

**STRATEGIES THAT CAN BE USED TO PROMOTE THE USE OF
INDIGENOUS AFRICAN LANGUAGES FOR TEACHING AND
LEARNING IN SCHOOLS: AN EXPLORATORY CASE STUDY OF
ISIZULU**

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Choice Dimakatso Mpanza, hereby declare that

“Strategies that can be used to promote the use of indigenous African Languages for teaching and learning in schools: An exploratory case study of isiZulu.” is my own work, both in conception and execution, and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references. I further declare that this thesis has never been submitted at any institution for any purpose, academic or otherwise.

Signed: _____ on the _____ day

of _____ 2015.

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My sister, my mentor, my confidant Ps Lindo Dlamini. Thank you for your prayers.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my husband Dr Nkoloyakhe Mpanza. Thank you for support and for your research expertise. I wouldn't have done this without you, Thabekhulu! I also dedicate it to my kids Khayelihle, Sfeziwe and Zesande. I just want the three of you to know that education is important.

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ABSTRACT

The study explored strategies that can be used to promote the use of indigenous African languages for teaching and learning in the General Education and Training (GET) and (Further Education and Training (FET) phases of schooling in South Africa. The motivation for the study came from the constitutional recognition given to indigenous African languages as official languages in South Africa with the advent of democracy in 1994 as well as subsequent education related legislation that was passed to enact this constitutional milestone; namely the South African Schools Act of 1996 and the Language-in-Education Policy of 1997. In spite of the constitutional recognition and the accompanying legislation, the researcher observed that the provisions made in the Language-in-Education Policy were not interpreted and implemented in a uniform way in all South African schools.

An exploration of existing research indicated that the issue of language in teaching and learning is not a new problem nor is it unique to South Africa. It is a problem that permeates almost the whole of the African continent. A large body of research has highlighted the value of a learner's home language for teaching and learning, but, despite this evidence very little has been achieved in terms of promoting African languages in education across the continent.

The study followed a qualitative case study approach in which isiZulu, one of the indigenous African languages was used as an example. Data for the study was collected in the province of KwaZulu-Natal which is one of the nine provinces that constitute South Africa where isiZulu is the predominant language. Schools which were used as data collection sites were purposively sampled from rural, peri-urban and urban based schools. Respondents were sampled from educators and learners in primary and secondary schools. For triangulation purposes data was also collected from specialists in institutions of higher learning within the KwaZulu-Natal province. Questionnaires, interviews and observations were used to collect data.

The major findings of the study indicated that schools in all geographic dispensations do experience language related problems. In different ways responses indicated that the major cause of the language problem centered on the fact that the language of learning and teaching, namely English is not a home language for the majority of the learners. The language problem similarly affects teaching and learning in institutions of higher learning as well. In terms

of strategies that can be used to promote the indigenous African languages for teaching and learning purposes, the study found that the four key areas which need to be the focus of any plan of promoting indigenous African languages are policy revision, language development, materials development and teacher training and development.

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE STUDY

EMIS –Education Management Information Systems

FET - Further Education and Training

GET- General Education and Training

LiEP – Language in Education Policy

LoLT – Language of Learning and Teaching

MoI – Medium of Instruction

MTE – Mother-tongue Education

MTBBE – Mother-tongue Based Bilingual Education

NCS – National Curriculum Statements

SGB – School Governing Body

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Introduction to the Study

1.1 Introduction

The issue of language in education has been at the centre of education debates and discussions since the introduction of formal education in Africa. The consensus in all debates and discussions has been that education takes place best if it is offered in the child's mother tongue or home language. In spite of this consensus, however education in most, if not all African countries is still offered in the predominant foreign language in each country. South Africa, where this study is contextualised is no exception from this tendency. The cognitive, academic and linguistic effects of this tendency have been studied and reported by various researchers (Cummins (1989), Alexander (2003), Balfour (2007) to name a few) and organisations like UNESCO and the OAU. Since there seems to be sufficient research evidence that discounts this practice of not using a child's home language as the primary language of learning and teaching activities, this study purports to find out strategies that can be employed to promote the use of indigenous African languages for teaching and learning in South African schools. The study is being done against the background of existing research locally and internationally which discredits the use of foreign languages for learning and teaching as well as the constitutional change in 1994 which recognised indigenous African languages as official languages in the country. The study will consider the use of indigenous African languages vis-a-vis English, which is predominantly used as a language of

learning and teaching for most learners who speak indigenous African languages as home or first languages.

