good. Since English is the first language for 55% of the learners (cf. Table 5.1) this response was predictable. It is interesting to note that 7% of Zulu-speaking learners claim that their proficiency in English is average while 27% of English-speaking learners said that their proficiency in Zulu is average. A possible explanation for the nearly half (47%) of black learners that said their English writing is average is that they attended either previous Model-C schools or House of Delegates' primary schools where the medium of instruction is English.

Most of the Zulu-speaking learners (64%) indicated a poor proficiency in English writing. The high percentage can be attributed to the fact that English is not their first language.

Table 5.3: Speaking

LANGUAGE	ENGLISH				ZULU			
	English		Zulu		English		Zulu	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Good	53	96%	14	25%	2	4%	37	82%
Average	2	4%	29	53%	18	40%	7	16%
Poor	-	-	11	20%	21	27%	1	2%
No skill	-	-	1	2%	49%	9%	-	-
TOTAL	55	100%	55%	100%	45%	100%	45	100%

The majority of the English-speaking learners (96%) in the research sample indicated that their English speaking skills are good while 82% of the Zulu-speaking learners indicated that their speaking proficiency in Zulu is good (Table 5.3).

According to the responses in Table 5.3 more than half (53%) of the English-speaking learners indicated that they have an average speaking skill of Zulu. This research result might be explained by the following:

English-speaking learners learn to speak Zulu through their interaction with the Zulu-speaking learners in the school.

Zulu is offered as a school subject.

Forty percent (40%) of the Zulu-speaking learners said that they have an average speaking ability of English, which can possibly be contributed to them being taught through the medium of English.

Table 5.4: Listening

LANGUAGE	ENGLISH				ZULU			
	English		Zulu		English		Zulu	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Good	54	98%	16	29%	2	4%	39	87%
Average	1	2%	27	49%	16	36%	5	11%
Poor	-	-	11	20%	23	51%	1	2%
No skill	-	-	1	2%	4	9%	-	-
TOTAL	55	100%	55%	100%	45%	100%	45	100%

Table 5.4 shows that the majority of English-speaking learners (98%) that partook in the research indicated that their listening skills in English are good. Most of the Zulu-speaking learners (87%) indicated that their listening proficiency in Zulu is good. This was an expected finding as the mother tongue of the learners is English and Zulu, respectively.

The larger percentage (51%) of Zulu-speaking learners acknowledged that their listening skills in English were poor. A possible reason for this finding is that English is their second language and they were taught in Zulu from the foundation phase in primary school.

4.4.6 Language prediction

Table 6: Frequency according to languages learners anticipate using in different situations

Situation	Eng.		Afrik.		Zulu		Zulu & Eng.		Eng. & Zulu		Other		Total
	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	Frq.	%	
At home	48	48%	-	-	20	20%	28	28%	1	1%	3	3%	100
With friends	53	53%	-	-	12	12%	33	33%	-	-	2	2	100
Future profession	72	72%	-	-	4	4%	16	16%	3	3%	5	5%	100
With public servants	66	66%	1	1%	6	6%	22	22%	2	2%	3	3%	100
In the area you plan to live	64	64%	-	-	8	8%	22	22%	2	2%	4	4%	100

The responses in Table 6 on learners' views of the use of different languages in different situations, the following seems to be significant:

The larger percentage (48%) of learners in the research sample indicated that they communicate in English at home. This finding corresponds with the composition of the research sample, which consists of 55 English-speaking respondents (cf. 3.3.2). The latter also explains why more than half (53%) of the learners said that they converse in English with their friends.

Nearly three quarters (72%) of learners that partook in the research anticipate using English in their future professions while two-thirds (66%) anticipate using English in communicating with public servants and 64% will use it in the area they plan to live.

These findings can be compared with those of a study done by Chick and Wade in 1997.

In the study conducted by Chick and Wade in 1997, 636 respondents were asked which languages they anticipate using in various domains. Most of the respondents were students of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Durban) and other regional tertiary institutions. Their research focused on the responses of Zulu first-language speakers who constituted 79% of the total sample. The majority of the participants (81%) anticipated using mostly English in their future professions and 68% in their interaction with public servants. Chick and Wade (1997:274) claim that what they found most surprising was that almost half of the respondents indicated that they anticipated using English in the area where they planned to live and 19.7% indicated that they anticipated using English in their homes. These domains are currently replete with the use of indigenous languages.

South African Information (2008:1) shows the projected high status of English in South African society and it also indicates that the issue of access to English through schooling is going to remain a major priority among South Africans. This study reveals that English is going to remain a prestigious language although Zulu will play a prominent role – thus proficiency in English and Zulu is going to become increasingly important. Schools need to take cognizance of how functional the languages offered are in their Zulu-speaking learners' lives instead of persisting with the *status quo*.

4.4.7 Language preference

Table 7: Frequency distribution according to learners' preference for Zulu as a subject in the curriculum

	English learners		Zulu learners	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
a) Zulu taught as an examination subject	3	6%	23	51%
b) Zulu taught as a non-examination subject	36	65%	17	38%
c) Zulu not taught at all	16	29%	5	11%
TOTAL	55	100%	45	100%

Table 7 presents the result of learners' preferences concerning the issue of including Zulu in the curriculum. The frequencies as shown in Table 7 reveal that there is a marked difference in English learners' preference for Zulu as a curriculum subject.

The majority of English-speaking learners (65%) in the research sample indicated that they prefer Zulu to be taught as a non-examination subject. Possible reasons for this choice could be:

The degree of difficulty Zulu poses as a second language.

They have had limited exposure to Zulu and feel disadvantaged if it was included as an examination subject.

As a non-examination subject their examination results would not be adversely affected.

Only slightly more than half (51%) of the Zulu-speaking learners said that they prefer Zulu to be taught as an examination subject while close to forty percent (38%) indicated that they prefer Zulu to be offered as a non-examination subject. This rather surprising response from Zulu-speaking learners can possibly be explained by the following:

They have attended ex-HOD or Model-C primary schools where the only medium of instruction from Grade 1 is English.

4.4.8 Language priority

Table 8.1 Frequency distribution according to learners' choice of languages to be studied as first languages

	ENGLISH First Language		AFRIKAANS First Language		ZULU First Language		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
English first language learners	55	100%	-	-	-	-	55%
Zulu first language learners	40	89%	-	-	5	11%	45%
TOTAL	95	-	-	-	5	-	100%

According to Table 8.1 all the English first language learners (100%) in the research sample said that they chose to study English as first language. Ndebele (1987:14) makes the point that 'At a certain juncture, education appears to have become synonymous with the acquisition of English.' This happens to be the case in South Africa where people associate English with education and therefore English has become an automatic choice.

The majority of Zulu first language learners (89%) indicated that their choice of a first language to be studied is English although Zulu is their home language. A possible explanation for this is the fact that Zulu first language learners see English as a language associated with education and opportunity. Another reason why Zulu learners may be reluctant to study Zulu could be because they regard Zulu as a difficult language. This suggests a need to review the Zulu curriculum so that the language sheds the label of being 'old-fashioned' and 'difficult'. It would also be necessary to develop innovative texts and materials and use methods of teaching that are more contemporary.

Table 8.2 Frequency distribution according to learners' choice of languages to be studied as second languages

	ENGLISH Second Language		AFRIKAANS Second Language		ZULU Second Language		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
English first language learners	-	-	41	75%	14	25%	55%
Zulu first language learners	4	9%	6	13%	35	78%	45%
TOTAL	4	-	47	-	49	-	100%

The frequency of responses in Table 8.2 show that three-quarters (75%) of the English first language-speaking learners selected Afrikaans to be studied as second language. In many ex-HOD schools, the only languages that are taught are English as first language and Afrikaans as the second language. Zulu is not taught at all or is taught as a non-examination subject. Afrikaans is introduced from Grade 3. Therefore, it would be easier for the English first language learners to select Afrikaans as their second language because they have a strong foundation of the language

The majority of Zulu-speaking learners (78%) that partook in the research said that their choice of a second language is Zulu, which is not surprising since it is their mother tongue.

4.4.9 Language process

Table 9: Frequency distribution according to learners' choice of medium of instruction

		ENGLISH Learners		ZULU Learners	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%
a)	Zulu from Grade 1 to Matric	-	-	6	13%
b)	English from Grade 1 to Matric	52	94%	25	56%
c)	Zulu from Grade 1 to Matric with a switch to English from Grade 5	2	4%	11	24%
d)	Zulu from Grade 1 with a switch to English from Grade 8	1	2%	3	7%
TOTAL		55	100%	45	100%

Table 9 shows that more than ninety percent of the English-speaking learners in the research sample selected English as medium of instruction throughout

their schooling. The reason for such a finding is that English is their home language and learners have acquired the necessary language skills from the foundation phase.

The larger percentage (56%) of Zulu-speaking learners indicated that their choice of language for learners from Grade 1 to matriculation would be English. Although English is not their mother tongue, learners might feel that English is a superior language and a key to international success. Most textbooks are written in English. Subject terminology is also written in English and not Zulu. Furthermore, the medium of instruction at tertiary institutions, including universities and colleges is English.

4.5 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

De Vos (1998:337) drew attention to the fact that ‘there is no wrong approach to data analysis in qualitative research’ but she added that ‘there are general guidelines a researcher can adhere to as well as strategies for analysis that have been utilized by qualitative researchers.’ According to Miles and Huberman (1994:428-444) data analysis consists primarily of three linked sub-processes, which are data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing or verification.

The activity of data analysis needs a lot of well-informed practice and grounding of data manipulation skills. It cannot be compromised because, as Patton (Cresswell, 1994:150) observes, ‘the data generated by qualitative methods are voluminous, and ‘sitting down to make sense out of pages of interviews and whole files of field notes can be overwhelming.’ Central to this process is the focus on data ‘reduction’ and data ‘interpretation’ (Cresswell, 1994:154). As Hasselkus (Moraba, 1996:45) observes, this process is meant to equip the researcher with the given credibility to enable the reader to follow the thinking that led to the reported findings, which involves, ‘providing the reader with enough details and verbatim quotes from informants ...’. To initiate this data analysis process, the researcher had to take the voluminous amounts of data, reduce it to observed patterns and handle it as developed themes, categories

and sub-categories. This was then interpreted and discussed by including substantiating quotes from the learners and educators who were the respondents of this research (Cresswell, 1994:154). Where necessary, clarifying comments directed at giving either a broad or particular contextual setting of codes are given in brackets.