1.2. Statement of the problem

With the advent of democracy in 1994, South Africa adopted a new constitution which aims at ensuring equality among the different racial and ethnic groups in the country. Among other things, the Constitution (section 6 Act 108 of 1996) proclaimed all eleven languages spoken in South Africa as official. This elevated the nine indigenous African languages (isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, sePedi, seSotho, seTswana, siSwati, tshiVenda and xiTsonga) to official status and entrenched multilingualism as a constitutional requirement.

Since this constitutional milestone, a number of legislative initiatives have been taken by the government to ensure equality of all languages spoken in South Africa. These include among others, the National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 and subsequently the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) of 1997, the South African Schools Act of 1996 and The Language Policy for Higher Education (Department of Education 2002). The above mentioned pieces of legislation point out the importance of using a learner's first or home language for learning and teaching purposes, but despite their adoption, not enough has been done in terms of promoting indigenous African languages as media of instruction (MoIs) or Languages of Learning and Teaching (LoLTs) in the South African schooling system. According to Balfour (2007: 5) 'at present

children make a transition from mother-tongue education to English from Grade 3, and thereafter the links between early schooling and the mother tongue are severed.' This has damaging effects for the constitutional goal of multilingualism, for the individual learner as well as for the mother-tongue itself. Baker and Jones (1998:239) note negative effects such as inhibiting the student's learning of the subject matter as well as his or her development of critical thinking skills.

A number of studies have also been conducted which indicate the positive benefits that offering education in the learners' home language has for the home language or mother tongue itself, the learning of other subjects as well as the learning of additional languages (UNESCO, (2003), Skutnabb-Kangas, (2000) and Biseth (2009). It has further been pointed out that one of the conditions that sustain the growth of a language is its use in education (Skutnabb-Kangas (2002), Trudell (2005) Balfour (2007), and (Biseth (2009). Furthermore, research in the field of literacy points out the importance of using a learner's first or home language as a basis for the development of literacy skills. As Lotharing (cited by Liddicoat (2007: 1) claims; the first step in education is to develop basic literacy skills in the first language of the learner. There is also a perception that denying or failing to provide education in a learner's home language is a violation of that learner's human rights (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000; 2002). This study, for these reasons, intends to find out strategies that can be

used to promote the use of indigenous African languages (which are first or home languages for most black learners) as media of instruction or languages of learning and teaching in the (General Education and Training (GET) (Grade R-9) and the Further Education and Training (FET)(Grade 10-12) phases of schooling.

1.3. The purpose of the study

The main purpose of this study is to identify strategies that can be used to promote the use of indigenous African languages as MoIs or LoLTs in the GET and FET phases of schooling. This is important to do in order to ensure that the constitutional goals of linguistic equality as well as multilingualism are achieved and also to ensure the proper implementation of the Language-in-Education Policy ((LiEP-1997). This is important to consider since one of the paradigms on which the Language-in-Education Policy should operate is that of an additive approach to multilingualism which is ‘interpreted as implying the maintenance of home (or primary) languages as the main LoLTs, with the subsequent addition of other languages’ (Pluddemann, 1999: 4). Currently, the reverse seems to be applicable in the South African scenario in relation to indigenous African languages. From Grade 3 onwards indigenous African learners have to switch from using their home languages for learning purposes to using English. In instances where indigenous African languages are taught, they are taught only as subjects, are not used as LoLTs and are mostly offered

as second or third languages especially in urban areas. This is contrary to the additive approach to multilingualism espoused in the Language-in-Education Policy and has had a lot of negative impact on how indigenous African languages are viewed by learners, parents and the larger society. As Jako (2006: 5) states that ‘despite the government’s commitment for multilingualism and the promotion of language rights in all spheres of public life, the education sector does not totally reflect the multilingual nature of South Africa.’ It is not only because of constitutional provisions that education in one’s home language should be encouraged but also research into mother-tongue education has proven that it has a lot of benefits for the learning of additional languages as well.

The ideology concerning the value of mother tongue education suggests that mother-tongue education will lay an adequate foundation for the acquisition of another target language (Balfour 2007:9). Promoting the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching purposes then would not only be meeting a constitutional right but would also be in line with research findings that justify its benefits for learning and teaching purposes.

This study purports to:

- identify strategies that could be used to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching purposes at school level (GET and FET phases) by using isiZulu as an exploratory case study.

- develop a framework of strategies to develop and use indigenous African languages for learning and teaching in the GET and FET phases of schooling.

1.4. Research Hypothesis

The study is based on the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1

Providing education in the learners' home languages would yield a lot of positive benefits for the South African education system.