4.5.1 **Description of the sampled population**

The qualitative research only involved educators and learners from Welbedene Secondary School. Participants were requested to express or relate their views, opinions and experiences concerning language choice at school. The relevance of the responses, freely demonstrated interest and recommendations form some key informants. Individual interviews were conducted with educators according to different subjects that they teach (cf. 3.2.2).

4.5.2 **The school: Welbedene Secondary**

Welbedene Secondary is situated on the periphery of Chatsworth and Welbedacht, a low socio-economic residential area in Durban. This school has been a so-called Indian school and an ex-HOD (House of Delegates) school. The teaching staff consists of 21 Indian educators. There are 620 learners in the school, including 279 Zulu-speaking and 341 English-speaking learners. Welbedene Secondary had admitted learners from different population groups before it became state policy to do so. Therefore, at Welbedene Secondary, there has been a gradual increase in the number of Zulu learners.

In 1991, when state schools were granted permission to desegregate, there was not a sudden influx of black learners to Welbedene Secondary. Unlike other schools, which were caught by surprise with the sudden influx of black learners, Welbedene Secondary has had the advantage of developing strategies over a long period of time to accommodate learners from different population and language groups. However, despite this advantage and changes in legislation regarding the status of languages in South Africa, Welbedene Secondary has continued with 'business as usual', that is, English

is used as the sole medium of instruction and is taught as a first language and Afrikaans is taught as a second language (cf. 2.7).

4.5.3 Educators

Six educators, four males and two females, were interviewed. They were between 41 and 60 years of age. Two educators held an academic qualification only whilst three were only professionally qualified. Only one educator was academically and professionally qualified. All educators were members of professional educators' unions, and were registered or had applied for registration with the South African Council of Educators (SACE) under the South African Council of Educators Act, Act 31 of 2000 (Brunton & Associates, 2003:1-18).

4.5.4 Biographical information of educators

In this section information regarding the biographical issues such as gender, age, qualifications, years of completed service, posts held and post levels of educators were obtained and analysed.

4.5.4.1 Gender of respondents

Table 10: Frequency distribution according to gender of respondents (educators)

	Gender	Frequency	Percentage
1	Males	4	67%
2	Females	2	33%
	TOTAL	6	100%

Table 10 shows that 67% males and 33% females participated in the educator interview process. An expected finding because of sample selection (cf. 4.5.3).

4.5.4.2 Age of respondents

Table 11: Frequency distribution according to age of the respondents (educators)

	Age	Frequency	Percentage
1	41-45	2	33%
2	46-50	2	33%
3	51-55	1	17%
4	55-60	1	17%
TOTAL		6	100%

The majority of the respondents (66%) is between 41-50 years old (Table 11) and are Level 1 educators.

4.5.4.3 Qualifications of respondents

Table 12: Frequency distribution according to the qualifications of the respondents (educators)

	Qualifications	Frequency	Percentage
1	Academic only	2	33%
2	Professional only	3	50%
3	Academic + Prof	1	17%
TOTAL		6	100%

According to the frequencies in Table 12, only one educator holds an academic and a professional qualification. A possible reason may be that educators are disinclined to better their qualifications since no salary increment is given for improved qualifications from the Department of Education.

4.5.4.4 Years of completed service as at 01/09/2009

Table 13: Frequency distribution according to years of completed service of respondents (educators)

	Completed years	Frequency	Percentage
1	21-25	2	33%
2	26-30	3	50%
3	31-35	1	17%
TOTAL		6	100%

Table 13 shows that half (50%) of the educators in the research sample completed between 26-30 years of service. An educator with many years of teaching experience might have in-depth knowledge about learners' attitudes towards language choice.

4.5.4.5 Post held by respondents

Table 14: Frequency distribution according to the type of post held by the respondents

	Post held	Frequency	Percentage
1	Permanent	4	67%
2	Temporary	2	33%
TOTAL		6	100%

Most of the educators (67%) are on the permanent staff (Table 14).

4.5.4.6 Post level of respondents

Table 15: Frequency distribution according to post level of respondents (educators)

	Post level	Frequency	Percentage
1	Principal	1	17%
2	Deputy Principal	Nil	0%
3	HOD	1	17%
4	Educator	4	66%
	TOTAL	6	100%

Table 15 shows that the Principal occupies 17%; the HODs occupy 17% and the Educators occupy 66% of the respondents' pool.

4.5.5 Questions posed to participants and the themes that emerged from collected and analysed data

The following research questions were posed to the educators:

What problems, if any, have you experienced when teaching multi-ethnic classes?

What steps or methods of teaching have you undertaken to address these problems?

Which language do learners use in learner-learner communication?

Which language is used in educator-learner communication?

How would you rate your Zulu-speaking learners' proficiency in English?

How would you rate your Zulu-speaking learners' participation in your lessons compared to your English-speaking learners?

Are you presently developing proficiency in any languages?

Which language or languages should be the medium / media of learning at Welbedene Secondary School?

4.6 THEMES OF THE QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

The following outline, Table 16, is a summary of the themes and sub-themes that developed as possible categories under which the main outcomes of the research were represented (cf. 4.3).

Table 16: Themes and sub-themes that emerged from the interviews

4.6.1	Problems experienced when teaching multi-ethnic classes:
4.6.1.1	Language and communication
4.6.1.2	Marginalization of Zulu-speaking learners
4.6.2	Methods implemented by educators to address language problems experienced in multi-ethnic classes.
4.6.2.1	The use of simple language.
4.6.2.2	Speaking slower than normal.
4.6.2.3	Repeating important and/or different concepts
4.6.2.4	Use of audio visual devices
4.6.2.5	Use of a "buddy system"
4.6.3	Communication between learners is in their mother tongue; Zulu-speaking learners communicate in Zulu and English-speaking learners in English.
4.6.4	Zulu-speaking learners' participation in lessons are average and below average in comparison with English-speaking learners.
4.6.4.1	Learners are exposed to learning in a language that they do not fully understand.
4.6.4.2	Zulu-speaking learners lack confidence.
4.6.4.3	Oral communication problems.
4.6.4.4	Frustration from the experience of knowing the answer but not having adequate vocabulary to express it.
4.6.5	English first language learners' support for English as the medium of instruction.
4.6.6	Zulu-speaking learners' preference for the use of both Zulu and English in the classroom.
4.6.7	Learners see English as the universal language, which would open doors of opportunity for them.
4.6.8	Educators were not willing to learn any languages other than English.

The themes identified from the interviews with the educators, Table 16, will be the focus of the following discussions.

4.6.1 Problems experienced when teaching multi-ethnic classes

4.6.1.1 Language and communication

All the educators in the research sample acknowledged that they experienced problems teaching multi-ethnic classes. The common problem in most cases was the language or communication problem as can be inferred from the following excerpts:

- ✓ “One is the language problem ... definitely ... there is a problem with language and communication.” (SKN – ANNEXURE I)
- ✓ “One of the major ones will be language where you have the second language speakers in the class.” (cf. JPN – ANNEXURE J)
- ✓ “We do experience problems in the geography room especially the terminology. Learners are not able to work example related to simple terms and well we have a problem with most of the black learners.” (cf. US – ANNEXURE K)
- ✓ “I find having to teach a language I find Afrikaans being a third language would not be understood by the majority of learners because it’s a third language.” (cf. EAS – ANNEXURE L)

4.6.1.2 Zulu –speaking learners are marginalized

The medium of instruction is English, which is not easily accessible to the Zulu first language learners. As a result, Zulu first language learners are marginalized in the classroom and are regarded as a ‘problem’. It is interesting to note that the principal indicated that the language problem has resolved itself over time. He said:

“While I’m an educator I had the opportunity of teaching multi-ethnic classes. In those early years the problem with multi-ethnicity was that I found the so-called African children had difficulty with English but over a period of time I noticed that there has been a marked change in the entire medium through which they communicate in that learners were

now exposed to English from the primary school onwards so the problem of English has resolved itself over time.” (cf. SR – ANNEXURE M)

He further mentioned that he is not actually teaching learners but in his capacity as principal in dealing with problems, he does not experience any inconvenience as far as communication is concerned. However, the issues that the principal deals with in his office in most cases concern learners' misdemeanours and other general problems. The type of interaction that he has with learners is different from the interaction that educators have when they are teaching the learners.

4.6.2 **Methods to address language problems experienced in class**

4.6.2.1 The use of simple language

Educators were making every endeavour to accommodate the different learners in their classrooms. They mentioned various techniques; including using simple language, speaking slower than normal, emphasizing important concepts, using examples and the use of audio-visual resources. These techniques can be discerned from the following comments:

- ✓ “I try to use simpler terms I tend to go a bit slowly with them now emphasizing each concept and doing a lot of work on the board ... Showing by example.” (cf. SKN – ANNEXURE I)
- ✓ “None at all. Sometimes I feel if I speak a little slower in class I will be better understood but I don't think so” (laughs) (cf. JPN – ANNEXURE J)
- ✓ “With the language itself I don't seem to have much of a problem with them because I tend to relate you know bring my use of sentences in terms very low you know to their level ...” (cf. US – ANNEXURE K)
- ✓ “Okay, with Afrikaans we are simplifying our work like if you compare that we did last year to what we are doing this year, we are trying to cater for the

disadvantaged learners like we are using lots of audio-visual aids.” (cf. PS – ANNEXURE N)

It seems that the most common step undertaken by educators is proceeding with a lesson at a much slower pace than usual and using simple language.