Hypothesis 2

IsiZulu and other indigenous African languages can be developed and used effectively as languages of learning and teaching at school level.

1.5. Method of Research

This study is intended to find strategies and develop a framework of these strategies that can help promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching purposes in schools.

A qualitative exploratory case study approach will be used to conduct this study because of its advantages in studies that focus on a phenomenon in its natural settings and in all its complexity (Leedy 1993:133). Using a case study approach will further allow the researcher to utilise both qualitative and

quantitative methods (Nunan, 1992: 75) to analyse data and test hypotheses in the study. Questionnaires and interviews will be used to collect data on strategies that can be used to promote the use of isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching in schools. Data will be collected from three different categories of respondents. The first category will comprise language experts from institutions of higher education. These will be targeted because of their expert knowledge on how language can either pose a barrier or provide a benefit to learning. The second category of respondents will be made up of school level educators who have first-hand experience of difficulties associated with teaching through a language that is not the learners' mother tongue. The last category will comprise learners who have first-hand experience of difficulties associated with learning in a language that is not their mother tongue. The collected data will be analysed qualitatively in order to categorize responses that emerge from the data, and the frequency of occurrence of certain responses will be used to determine strategies that can be suggested to help promote the use of indigenous African languages as languages of teaching and learning. Once the data has been analysed, a framework of strategies will be extracted from the analysed data since the major goal of the study is to develop a framework of strategies that can eventually be recommended to curriculum planners and the Department of Education for decision making purposes concerning the use of indigenous African languages for teaching and learning.

1.6. Structure of the study

This chapter identifies the problem that will be addressed in the study as well as the rationale for conducting the study. The purpose of the study, research hypotheses, and the method of research to be used in the study are also briefly explained. Abbreviations and terms to be used in the study are also explained.

Chapter 2 will review literature on the value and use of language for purposes of teaching and learning. Implications of linguistic constitutional provisions as well as those of the language-in-education policy will be discussed. Research findings on both the positive and negative benefits of first and additional languages will be reviewed.

Chapter 3 will describe the research approach used in the study with specific focus on the subjects, data collection techniques as well as methods used to analyse the data collected for the study.

Chapter 4 will be devoted to the presentation, discussion and interpretation of the analysed data.

Chapter 5 will summarise the major findings of the study, implications for further research as well as the limitations of the study.

1.7. Terms and abbreviations to be used in the study

Indigenous African languages in this study refer to ethnic or native languages used by Blacks in South Africa which are now constitutionally recognised as official languages of South Africa. These include isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, sePedi, seSotho, seTswana, siSwati, tshiVenda and xiTsonga.

The General Education and Training (GET) and the Further Education and Training (FET) phases of schooling refer to the phases of education that constitute basic education in the South African education system. The GET phase includes the Foundation phase which comprises Grades R to 3, the Intermediate phase which consists of Grades 4 to 7, and the senior phase which includes Grades 8 and 9. The FET phase comprises Grades 10 to 12.

The Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) refers to the policy adopted in South Africa in 1997 which outlines how the multilingual requirement espoused by the South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) is going to be implemented in South African schools. This policy gives the School Governing Bodies (SGB's) a right to decide on the language of learning and teaching for their respective schools.

The term Medium of Instruction (MoI) and the term Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) will be used interchangeably to refer to a language that is used for both learning and teaching purposes. The LiEP differentiates between a

language of learning and teaching and a language learnt as a subject. A language of learning and teaching is a language that is used to offer all subjects in a school's curriculum. According to the policy, two official languages (languages recognised by the South African Constitution) can be offered as subjects and recognised for promotion requirements in South African schools except in the Foundation Phase where only one language can be offered as a subject. Learners are expected to do the school's language of learning and teaching as a subject as well.

A home language is understood as the primary language of a learner, which is a language a learner uses at home and for everyday communication needs and sometimes referred to as the mother tongue of a learner. In the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) 2012 document, a home language is defined as 'the language first acquired by learners.' The document goes on to state that many South African schools do not offer the home language or home languages of most learners enrolled in the schools and thus differentiates between a Home language and a First Additional language. The two terms are said to refer to the level at which a language is learnt and not the native or acquired language. In this study however, the term home language is used to denote a language that a learner first acquires or their primary language which in the case of the majority of learners in predominantly Black schools is one of the nine indigenous African languages that have been constitutionally recognised as official

languages in South Africa since 1996 ((isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, sePedi, seSotho, seTswana, siSwati, tshiVenda and xiTsonga).