4.6.2.2 The introduction of the ‘buddy-system’ to help Zulu first-language learners

The educators that partook in the research have the following views of the “buddy system”:

“What I do in my class is I use the buddy system. I group the Indian learners with the black learners and if they have any problems throughout the year then the Indian learners will help the black learners with you know with simple English problems that they have you know in relation to that. That seems to have worked well for me from the time that I’ve started it seems to have worked well and that’s what I’ve done.” (cf. ANNEXURE K)

Although the educator has good intentions by using the ‘buddy system’, it is clear that the English first language learner becomes the ‘helper’ while the Zulu first language learner is the ‘helpee’ and is immediately placed in an inferior position. There is no equality in this relationship (Luthuli, 2003:73). In fact, in all the years that the school has been integrated, the buddy system has been the only programme implemented to help the Zulu first language learners. This system involves grouping a ‘bright’ English first language learner with a weak Zulu first language learner with aspects of the syllabus that he finds problematic. Many educators have incorporated this system in the classrooms where they group English first language learners with Zulu first language learners with the intention of having the English first language learners help the Zulu first language learners. This system would work if it rewarded both groups with both of them feeling that they had something worthwhile to contribute. However, since it is a one-sided system, it tends to entrench feelings of

superiority on the part of the English first language learner and instills in the Zulu first language learner feelings of inferiority.

4.6.3 Learner-learner communication is in the ‘mother tongue’ and educator-learner communication is the language of instruction, viz. English

According to the educators in learner-learner communication, Zulu is the main language used and in educator-learner communication the language used is English. When educators spoke about learner-learner communication, they interpreted it as communication between Zulu first language learners alone. There is, however, very little interaction between English first language and Zulu first language learners. The educators probably took it for granted that learner-learner communication between English first language learners would be English and communication between English first language learners and Zulu first language learners would be through the medium of English, because the majority of the English first language learners are not proficient in Zulu. In fact, Indian learners and black learners tend to keep to their own racial groups both in class and on the playground. However, there is integration between the two racial groups when, for example, the educator makes the Zulu first language and English first language learners sit next to one another. Consequently, due to their proximity, they tend to interact. In classes where there is a minority of Indian learners there is a greater interaction between the Indian and black learners. There is also interaction on the sports field, in competitions, etc. The following are some of the educators’ responses pertaining to languages used in learner-learner communication.

- ✓ “In learner-learner they prefer Zulu and they tell us as well they prefer Zulu because certain things it’s better understood when it’s spoken in Zulu ... and learner-educator it’s English. I have a problem I don’t speak Zulu.” (cf. SKN – ANNEXURE I)

- ✓ “Learner-learner communication it’s basically Zulu mostly Zulu with Zulu learners and educator-learner it’s English I suppose because I don’t understand Zulu.” (cf. US – ANNEXURE K)
- ✓ “Most of the time I find they switch to English. Okay with learner-learner communication if I’ve given them work to do on their own and when they are discussing they will switch to the languages that they prefer, for example a Zulu speaking learner will then tend to speak in Zulu with his colleague but when they are conversing with me I prefer it to be in Afrikaans although I accept English.” (cf. EAS – ANNEXURE L)

This view is also expressed by the other Afrikaans teacher (PS) who was interviewed. She points out that Afrikaans is increasingly being taught through the medium of English. These statements show that in the Afrikaans class, English is used and this has been a practice where Afrikaans has been taught as a second language. However, the scenario has now changed because classes now have Zulu first language learners who are learning Afrikaans as a second language although it is a third language for them. They tend to use Zulu in the class when talking to their friends. However, the educator does not acknowledge their language. Educators are prepared to accommodate the first language of the Indian learners, which is English, but the first language of the African learners is not accepted in the classroom. This could be due to the fact that the educators are not proficient in Zulu. In this regard the following comments are relevant:

- ✓ “Very often when it’s learner-learner I think it’s their mother tongue – it may not be Zulu but their mother tongue. When it’s educator-learner it’s English and you also get learners often relating to the educator relating back to their friends in their mother tongue, probably they see that as a means of enabling their friends to understand what’s happening in class ... probably you ... you tend to get I won’t say mediators, but spokesmen for certain learners that don’t understand. You do have situations where the learners don’t know two words of English at all and it’s their friends that help them

along even though I'm not proficient in Zulu or any other black languages.”
(cf. JPN – ANNEXURE J)

These comments suggest that Zulu is being used as a medium of learning with the learners translating what the educator is saying into Zulu. Learners also play the role of mediators between the learners and educators when learners do not understand. This may result in the educator repeating the work or elaborating further. The educator is using the learners' multilingual skills to accommodate them and ensure that effective learning is taking place in the classroom. Language is used as a resource to reach out to the other learners.

The following comment made by the principal indicates his views concerning the use of languages in the school:

- ✓ “I found that when learners communicate with each other, especially the black learners, they tend to resort to their mother tongue. In most cases in this school it is Zulu. I personally tried to discourage this. I have made it very clear to the learners when their parents brought them to this school ... one of the questions I asked was: “Why are you coming to my school?” The parents indicated that they wanted their children to be taught in English and I made it clear to the learner that if you want to be taught in English you need to speak English and I've tried to discourage the use of Zulu amongst learners.” (cf. SR – ANNEXURE M)

As the leader of the school, the principal's view on language is very important because it impacts on decisions that are made about language. His response shows that he subscribes to the view that if the learner wants to learn English then he needs to speak English. The principal believes that learners need to be immersed in English in order for them to acquire proficiency in English. The fact that the principal saw the school as being his school meant that the learners had to adapt to specific language rules. He also discourages Zulu, which is the language of the majority of learners in the school. This shows that he does not accept all the languages of the learners at the school.

4.6.4 Zulu-speaking learners' participation in lessons are average and below average in comparison with English-speaking learners

The Zulu-speaking learners' proficiency in English would give an indication of the extent to which they are able to understand the content of their lessons and participate in discussions. Most of the educators rated their learners as average and below average. The following substantiates this:

"In English average or below average" (cf. JPN – ANNEXURE J) "you get different types. Some learners are between 0 and 10% ... proficiency in English. They don't know even when you ask them to stand up. They haven't been eh ... using a lot of English at all especially these things occur especially with large number of eh Zulu-speaking learners." (cf. SKN – ANNEXURE I) "Eh I'd average, average yah. They can grasp general knowledge imparted to them but when it comes to level four questions they have a problem. The test situation I'm talking about now they have a problem relating." (cf. US – ANNEXURE J)

"At this point in time if I had to give it a percentage I will rate them in the region of 68 to 75%. So that's fairly for learners who's schooling whose entire school was through the medium of Zulu." (cf. SR – ANNEXURE M)

4.6.4.1 Learners are exposed to learning in a language that they do not fully understand

Learners are not able to understand the simplest of instructions and if this is so it means that an entire lesson or lessons would be lost to them. Spolsky as quoted by Fasold (1989:298) said that "incomprehensible education is immoral: there can be no justification for assuming that children will pick up the school language on their own, and no justification for not developing some programme that will make it possible for children to learn the standard language and for them to continue to be educated all the time that this is going on."

This statement is significant in relation to what is happening in most South African schools where many of the learners are exposed to learning in a language that they do not fully understand. If learners are not able to comprehend a lesson, as can be inferred from the interviews conducted, then surely it is immoral for the *status quo* to remain. Measures need to be taken to ensure that all the learners are accommodated in the school system. It would be irresponsible to continue with a system where the lucky few are able to cope while others are experiencing difficulties.

The statement by US suggests that learners have a problem with level four questions, which are the evaluative questions where they need to solve problems and state their views. Most often, these questions carry the most marks.

If the Zulu first language learners have difficulty in answering these questions, they stand to lose a substantial portion of their marks. It is clear that they would therefore be disadvantaged because of their limited proficiency in English.

The principal's response is very different from the educators' ones. His perception of the learners' proficiency in English could be rated as above average. A possible explanation for this contradictory response is that as principal of the school, he wants to show that everything is fine in his school and there are no communication problems.

Acknowledging a problem may reflect poorly on his competence as the principal. As such I would regard the principal's response as a deviation from the norm and therefore not a typical view.

4.6.4.2 Zulu-speaking learners lack confidence

The following were responses from educators concerning the confidence of Zulu-speaking learners in class:

“I think the participation in learners comes through confidence and I found that the learner may know an answer but will lack the actual confidence to give the answer. Unfortunately this has a negative response from the educator because they automatically tend to maintain that the learner does not know but when you have a written exercise you find that the table is leveled here and the chances of the learner’s performing well is clearly seen in a written exercise.” (cf. SR – ANNEXURE M)

JPN maintained that participation is mixed and he does not differentiate between Indian learners and black learners:

”I think at the end of the day you don’t look at it as black and English first language speakers because their participation is mixed. You do get the weaker ones although they eh do make an effort and you do get the child who sits back and does nothing.” (cf. JPN – ANNEXURE J)

However, many of the educators generally seem to agree that the Indian learners participate more than the black learners.

4.6.4.3 Oral communication problems

Learners indicated to educators that in English their skills in speaking are lower than their skills in reading, writing and listening.

This implies that there is a problem with oral communication. A possible reason could be the fact that learners lack confidence. This could be one of the reasons why learners are silent in the classroom.

4.6.4.4 Frustration from the experience of knowing the answer but not having adequate vocabulary to express it

“The minimal participation of black learners is to avoid being ostracized due to a lack of fluency in English.” (cf. EAS – ANNEXURE L)

This fits in with the conclusion of Lemmer (1995:93) that pupils are said to be experiencing frustration from the experience of knowing the answer, but not having adequate vocabulary to express it, the bewilderment of being thrust into an alien environment, and the lack of preparation to deal with an all-English experience.

Zulu first language learners become anxious and frustrated because they are grappling with the language and they feel trapped. However, they cope with the written exercises very well because it is less stressful than spoken interaction. From the comments made by the educators, there is an indication that learners lack the confidence to express themselves. The point made by SR that participation comes through confidence may have some truth in it. If the learner's language and culture is not valued in the classroom, he might feel excluded and therefore it might be difficult to participate.

A strong argument for mother tongue teaching, according to Milk (1993:103) is to instill confidence, which is an essential prerequisite for learning. The exclusion of the learners' mother tongue and the sole use of English as the medium of learning would affect the learners' self-esteem. It is only natural that learners would feel powerless and excluded from the lesson because their language and life experiences are not acknowledged in the classroom. The use of the learners' home language, however, could change the situation to the learners' advantage. Current theories of second language acquisition show, among other things, that the use of the first language reduces anxiety and enhances the affective environment for learning and facilitates the incorporation of the learners' life experiences (Auerbach, 1995:20). The use of the home language would give learners a positive self-concept and motivation to learn. The following are some of the responses that were yielded to educators by learners:

“Because I will understand.”