KwaZulu-Natal is one of the 9 provinces that constitute South Africa which was created in 1994 after the merger of KwaZulu (a Bantustan that had been created during the apartheid era and had its capital in Ulundi) and Natal (which had been one of the four provinces of South Africa during the apartheid era). The dominant language spoken in KwaZulu-Natal is isiZulu and the capital city of the province is Pietermaritzburg. The province is located on the southeast of South Africa along the Indian Ocean coastline.

Ex-Model C schools or former Model C schools refer to the formerly white state aided schools (enrolled only white learners) in South Africa. These schools were provided for by the government between 1992 and 1996 as a way of allowing greater parental involvement ‘in the financing and management of schools’ (Loock 1995: 35). With the demise of apartheid, and parents being allowed to enrol children in schools of their choice, these schools became obliged to enrol learners from all racial groups, hence the reference to them as ex- Model C or former model C schools.

The term ‘educator’ is used to refer to a teacher. This is a term that is used in the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996:2) to refer to teachers and has since been adopted and used to refer to teachers in all school related Department of Education documents.

The term ‘mother tongue education’ will be used to refer to the use of the learner’s home language as a language of learning and teaching or as a medium of instruction in formal schooling.

1.8. Summary

In this chapter the rationale for the need to conduct the study as well as the purpose of the study were explained. The research hypothesis and methods that were used to conduct the study were highlighted. An outline of the entire study was also explained. Major terms to be used in the study were indicated and defined.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The issue of language in education has been at the forefront of educational discussions in the whole of Africa since the introduction of formal education through colonisation. In almost all African countries, both during the colonial and in the post-colonial era, there have been a lot of arguments against the retention of colonial languages as languages of instruction and calls for the use of mother tongues or indigenous languages for the betterment of African education have been made. The hegemonic power of the language or languages in which education is mediated has been noted. Prah (2005:27) for instance, claims that ‘the language of instruction, the language of educational formation, in any society is also the language of hegemony and power’ and goes on to argue that ‘where the language of instruction is the same as the mother tongue or home language, it affirms the developmental capacity of the mother tongue to grow as a language of culture, science and technology.’ In South Africa the issue of language in education has on one hand been quite instrumental in promoting racial segregation and, on the other hand, used to repress African development socially, economically and otherwise. From a pedagogical perspective there have also been a lot of research both internationally and locally that justifies the need to promote the use of home languages as media of

instruction in education. Noteworthy are attempts that have been made in some African countries for example in Cameroon, Tanzania and Nigeria to use indigenous or local languages as media of instruction with a certain degree of success.

This review of literature focuses on the legislation related to language in education in South Africa, research on the benefits of mother tongue instruction, hindrances to the promotion of mother tongue education in South Africa as well as some trends regarding mother tongue education in South Africa and some other African countries.

2.2 Legislation and Language Planning in Education

The overthrow of the apartheid regime in South Africa was followed by the adoption of a new constitution in 1996 which among other things, brought about a significant break from the language legislation which had recognised English and Afrikaans as the only two official languages of South Africa. For the first time in the history of South Africa, the nine indigenous African languages (isiZulu, isiXhosa, sePedi, seTswana, seSotho, xiTsonga, siSwati, tshiVenda and isiNdebele) were constitutionally recognised as official languages of South Africa and the need to promote multilingualism was entrenched as a constitutional requirement.

In response to the constitutional requirement of promoting multilingualism in South Africa, the Department of Education (DoE) went on to pass legislation that recognised and embraced this constitutional requirement in the country's education system. These included the Language in Education Policy (LiEP) (1997) (formulated in terms of the National Education Policy Act of 1996) and the Norms and Standards regarding Language Policy (1997) which was formulated in terms of the South African Schools Act of 1996. According to the Department of Education (DoE) (1996:1) the two policies complement each other and should thus be read together at all times. Heugh (2000: 26) describes the language in education policy as having been 'intended to foreground the mother tongue or primary language of pupils in school while making adequate provision for the effective learning of at least one other language.' The following have been highlighted as the paradigm within which the policy operates:

- Recognition of cultural diversity as a valuable national asset and hence the need to promote multilingualism and the development of all official languages.
- Recognition of the tensions, contradictions and sensitivities inherited from the previous language-in-education policy.

- Recognition of the policy as part of the government's strategy of nation building and thus its need to facilitate communication across racial, linguistic and religious barriers.
- Promotion of both societal and individual multilingualism and the assumption that the learning of more than one language be general practice and principle in our society.
- Differences of opinion regarding approaches to multilingualism and hence the need for the delivery system to be guided by results of comparative research, both locally and internationally.
- An individual's right to choose their language of learning and teaching.