“I don't understand English that's why I choose Zulu.”

“Because I love Zulu.”

“I understand English but the reason is that Zulu is my first language at home.”

“I like Zulu because it my cultural language and we speak Zulu in my home.”

“Because I can pass Zulu.”

4.6.5 **English first-language learners’ support for English as the medium of instruction**

According to the educators interviewed, English first language learners showed an overwhelming support for English as the medium of learning. English first language learners tend to support the English medium because it is both their home language and the language in which they are proficient. The following is a sample of learners’ comments made to educators:

“I feel English is my language and therefore I think it should be taught.”

“We know it since we have been going to school and it is our home language.”

“I do not have any capability of speaking and understanding Zulu.”

“It is the common language used all over the world so people must be able to speak it.”

“I think Zulu is very hard to understand. English is easy to understand.”

4.6.6 **Zulu-speaking learners’ preference for the use of both Zulu and English in the classroom**

According to educators, Zulu-speaking learners showed a preference for the use of both Zulu and English in the classroom. The following statements made by learners were reported during interviews with educators:

“I would like it because I am a Zulu and I will fill [*sic*] like a part of the school.”

“I would feel overwhelmed. I’ve always like having two of my best languages taught at school.”

“I will feel better because I understand Zulu better than English.”

“Good and more interested in my schoolwork because I’ll understand almost everything I’m taught.”

“I feel okay because if I’m lost to English I will understand what he or she says in Zulu.”

“I will like it because there are some difficult words that us Zulu people we can’t understand.”

The first two statements imply the exclusion of Zulu from the curriculum alienates the Zulu first language learner. The use of both English and Zulu will give the learners a sense of identity and belonging to the ethos of the school. The other statements indicate that the use of both English and Zulu will help the Zulu first language learners understand their lessons better. Hence, the present policy of English being the sole medium of learning excludes the Zulu first language learners.

It is interesting to note that some of the Zulu first language learners felt that the Indian learners needed to be exposed to Zulu in order to learn it. This is evident from the following statements made by learners as reported by educators:

“I would like it because Indians must know Zulu.”

“I would like it because that can make the other learners like Indians to understand Zulu.”

“I would like it because Indian learners don’t really understand Zulu and I think they should get a chance from there.”

These statements show that Zulu first language learners feel that Indian learners need to know Zulu so that they can interact with one another. At Welbedene Secondary, the English first language learners only tend to interact with Zulu first language learners who are proficient in English. If the English first language learners were to develop some knowledge of Zulu, they would be able to communicate with more Zulu first language learners.

Some of the English first language learners, although a small number, indicated that they too, would accept the use of English and Zulu in the classroom. The following are some of learners’ comments to educators:

“Better – because some of the African learners don’t understand English. They understand just some words.”

“Happy. Because most of the new students that come from black schools would understand what the teacher is saying.”

“I think it would be good because it would be fair to other learners and we would have a chance to learn other languages.”

“I would like it because it will help the other learners and I could probably learn Zulu in class.”

Some of the English first language learners indicate that they would accept the use of English and Zulu if it helps the Zulu first language learners. This shows that they are fully aware that the Zulu first language learners do not understand

English well enough and therefore empathize with them. English first language learners also feel that the use of both English and Zulu would be beneficial to them because it would enable them to learn Zulu.

On the other hand, there are some learners who are opposed to the idea of both English and Zulu being used in the lesson. Zulu-speaking learners remarked as follows to educators:

- ✓ “I would dislike it because I really want to improve my English.”
- ✓ “I will not like it because it will confuse me and I love English.”
- ✓ “I would dislike it because I’m here to learn English so he must talk in English until I get it.”
- ✓ “Some teachers are not fluent or the pronunciation is not clear.”

For these learners, using Zulu in the classroom would interfere with the acquisition of English. They believe the more English the educator uses, the better they would be able to understand. These learners also express the view and are aware of the fact that their educators do not have proficiency in Zulu so they would not be able to use it as a medium of teaching. If educators had proficiency in the dominant languages of their learners, it would allow them to interact more effectively with their learners.

Just as there were Zulu first language learners who were opposed to the use of both English and Zulu in the classroom, so too were there many English first language learners who were not too keen about both the languages being used in the classroom. They commented as follows to their educators:

- ✓ “I would not like it because if the section is long it would take time to complete it if we have to change to Zulu.”

- ✓ “Bad. Because maybe the most important points made, is said in Zulu, I would not know what’s happening in class.”
- ✓ “I would not know what is going on. The teacher would spend his time explaining Zulu to pupils instead of explaining the lesson.”
- ✓ “If black pupils don’t understand English then it would be easy for them to go to a school where there is Zulu taught.”

It seems that the main concern of the English first language learners is that time would be wasted if Zulu were to be used. Also, these learners are concerned that they would not understand what was being taught especially if the important points were to be made in Zulu. However, the English first language learners do not seem to realize that Zulu first language learners also do not understand the lessons fully when English is used as the sole medium of learning. They show a lack of sensitivity and tolerance for the problems that most Zulu first language learners experience in the classroom.

4.6.7 **Learners see English as the universal language which would open doors of opportunities for them**

Like the English first language learners, the Zulu first language learners too, see English as a world language. They also identify English as a language that is used in South Africa. The other reasons they chose the English medium is that they feel English would ‘open the doors’ to opportunities for them, that is, enable them to access tertiary education and employment. The following are comments made by learners to educators:

“I believe English is essential. After all it is regarded as a universal language. Most countries speak English, so why don’t we?”

“Seeing as English is a No. 1 language, I would not mind Zulu being taught as a 2nd.”

“Because the present society is more advanced to English and everything is done by English almost all over the world.”

“Because English is the language used even in parliament.”

“Cause English is the language we use in South Africa.”

“So that you get used to speaking the language and when you go to the university or work, you don’t have a problem.”

“We need it to get somewhere in life.”

“I chose English because you have to know it. Cause you can’t get a job without knowing English.”

It is interesting to note that learners see English as the language that politicians use and the language that ‘we use in South Africa.’ As Pennycook (1994:14) observes, the new elite in African countries are very proficient in English and occupy positions of power. Therefore, it is not surprising that English is perceived by many as a language of upward social mobility. Learners may be subscribing to this view. Hence, they see English as a gatekeeper to better jobs and positions of prestige in society. It is also worth mentioning that the Zulu first language learners believe that the earlier they are exposed to English, the better. These were some of the learners’ views on this issue as aired to their educators:

“Because if you start learning in Grade 1, if you are in Grade 12 you know English very well.”

“If you learn English at Grade 1, it is easy to understand when you grow up.”

There is significant support for Zulu as a medium of learning from Grade 1 with a switch to the English medium in Grade 5 (25%). The learners indicate that they have difficulty grasping English in the early years and would therefore

prefer the Zulu medium at first. However, they feel because Zulu is their home language there is no need to continue studying it. They see Zulu in negative terms and refer to it as 'weak' language and a 'difficult' language. English, however, is seen as a prestigious language and worthy of study.

According to the educators, the following were some of the learners' responses in class:

"Because in class, I don't understand if the teacher teaches us in English."

"Because I don't understand English on the small classes."

"Because I don't want to learn Zulu for a long time because it is my language."

"Because Zulu is not a strong language. It is a difficult language."

"Because if you talk in Zulu it is easy but if you write it difficult."

"Because I want to learn a little Zulu and to know English."

"Because Zulu is my home language and English is the most important language in the world."

The above comments show that learners would appreciate being taught through their mother tongue during the first few years of education. However, they indicate a strong desire to learn English probably because of the status it has in our society. The learners also subscribe to the view that because they know their mother tongue there is no need to study it. However, Fasold (1984:294) argues that children know their mother tongue to serve a child's purposes but their facility in it needs to be increased; it is not so much that the school would be teaching the mother tongue as teaching other subjects in the mother tongue.

The educators' attitudes towards the medium of learning were ascertained in the interviews that were conducted with them (cf. Interview Schedule – ANNEXURE H). They were asked the question, 'which language or language(s) should be the medium (media) of learning at Welbedene Secondary School?' They were further probed to understand the reasons for their choice. All the interviewees unanimously voiced their support for English to be the medium of learning. The following statements made by learners to educators to attest this view:

"I'd say English because well relating to myself I don't know any other language. I'd prefer English." (cf. US – ANNEXURE K)

"I believe that the prime medium of instruction should be English ... for the sake of universal ... it being a universal language but maybe this is my selfish thoughts here and eh for the sake of uniformity, do you think that's possible." (cf. JPN – ANNEXURE J)

"I would go for English. It should definitely be the medium of teaching ... I think mostly because I'm comfortable with having English as the medium of language okay and that's firstly. Secondly I think for most of our learners here would be comfortable with that they would go for that and this being historically you know as English medium school ... I think it would take a long time before we you know we move away from that process." (cf. EAS – ANNEXURE L)

"At Welbedene Secondary I think English should be the medium of instruction because we don't have many teachers who would be able to teach any subject *via* Zulu and it will be a disservice to the child living in this community here who has never had the opportunity to be taught *via* Zulu." (cf. SR – ANNEXURE M).

The educators believe that English should be the medium of instruction because it is the only language that they know. English is an attractive option

because it is a 'universal' language. It is seen as a language that would ensure uniformity in the sense that everyone can be taught *via* English rather than having different languages being used. This view sees many languages causing division whereas one language causes unity. JPN says "my selfish thoughts" which shows that he realizes that he is choosing English because it is the language that he is proficient in. It is only natural that people would want to support a language that they are familiar with but at the same time they must examine the reasons for their choices so that they do not allow for the perpetuation of a system that disadvantages the learner. EAS suggests that learners are comfortable with the school being an English-medium until such time that they choose a Zulu-medium. This is true. Learners do come to the school because they want to learn English. The question is whether decisions regarding language should be the prerogative of learners or that of educators who know what is educationally sound.

It is interesting to note that all decisions regarding the curriculum is the sole responsibility of educators, yet decisions concerning language is left to the discretion of learners and their parents. Although about forty-five percent of the population of the school consists of Zulu-speaking learners, the fact that they are not part of the English first language (Indian) community disadvantages them. It would seem that the school's primary aim is to serve the immediate (Indian) community. SR does not see the sole use of English as a disservice to the learner who may come from a school where English has not been made the main medium of learning. This basically shows that the Zulu first language learners are expected to adapt while the policies in the school itself remain stagnant and favourable to the English first language learners. From my discussion of parents', learners' and educators' attitudes towards the Zulu medium as compared to the English medium, it is evident that there is greater support for the English medium.

4.6.8 **Educators were not willing to learn any languages other than English**

When the educators were asked in the interview with them whether they were developing proficiency in any languages, their responses were as follows:

SKN “No, I don’t have the time.”

JPN “No I hope to (laughs)”

US “No ... I would like to though.”

EAS “No not really (laughs)”

SR “Unfortunately because I’m in management now I have not had the opportunity to do that.”

PS “(Laughs) To be honest, no.”

It is interesting to note that from the comments made by some of the educators, there is an implicit understanding that developing their proficiency in other languages would be beneficial for both themselves and their learners. This is evident in the following comment:

“It would definitely benefit the learners. Because of the syllabus and the time factor I don’t have any time.” (cf. ANNEXURE I)

The educators feel almost embarrassed that they have not made any attempts to develop proficiency in other languages. This explains their nervous laughter and excuses. The educators’ responses indicate that they are not multilingual and yet they see their learners as being deficient or limited in English. They do not see themselves as having limited proficiency and therefore make concerted efforts to develop their proficiency in other languages.

4.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the data collected from the methods outlined in Chapter five, namely the questionnaires filled in by and interviews conducted with educators were analysed. The findings reveal that despite the changes in language legislation in the country, not much in terms of language policy has changed at Welbedene Secondary. The governing body of the school is unaware of the

role it has to play in formulating language policy. Important decisions concerning language are made by educators and in the interest of educators. This goes against state policy. Although learners and parents show support for Zulu, it is excluded from the curriculum. As have shown, there are problems in terms of communication in the classroom. However, these problems have been largely ignored. English is used as the language of communication with learners and is almost solely used as the language of learning in the classroom. The use of Zulu in the classroom is almost minimal. Welbedene Secondary maintains a semblance of normality in the face of simmering problems.

The analysis of the data presented in this chapter shall be used to draw up recommendations about choosing languages as subjects and media of learning and teaching. These recommendations shall be presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter a summary from the previous chapters will be presented. This will be followed by findings from the literature review and empirical study, recommendations and criticism that emanates from this study. A final remark will conclude the chapter.

5.2 SUMMARY

5.2.1 Statement of the problem

This study investigated learners' attitudes towards language choice at Welbedene Secondary School. In the literature study and through empirical research it was found that the language policy of the school does not cater adequately for the needs of its learners. It was established that in spite of the changes in language legislation in the country, the governing body of the school is unaware of the role it has played in formulating language policy. There are problems in terms of communication in the classroom but they have been ignored to a large extent. Important discussions concerning language are made by the educators and in the interest of educators. English is used as the language of communication with learners and is almost solely used as the language of communication in the classroom.

5.2.2 Literature review

South Africa has moved from a bilingual past, with English and Afrikaans as the only two official languages, to a multilingual future, with eleven official languages.

The constitution of South Africa (1996:4) guarantees language freedom to every member of South African society, by stating that all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably. In addition to the acknowledgement of more than two official languages, South Africa's first democratic election in 1994 also brought about changes in the demography of schooling.

Previously, educational provision was divided along ethnic lines. These divisions have now been blurred with the introduction of "mixed" or integrated schools. Today, many urban South African schools are made up of learners with the diverse linguistic and cultural composition of these schools.

The Language in Education Policy (Department of Education, 1997) allows schools to determine their own language policy in consultation with parents and the school community. It states that all children have a right to learn in their "mother tongue" and the school must fulfill this right where practical and reasonable. This in effect means that if the school's policy is to teach in English and there is a Zulu learner, who would like to be taught in Zulu, the school has no obligation to this learner, if this is not practical for the school. In such a school then, the language of teaching and learning will be English. The policy also states that no child should be excluded from a school on the basis of his language. Desai (1994:37) predicted that the clause of "being practical and reasonable" would become a convenient loophole for schools to avoid using all eleven official languages. The tension between language plan on the macro-level and its execution on the micro-level, in this case the school, is evident.

The issue of language use in educational settings is further complicated by the power that is associated with English. Many South African parents seem to have the perception that access to English is what their children need in order to succeed in society and internationally (Kwamangamalu, 1998:278). In many ways, they are right because English has certain material power as it provides entry to middle-class jobs and salaries.

As a consequence, learners often have a negative attitude towards studying their own languages and regard people who speak English as educated (Granville, 1997:12). This has resulted in English being perceived as the 'high language' and the other official languages as the 'low language' (Kwamangalamu, 1998:280). It is vital that an application of the importance of learners' own languages for education are developed and that these learners' multilingual competencies be acknowledged. In order to address the language-related needs of South Africa, a Language Plan Task Group (LANGTAG) was established in 1995. This was based on the Minister of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology's observation that a definite tendency towards 'unilingualism' was emerging in the country despite the fact that multilingualism is a sociolinguistic reality in South Africa, and that the constitution provides for the principle of multilingualism. The LANGTAG final report proposed that developing and expanding the use of African languages challenge the status and power of English, which is regularly referred to as "The hegemony of English".

Language as a means of teaching and learning in South African schools is currently a much-debated topic.

5.2.3 **Planning of the research**

Chapter Three was devoted to the research design, which was used in the empirical survey. Structured questionnaires, which were used as the research instrument, were randomly distributed to Grades 9 and 10 learners. The information sought for this investigation was not readily available from any other source and had to be acquired directly from respondents. When this situation exists, the most appropriate source of data is the questionnaire, as it is easily adapted to a variety of situations.

The research also included interviews with selected educators. Both the questionnaires and interviews as research instruments were fully discussed. The composition, administration and data analyses of the questionnaire were also dealt with.

This study is designed to provide insight into the factors that impact on language choice in a school setting.

5.2.4 Analysis and presentation of the research data

The purpose of this chapter was to statistically analyse and discuss data collected from the questionnaires completed by 100 learners of Welbedene Secondary School. At the outset, an explanation and description was provided as to the methods employed in the categorisation of the responses and the analysis of the data. This was followed by the presentation and discussion of the responses to the questionnaire and educator interviews.

5.2.5 Aims of the study

The researcher formulated specific aims (cf. 1.4) to determine the course of this study. These aims were realised through a literature study, together with an empirical survey consisting of a structured questionnaire as well as educator interviews. On the basis of the aims and findings of the study, certain recommendations are now offered.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.3.1 A school-based language policy

(1) Motivation

School governing bodies need to familiarise themselves with the new language-in-education policies, as it is evident that they are unaware of recent developments in language policy. For instance, as outlined in this study, the governing body at Welbedene Secondary seems to be uninformed about language policy. (cf. 5.2.1)

At Welbedene Secondary about forty-five percent of the school population is made up of Zulu learners. However, the language policy of the school is not

synonymous with languages that are taught as subjects and/or are used as media of learning.

(2) Recommendations

According to McCormick (2002:34), if a school is committed to making real changes then it has to find ways of accommodating the needs of all its learners or else education would be doomed to failure. The recommendations are:

- ✓ All stakeholders (parents, educators, learners) should be included in the formulation of a school-based language policy.
- ✓ To establish the learners' and parents' preference with regard to the languages of teaching and learning.
- ✓ Parents must be guided into making informed decisions about the language policy of the school.
- ✓ The language policy of the school must be based on the language policy of the constitution and language-in-education policies.
- ✓ Include members of the community in the learning process. They would then feel that they have ownership of the school and it will mark the beginning of a partnership in education. Experts that come from the same cultural background and life experience would be more equipped to appreciate the learners' experience of learning through a second language (McCormick, 2002:34).

5.3.2 **Acknowledging the languages of all learners in a school**

(1) Motivation

Having one's first language affirmed has a positive effect on one's self-image and self-confidence. This in turn has a positive effect on academic performance. However, Baugh (2000:54) points out, that the use of one's first language in the class can be a source of classroom tension with some learners feeling that it wastes time or creates bad feelings and others seeing it as supporting their learning.

The research findings attest to this point, as is evident from the following learners' responses to the question, "How would you feel if both English and Zulu were to be used in class during teaching?"

"I would not like it because if the section is long it would take time to complete it if we have to change to Zulu."

"Bad because if the most important points made, are said in Zulu, I would not know what's happening in class."

"Good and more interesting in my schoolwork because I'll understand almost everything I'm taught."

(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are:

Learners should be allowed to establish which languages will be used, and when they will be used in the classroom.

Learners must reflect critically on the situation and formulate language rules. Learners will thus become sensitised to language issues and gain a greater sense of control over their own learning.

Educators can create a multilingual classroom environment by having posters in the different home languages

Use learning material that includes the cultures of all learners.

5.3.3 **Implementation of the language policy**

(1) Motivation

The success of a language-in-education policy is measured by the effectiveness of its implementation (Klopper, 2000:43). Presently in South Africa, there is a gap between drafting a policy and the implementation thereof. South Africa has one of the most progressive language policies in the world but it does not amount to anything if nothing tangible is done to implement the policy. It is, therefore, incumbent on the government to provide the necessary support to ensure that its policies are successfully implemented. Alexander (1993:3) makes the point that apart from the legacy of apartheid, the lack of political will of the leaders of this country is: "... the greatest impediment to the implementation of a successful policy of multilingualism, multilingual education and even of the modernisation of the African languages at the macro-linguistic level of planning." According to De Kadt (2008:34), if South Africa is to promote multilinguism and encourage the development of the indigenous African languages, then major investments need to be made in the modernisation and elaboration of these languages. Otherwise, the present hegemony of English and to a lesser degree of Afrikaans will continue.

(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are:

The government must move beyond the rhetoric, in order for the multilingual language policy to be implemented.

The necessary resources must be provided and measures need to be taken to translate the policy from theory into practice.

The Education Department responsible for the language-in-education policy must treat as priority the delivery of the new policy to the children in the classrooms.

The language policy documents and other relevant information therefore must be sent to schools so that the governing bodies are aware of the contents of the new language-in-education policy.

The information in the policy documents must be analysed and governing bodies should be given the criteria they should consider when formulating language policy.

5.3.4 **The development and promotion of the indigenous languages**

(1) Motivation

In order to promote a language it is necessary to make the language attractive to both the native speakers of the language and the second language speakers so that they would want to learn the language. One way of doing this is developing methodologies and materials in the indigenous languages. According to Dyers (2004:213) this is necessary so that these languages could become more communicative in nature and thus shed off the reputation, commonly associated with them, that they are 'technical' and 'grammar-based.'

It is true that many first language speakers of the indigenous languages claim that these languages are difficult, as can be ascertained from the following comment from the learners' questionnaire:

"Zulu is not a strong language. If you talk in Zulu it's easy but if you write it, it's difficult."

These statements show the negative attitude learners have towards the indigenous languages. The researcher believes that this is largely due to a lack of innovative methodologies and materials to teach these languages. Blommaert (1999:450) claims that in first language classes there is a shortage of relevant contemporary literature in the African languages and learners reject the prescribed reading material and the languages it is written in as 'rural, old-fashioned and backwards.'

(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are:

- ✓ Language Boards and other organisations should provide incentives (prizes, awards and scholarships) to the public to encourage the development of literature works in the indigenous African languages.
- ✓ Language Boards should develop and provide learning materials and appropriate textbooks that the learners would find appealing. The materials that are developed should reflect the way indigenous languages are spoken today.
- ✓ Indigenous languages must be promoted at all levels of society. In South Africa, there is an obvious preference for English by important public figures, including politicians, sportspersons, and television and radio personalities.
- ✓ Pandor (1995:72-73) points out that 87% of the radio speeches made in parliament are in English, less than 5% were in Afrikaans and the rest were in African languages. Pandor (1995:83) therefore remarks that in order for the language provision in the constitution to be taken seriously, people of influence must use the previously disadvantaged languages in higher domains such as parliament, education, etc.

- ✓ The necessary status and recognition must be accorded to the indigenous languages not just on paper but in everyday practice. According to Van Tonder (1999:13) politicians, advertisers, educationalists and others respond ultimately to public pressure.

- ✓ People who are committed both to promoting the diversity of society and to ensuring greater popular participation in all aspects of civic life should campaign for the wider use of languages other than English.

- ✓ People should be informed and made aware of the socio-cultural and instrumental value of the indigenous languages. Kwamwangamalu (1997:247) suggests reverse covert planning, which entails 'vesting a language with power and prerequisites before any serious attempt is made to promote it as an instructional medium or as a language of the workplace.' He explains that for an African language to become an alternative to the use of English as an instructional medium, it will have to be vested with at least some of the advantages associated with English. Kwamangamalu (1997:247) cites the example of KwaZulu-Natal where English and Zulu are the most dominant languages. According to him, if Zulu were one of the requirements for access to employment, then parents would more readily accept Zulu as an alternate to the use of English in education.

- ✓ Battersby (2003:92) concurs that the promotion of the indigenous languages should result in a demand in society for multilingual skills, which would not only increase the status and prestige of the indigenous languages but also change the way other language communities perceive indigenous languages.

5.3.5 **Pre-service and in-service educator training**

(1) Motivation

There is a need for pre-service training for all educators to enable them to operate effectively in a multilingual school. Firstly, all educators must be able to meet the language requirements of their subjects. According to Landon (1999:1) there has been a tendency to handle language compartmentally instead of addressing it as the medium of schooling and the barrier to accessing the curriculum. He suggests that all educators should be educators of language instead of believing that language issues fall solely within the ambit of the language educator.

(2) Recommendations

The recommendations are:

Educators need training in developing strategies to teach multilingual classes.

Educators should be trained in developing strategies to teach multilingual classes.

Language planning must be part of the general development of all educator and school administrators.

5.4 FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings reveal that despite the changes in language legislation in the country, not much in terms of language policy has changed in Welbedene Secondary School. There are problems in terms of communication in the classroom. Although learners show support for Zulu, their requests are ignored. English is regarded as the language of communication with learners and is almost solely used as the language of communication; the use of Zulu in the classroom is almost minimal.

Further research must be undertaken with the aim of developing a well-planned strategy to be implemented to provide school principals with the necessary skills to effectively manage schools in respect of language policy, including effective staff motivation strategies.

CRITICISM

Criticism that emanates from this study includes the following:

It can be presumed that many learners who completed the questionnaires drew their perceptions regarding language choice at Welbedene Secondary from personal experience, which may not always have been pleasant. The probability therefore exists that many learners used the questionnaires as a means to show their frustrations at the lack of an effective language policy at school.

It must be pointed out that this study has focused on language choice issues at one secondary school in Durban and has predominantly involved questionnaires and interviews with small samples within the school. The conclusion it has reached cannot be generalised and connected to other schools in the region.

FINAL REMARK

This study has reported on the language policy and language practice at Welbedene Secondary School. It is evident that the study will be of value to all educational authorities and other stakeholders. It is also hoped that the recommendations from this study will be implemented; furthermore, that those schools would consult with all role players when making decisions on language policy and practice at their respective schools.

LIST OF SOURCES

Alberts, M. 2008. National language and terminology policies. a South African perspective. *Ausgabe*, 4(7):303.

Alexander, N. 1999. *Day-by-day English learner's book*. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Arthur, J. 1997. "There must be something undiscovered which prevents us from doing our work well?" Botswana Primary Teachers' Views on Educational Language Policy. *Focus*, 19(3):25-28.

Atkinson, D. & Raminathan, V. 1999. Individualism and the teaching of English. *Journal of second language learning*, 20(1)44-70.

Auerbach, E.R. 1995. *The politics of the ESL classroom*. Cambridge: University Press.

Ayers, J.H. & Hope, T. 1990. *Coping with speech anxiety*. Amazon: Greenwood Publishing.

Badenhorst, J. (ed.) 1987. *School management, the task and role of the teacher*. Pretoria: HAUM.

Badenhorst, D.D. 1996. *School management: the task and role of the teacher*. Pretoria: Kagiso.

Balan, D.M. 2002. *The role of media centres in a changing educational environment*. Durban: University of Zululand. (MEd. Dissertation)

Barkhuizen, G.P. & Gough, D. 1996. Language curriculum development in South Africa: What place for English? *Tesol*, 30(3):12-14.

Behr, A.L. 1988. *Psychology and the school: a textbook on the psychology of education*. Durban: Butterworths.

Bekker, H. 2003. *Tension between Xhosa and coloureds in the Western Cape*. <http://vryeafrikaan.co.za>.

Berlach, R.G. 2004. Outcomes-based education and the death of knowledge, University of Melbourne, Australia. Paper presented at the Australian Association for Research from 28 November 2004 to 02 December 2004.

Beukes, A.M. 2005. *The first ten years of democracy*. Language Policy in South Africa. Congress on Linguistic Diversity. Sustainability and Peace. Pretoria: UNISA.

Bless C. & Higson-Smith, C. 2006. *The fundamentals of social research methods*. Cape Town: Juta.

Blommaert, J. 2006. *Language policy and national identity*. Oxford: Blackwell Printing.

Bokamba, E. 1988. Code mixing, language variation and linguistic theory: Evidence from Bantu languages. *Lingua*, 3(1): 76.

Brunton, C. & Associates. 2003. *Policy handbook for educators*. Education Labour Relations Council: Universal Print Group.

Chisholm, L. 2004. *Changing class: education and social change in post-apartheid South Africa*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Chisholm, L.; Motala, S.; & Vally, S. 2003. *South African Policy Review*. Sandown: Heinemann Publishers.

Chisholm, L.; Volmink, J.; Ndhlovu, T. & Muller, J. 2000. *A South African Curriculum for the Twenty-First Century: Report of the Review. Curriculum 2005*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Coakley, C.G. 1997. "Towards the establishment of the general dimensions underlying the listening process". *International Journal of Listening*, 12(1):65.

Chick, J.K. & Wade, R. 1997. "Re-standardisation in the direction of a New English: Implications for Access and Equity." *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 13(1):274.

Chetty, L.S. 1997. *Problems experienced by teachers in a multicultural classroom setting*. KwaDlangezwa: University of Zululand. (M.Ed. dissertation)

Chick, S.A. 2009. English: the language of liberation. *South African Journal of Education*, 29(3):31.

Chisholm, L., Volmink, J., Ndhlovu, T. & Muller, J. 2000. Revised National Curriculum Statement. 2005. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Cohen, L. & Manion, L. 1994. *Research methods in education*. London: Croom Helm.

Conner, T. 2008. Learners from non-English linguistic backgrounds. ([http://www.stanford.edu/~jbaugh/saw/Tracy Language & Ebonics.html](http://www.stanford.edu/~jbaugh/saw/Tracy%20Language%20&%20Ebonics.html))

Conrad, F. 2009. Sources of error in cognitive interviews. *Public Opinion*. 73(1):23-25.

Corson, D. 1991. *Language, power and minority schooling*. Language & Education. Toronto: Routledge Group.

Cresswell, J.W. 1994. *Research design: qualitative and quantitative approach*. California: Sage Publications.

Cresswell, J.W. 2003. *Handbook of mixed methods of social behaviour research*. California: Sage Publications.

Cullingford, C. 1995. *Curriculum in context*. London: Falmer Press.

Dane, F.C. 1990. *Research methods determinants of education outcomes*. New York: Brooks / Cole.

Davidson, D. 2001. *Inquiries into truth and interpretation*. Oxford: University Press.

De Kadt, E. 2008. *The future language dispensation in South Africa*. <http://www.nisc.co.za>.

DoE (Department of Education). 1996. *Understanding the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

DoE (Department of Education). 1997. *First steps: school governance starter pack. A resource for school governing body members*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

DoE (Department of Education). 1998. *Employment of Educators Act*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

DoE (Department of Education). 2000a. *Education law and policy handbook*. Cape Town: Juta.

DoE (Department of Education). 2000b. *Resource materials for women in education management*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

DoE (Department of Education). 2001. *Managing and learning schools*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

DoE) (Department of Education). 2002. *Towards effective school management – Manual 1*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Desai, Z. & McClean, D. 1994. Will our language policy help determine whether we build mud-huts or skyscrapers? *Perspectives*, 5(3):18-25.

De Vos, A.S. (ed.). 1998. *Research at grass roots*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.

Dyers, C. 2008. Stellenbosch papers in Linguistics. *Linguistics*, 38(1):49-72.

Duminy, P.A.; Dreyer H.J. & Steyn, P.D.J. 1990. *Education for the student teacher*. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.

Du Plooy, J.L. & Prinsloo, S. 1979. *Die onderwyser*. Johannesburg: Perskor.

Du Toit, P.J. 1992. Multikulturele / gedesegegreerde onderwys. *Die Unie*, 88(7):158-160.

Du Toit, S.C. & Kruger, D. 2008. Critique of a language enrichment programme for Grade 4 ESL learners with limited English proficiency: a pilot study. *South African Journal of Education*, 28(2):7.

Fairclough, N. 1989. *Language and power*. London: Longman.

Fasold, R. 1984. *The sociolinguistics of society*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Fasold, R. 1989. *The sociolinguistics of society*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Fourie, D.J. 1997. Educational language policy and the indigenous languages of Namibia. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 7(15):53

Fraser, W.J., Loubscher, C. & Van Rooy, M.P. 1990. *Didactics for undergraduate learners*. Durban: Butterworths.

Goetz, J.P. & Le Compte, L.J. 1984. *Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research*. New York: Academic Press

Griessel, G.A. & Oberholzer, M.O. 1994. *Philosophy of Education*. Pretoria: Via Afrika.

Griffiths, A. & Hamilton, D. 1994. *Working together in children's learning*. London: Methuen.

Gulting, J.; Lubisi, C.; Parker, B. & Wedekind, V. 1998. *Understanding Outcomes-Based Education*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Haacke, W. 2003. Language Policies and Planning in Namibia. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 13(23):295:298.

Hanley, N. 2007. *Constructivism: Philosophy and Epistemological Foundations*. <http://www.Eln.co.za>. Accessed on 2010/05/21 online at 16:00 CAT.

Harriet, W. Sheridan Centre for teaching and learning. Brown University. 2008. *Classroom observations*. <http://Sheridan-Center.stg.brown.edu/indix.shtml>.) Accessed on 2010/06/15 online at 14:00 CAT.

Hartshorne, K. 1995. Language policy in African education: a background to the future, in Mesthrie, R. (ed.) *Language and Social History*. Cape Town: David Philip Publishers.

Herbert, R.K. 1992. *Language and society in Africa*. Johannesburg: Witwatersrand University Press.

Heugh, K. 1995a. Disabling and enabling. Implication of language policy trends in South Africa. In Mesthrie, R. (ed.) *Language and Social History*. Cape Town: David Philip Publishers.

Heugh, K. 1995b. From unequal education to the real thing in Heugh, K.; Siegruhn, A. & Pluddeman, P. (eds). *Multilingual education for South Africa*. Cape Town: Heinemann.

Hillocks, G.R. 1996. *How linguistics has influenced schools in England*. London: University College.

Hitchcock, G. & Hughes, D. 1995. *Research and the teacher*. London: Routledge.

Hlatshwayo, B.C. 1996. *Black parents' perceptions of their educational responsibility in a changing educational dispensation*. Durban: University of Zululand. (DEd. thesis)

Hunsaker, C. 1990. Understanding and developing the skills of oral communication: speaking and listening. *Promoting active listening in the classroom*, 82(1):68-69.

Huysamen, G.K. 1989. *Introductory statistics and research design*. Cape Town: Academica.

Israel, S.E. 2007. *Teachers taking action: a comprehensive guide to teacher research*. <http://www.books.google.co.za>. Accessed on 2010/06/15 on line at 13:00 CAT.

Kwamangamalu, N.M. 1997. "Multilingualism and Education Policy in Post-Apartheid South Africa". *Language Problems and Language Planning. Focus on South Africa*, 21(3):234.

Kwamangamalu, N.M. 2003. "Review of black linguistics: language, society and politics in Africa and the Americas". *English Worldwise*, 24(2):285-289.

Kwamangamalu, N.M. 2010. Vernacularisation, globalization, and language economics in non-English-speaking countries in Africa. *Focus on South Africa*, 34(1):1-23.

Jansen, J.D. 2001. Imaging teachers: Policy images and teacher identity in S.A. classrooms. *South African Journal of Education*, 21(4):242.

Jenkins, F. 1999. *KZN Department of Education and Culture: operations manual for KwaZulu-Natal Schools*, Vol. 1 and 2. Durban: Mentis Publications Law Service.

Johnson, D.M. 1992. *Approaches to research in second language learning*. New York: Longman.

Joseph, M. & Ramani, E. 1998. The ELT specialist and linguistic hegemony: a response to Tully & Matthew. *ELT Journal*. 52(4):360-361.

Kidder, H.K. & Judd, C.M. 1986. *Research methods in social relations*. New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.

Klopper, R.M. 2000. *OBE Learning, assessment and emotional intelligence*. (Unpublished) Lecture Notes: University of Zululand.

Kyriacou, C. 1996. *Effective teaching in schools*. London: T.J. Press.

KZN DoE (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education) 2006. *LTSM bulletin*, No. 2. Getting KwaZulu-Natal learning. Durban: Government Printers.

Labov, W. 1972. *The study of language in its social context*. Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Landon, J. 1999. *Additive multilingualism in school practice: a challenge for teacher education*. Paper presented at the 14th Annual Conference for Language Teachers in Durban on 19 June 1999.

Lazarus, S. (ed.) 1998. *Quality education for all: overcoming barriers to learning and development*. Parow: CTP Printers.

Le Roux, J. 1993. *The black child in crisis: a socio-educational perspective*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.

Lemmer, E.M. 1995a. Selected linguistic realities in South African Schools: problems and prospects. *Educare*, 28(1):90.

Lemmer, E.M. 1995b. Issues in Language-in-Education Policy with specific reference to Namibia and Zimbabwe. *South African Journal of Education*, 28(2):36.

Long, M.H. & Robinson, D.S. 1998. Applied linguistics. *Reading Matrix*, 5(1):14-34.

Longman Piek, G.O. & Mahlangu, D.M.D. 1990. *Educational perspectives and teaching practice*. Pretoria: De Jager & Haum.

Lockett, K. 1995. National additive bilingualism: towards a language plan for South African education. in Heugh, K.; Siegruhn, A. & Pluddeman, P. (eds) *Multilingual education for South Africa*. Cape Town: Heinemann.

Luthuli, T.M. 2003. *African learners' perceptions of vernacular language in desegregated schools*. Durban: University of Zululand. (MEd. Dissertation)

Maharaj, L. 2004. *Principals' preparedness for whole school evaluation*. Durban: University of Zululand. (DEd. Thesis)

Mahlangu, D.M.D. 1987. *Education research methodology*. Pretoria: De Jager Haum.

Marsh, C.J. 1997. *Perspectives: key concepts for understanding the curriculum*. London: Falmer Press.

Mersham, G. & Skinner, C. 2001. *New insights into communication and public relations*. Sandown: Heinemann.

Mesthrie, R. 2002. *Language in South Africa*. Cambridge: University Press.

Miles, M.B. & Huberman, A.M. 1994. Qualitative data analysis: a sourcebook of trustworthiness. *American Journal of Occupation Therapy*, 45(3):428-444.

Milk, R.D. 1993. Bilingual education and English as a second language: The Elementary School in Arias, M.B. & Cassanova, U. (eds) *Bilingual Education: politics, practice and research*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Moore, M. & Kearsley, G. 1996. *Distance education: a systems view*. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing.

Moraba, M.I. 1996. *The impact of parental alcoholism on adolescent children: an educational guidance approach*. Johannesburg: RAU (DEd. thesis).

Msimango, P. & Samuel, M. 2001. *Sinking, swimming, steering, sailing: an analysis of school-based policies*. Presented at English Language Educational Trust Annual Conference in Durban on 2 July 2001.

Mulder, J.C. 1989. *Statistical techniques in education*. Pretoria: Haum.

Myers-Scotton, C.M. 1990. Elite closure as boundary maintenance. In Weinstein, B. (ed.) *Language policy and political development*. Norwood: Ablex.

Naicker, S. & Waddy, C. 2002. *Towards effective school management: a guide to norms and standards*. Durban: Maskew Miller and Longman.

Naidoo, J. 2001. *The motivational role of school principals pertaining to their staff*. Durban: University of Zululand. (DEd Thesis)

Ndabandaba, L.B.G. 2002. School management <http://www.info.gov.za/speeches>. Accessed on 2010/05/19 on-line at 16:30 CAT.

Ndebele, N.S. 1987. *The English language and social change in South Africa*. Pretoria: Haum.

NECC (National Coordinating Committee) 1992. *NEPI report: governance and administration*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Nel, A. & Urbani, G. 1990. *An introduction to psychopedagogics*. Durban: Rapid Results.

NEPI (National Education Policy Investigation) 1993. *The framework report and final report summaries*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Norval, A.J. 1988. *Ondersoek na navorsingsmetodologie: navorsingsraad 1*: Pretoria: RGN.

Ormon, J. 2008. Language Policies and Nation Building in Post-Apartheid South Africa Series: *Language Policy*, 10(1):201.

Pandor, N. 1995. Constitutional multilingualism – problems, possibilities, practicalities. In Le Roux, C. (ed.) *Constitutionally enshrined multilingualism: Challenges and Responses*. Proceedings of the 15th Annual Conference of the Southern African Applied Linguistics Association.

Parker, L.H.; Andrich, D. & Firth, J. 1998. *Curriculum framework*. Perth: Curriculum Council.

Pennycook, A. 1994. *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Longman.

Pitout, D.N.; Smith, A.G.; Windell, J.H. & Steinman, C.F. 1993. *Teachers' Handbook for education*. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.

Plug, C.; Meyer, W.F.; Louw, D.A. & Gouws, L.A. 1991. *Psigologiese woordeboek*. Johannesburg: Lexicon.

Raath, M.C. & Jacobs, L.J. 1993. *Dynamics of the self-concept*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Ramanathan, V. & Atkinson, D. 1999. Ethnographic approaches in L2 writing research: A Critical Guide and Review. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(1):44-70.

Ramirez, J.D., Yuen, S. & Ramsey, C.A. 1991. Final Report: Longitudinal Study of Structure of English Immersion Strategy. *Early-Exit and Late-Exit Transitional Bilingual Education Programme for Language Minority Children*. San Mateo, California: Aguirre International.

Reddy, M.M. 2002. *Communication for maintenance and propagation*. Durban: University of Zululand. (M.A. dissertation)

Reid, S. 1992. *Managing the school environment*. Durban: University of Natal. (MEd. dissertation)

Rue, I.W. & Byars, L. 1992. *Management skills and application*. New York: Irwin.

Samuels, J. 1995. Multilingualism in the emerging educational dispensation. In Le Roux, J. (ed.) *Constitutionally enshrined multilingualism: Challenges and*

Responses. Proceedings of the 15th Annual Conference of the Southern African Applied Linguistics Association.

Schnetler, J. 1993. *Survey practice*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Schreuder, J.L.; Du Toit, P.J.; Roesch, N. & Shah, C.G.. 1993. *A unitary Department of Education and Training: Proposals for KwaZulu-Natal*. Pietermaritzburg: NED.

Schumacher, J.E. & Meillon, R. 1993. *Understanding educational research*. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Searle Center for teaching excellence, North Western University. 2009. *Classroom observations / evaluations*. <http://president.scfe.nwu.edu/>). Accessed on 2010/06/17 on line at 11:00 CAT.

Seligar, H.W. & Shohamy, E. 1990. *Second language research methods*. London: Oxford University Press.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. 1981. *Bilingualism or not: the education of minorities*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Slabbert, J.A. 1994. *What is the mother tongue of the Sowetan teenager? And is this the same as home languages?* Cape Town: Juta.

Smith, C. 1993. *Theory and the art of communication design*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

South African Information Website. 2008. <http://www.southafrica.info/community-using-sainfo-material.htm>. Accessed on 2010/03/21 on line at 15:30 CAT.

Steinberg, S. 1994. *Communication studies*. Cape Town: Juta.

- Steinberg, S. 1999. *Persuasive communication studies*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Steyn, G.M. 1998. Teacher empowerment. *South African Journal of Education*, 18(1):44.
- Stronge, J.H. & Tucker, P.D. 2003. *Handbook on teacher evaluation: assessing and improving performance*. <http://www.books.google.co.za>. Accessed on 2010/06/15 on line at 13:30. CAT.
- Tollefson, J.W. 1995. Introduction: Language Policy, power and inequality. In J. Tollefson (ed.) *Power and inequality in Language Education*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Van den Aardweg, E.M. & Van den Aardweg, E.D. 1990. *Dictionary of Empirical / Education Psychology*. Pretoria: E & E Enterprises.
- Van den Aardweg, E.M. & Van den Aardweg, E.D. 1998. *Dictionary of educational psychology*. Pretoria: E & E Enterprises.
- Van der Horst, H. & McDonald, R. 1997. *OBE: Outcomes-based Education: an educator's manual*. Pretoria: Kagiso Publishers.
- Van Rensburg, C.J.J.; Landman, W.A. & Bodenstein, H.C.A. 1994. *Basic concepts in education*. Halfway House: Orion Publishers.
- Van Schalkwyk, H. 1982. *Language communication – English*. Cape Town: National Book Printers.
- Van Tonder, M.A. 1999. *Language-in-Education in South Africa*. Pretoria: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Verhoef, M. 1998. *In pursuit of multilingualism in South Africa*. Portal, 17(2):29-39.

- Vrey, J.D. 1990. *The self-actualising educand*. Pretoria: Unisa.
- Watson-Gegeo, K. 1988. Ethnography in ESL: Defining the Essentials. *Tesol*. 22(4):576-582.
- Watson-Gegeo, K. 2001. "How we know." Kwara'ae rural villagers doing indigenous epistemology. *The Contemporary Pacific*, 13(1):55-88.
- Webb, V.N. 2002. *Language Policy Development in South Africa*. Centre for Research in the Politics of Language, University of Pretoria.
- Webb, V.N. & Kembo-Sure, L. 1999. Cultural production and social change in Kenya: building bridges. *Language Matters*, 34(1):101-102.
- Weiner, L. 2000. Research in the 1990s: implication for urban teacher preparation. *Review of educational research*, 70(3):369-406.
- Weliger, H.W. & Shohamy, E. 1990. *Second language research methods*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Williams, F. 1992. *The new communications*. California: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Wojcicki, J.1994. *Research surveys: Omniteck division*.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable>. Accessed on 2010/05/18 online at 15:00 CAT.
- Woods, P. 1986. Inside Schools: *Ethnography in Educational Research*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Woods, P. 2000. *Ethnography in educational research*. London: Routledge.
- Young, D. 1995. The role and status of the first language in education in a multilingual society. in Heugh, K.; Siegruhn, A. & Pluddemann, P. (eds) *Multilingual Education for South Africa*. Cape Town: Heinemann.

Yuen, S. & Ramsey, C.A. 1991. *Final report: longitudinal study of structured English, immersion strategy, early exit and late exit.* <http://www.readingrecovery.org/paf/conferences>. Accessed on 2010/08/12 online at 14:00 CAT.

Zulu, S.E. 1999. *Governing body parents' perceptions of their role in school governance.* Durban: University of Zululand. (MEd. Dissertation)

ANNEXURE 'A'

QUESTIONNAIRE – LEARNERS

ANNEXURE 'B'

**EDUCATOR
BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION**

ANNEXURE 'C'

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION
TO
CONDUCT INTERVIEW AT SCHOOL**

ANNEXURE 'D'

GRANTING OF PERMISSION FROM SCHOOL

ANNEXURE 'E'

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION
FROM
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

ANNEXURE 'F'

**GRANTING OF PERMISSION
FROM
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION**

ANNEXURE 'G'

**THE NATIONAL EDUCATION
POLICY ACT**

ANNEXURE 'H'

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE
(EDUCATORS)

ANNEXURE 'I'

**INTERVIEWS WITH
EDUCATORS**

ANNEXURE 'J'

JPN – GEOGRAPHY EDUCATOR

ANNEXURE 'K'

US – GEOGRAPHY EDUCATOR

ANNEXURE 'L'

**EAS – EDUCATOR
(AFRIKAANS)**

ANNEXURE 'M'

SR – THE PRINCIPAL

ANNEXURE 'N'

**PS – EDUCATOR
(AFRIKAANS)**

**LIST OF INTERVIEWEES
(EDUCATORS)**

INSTRUCTIONS TO RESPONDENTS

Please answer all the questions by supplying the requested information in writing, or by making a cross (X) in the appropriate block.

I would appreciate your help with regard to this questionnaire. I am trying to collect information pertaining to language choice at Welbedene Secondary School, which I will use for research purposes.

1. Please read through each statement carefully, before giving your opinion
2. Please ensure that you do not omit a question, or skip a page.
3. Please be honest when giving your opinion.
4. Please do not discuss statements with anyone.
5. Please return the questionnaire after completion.

SECTION ONE: BIOLOGICAL INFORMATION

1.1 **Gender**

Male Female

1.2 **Age in completed years**

1.3 **Race of respondents**

Indian
Black
White
Coloured
Other

1.4 **Home language of respondents**

English
Zulu
Other

SECTION TWO: LANGUAGE CHOICE

Place a cross (X) in line with your response choice

5. Indicate your language proficiency.

READING			
Languages	English	Zulu	Afrikaans
(a) Good			
(b) Average			
(c) Poor			
(d) No skill at all			
WRITING			
(a) Good			
(b) Average			
(c) Poor			
(d) No skill at all			
SPEAKING			
(a) Good			
(b) Average			
(c) Poor			
(d) No skill at all			
LISTENING			
(a) Good			
(b) Average			
(c) Poor			
(d) No skill at all			

6. **What language do you anticipate using mostly in future in the following situations? Write the language next to the situation. If you anticipate using more than one language more or less equally, please indicate.**

In your home

In conversations with your friends

In your future profession

In interacting with public servants

In areas where you plan to live

7. **Would you want Zulu:**

(a) To be taught as an examination subject at Welbedene Secondary School?	Yes	No
(b) To be taught as a non-examination subject?	Yes	No
(c) To be used as a medium of learning (i.e. used to teach subjects such as History, Home Economics, etc?)	Yes	No
(d) Not to be taught at all?	Yes	No

8. **Indicate which of the languages listed below you would want to learn at first language level, and which at second language level.**

Language level	English	Zulu	Afrikaans
First language level			
Second language level			

9. **How would you feel if both English and Zulu were to be used in class during teaching? Give a reason or reasons for your answer.**

.....
.....
.....
.....

9(a) **If you were asked to choose the language of instruction, which of the following options would you choose? Please tick one option only.**

Preference	Yes	No
(a) Zulu from Grade 1 (Class 1) to Matric.		
(b) English from Grade 1 (Class 1 to Matric)		
(c) Zulu from Grade 1 (Class 1) with a switch to English from Grade 5 (Std 3)		
(d) Zulu from Grade 1 (Class 1) with a switch to English from Grade 8 (Std 6)		

9(b) **Please explain the reason(s) for the above choice you have made.**

.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you for answering this Questionnaire

EDUCATOR: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Gender

Male Female

Age in completed years

Qualification of respondent

Academic qualification (e.g. B.A., B.Ed., etc.)

Professional qualification (e.g. HED, UED, etc.)

Total number of completed qualifications on / as at 2009-01-01

Post held

Permanent Temporary

Post level

Principal

Deputy Principal

HOD

Educator