The Norms and Standards regarding Language Policy (published in terms of the South African Schools Act of 1996) are aimed at ensuring that school education complies with the Constitution in promoting, fulfilling and developing the state's language goals which are:

- The protection, promotion, fulfilment and extension of the individual's language rights and means of communication in education and
- The facilitation of national and international communication through promotion of bi- or multilingualism through cost-efficient and effective mechanisms,
- To redress the neglect of the historically disadvantaged languages in school education. (Language in Education Policy, 1997)

To fulfil the above stated aims, the policy further spells out the right of each and every learner to choose their preferred language of learning and teaching upon application to a school (in instances where a learner is a minor, this right is vested with the parent). The policy further goes on to state that ‘the governing body must stipulate how the school will promote multilingualism through using more than one language of learning and teaching.’ The school governing body (SGB) is constituted of parent representatives, educator representatives, learner representatives and the school principal as an ex officio member.

The explicit provision for education through the medium of an African language has been commended by Alexander (2003: 15) as providing a ‘democratic space for the legal and peaceful promotion of multilingualism and for mother tongue based bilingual education in South Africa.’ However, the right to mother tongue education is immediately revoked by restrictions outlined in the policy on the extent to which and the amount of choice that can be exercised either by the learner or the SGB. The policy states that:

‘where there are less than 40 requests in Grades 1 to 6, or less than 35 requests in Grade 7 to 12 for instruction in a language in a given grade not already offered by a school in a particular school district, the head of the provincial department of education will determine how the needs of those learners will be met.’

To implement the policy, the following points are stipulated:

- Schools will offer at least one approved language as a subject in Grade 1 and in Grade 2.

- From Grade 3 onwards, all learners shall offer their language of learning and teaching and at least one additional approved language as a subject (Language-in-education Policy, 1997:2).

From the above quotation it seems clear that the policy is silent on which language is or should be ‘the approved language in Grade 1 and Grade 2’ and which one should be ‘their language of learning and teaching’ subsequently. This loophole in the policy has resulted in paradoxical effects at implementation level. In the case of learners using indigenous African languages, an abrupt switch to English as a language of learning and teaching is made after the first two years of schooling and in the case of learners who use Afrikaans or English as languages of learning and teaching such a switch is not made. As is going to be explained subsequently this abrupt switch on the part of learners who speak indigenous African languages as home languages has many detrimental effects on the learner himself or herself in terms of cognitive development, on learning in general and on the languages as well (both the home language and the adopted language of learning and teaching). Balfour (2007: 5) claims that if the break from mother tongue instruction occurs too early and if the mother tongue is not subsequently reinforced, conditions that are conducive to subtractive bilingualism (a condition where the learning of another language affects further development of the home language) are promoted.

In as far as promotion in the various grades is concerned, the policy stipulates the following:

- In Grade 1 to Grade 4 promotion is based on performance in one language and Mathematics.
- From Grade 5 onwards, only one language must be passed.
- From Grade 10 to Grade 12 two languages must be passed, one on first language level, and the other on at least second language level. At least one of these languages must be an official language.

While the Language-in-Education Policy claims to help facilitate learning and promote communication among South Africans through an additive approach to multilingualism, language related promotion requirements stipulated in the policy seem to create conditions which are more conducive to creating monolingualism instead if, between Grade 1 and Grade 9 (GET phase) learners are expected to pass only one language in order to be promoted to the next grade. Only between Grade 10 and 12 (FET phase) does the policy stipulate passing two languages as a promotion requirement. These discrepancies in promotion requirements between the GET phase and the FET phase have further contributed to the demise of indigenous African languages especially in ex-Model C schools where indigenous African languages are offered as second or third additional languages, if offered at all, in order to meet promotion requirements. This, according to Desai (2001: 330) will result in learners being

less multilingual ...than in the past. A similar view is shared by Prah (2006: 20) who claims that ‘the multilingualism of the South African majority of African language speakers is undermined by stressing bilingualism as opposed to multilingualism in education.’ Language teaching stipulations at implementation level in the Language-in-Education Policy thus seem to create conditions that are not conducive to the promotion of multilingualism or to the development of the marginalised indigenous African languages.

At the same time as these linguistic legislative changes were taking place, the DoE soon announced a new national curriculum (Curriculum 2005) which adopted the language provisions made in the Language-in-Education Policy. This curriculum initiative was brought about by the winds of political change experienced in South Africa from 1990 with the release of key anti-apartheid political prisoners and calls for political transformation in the country. The curriculum was premised on a system of outcomes-based education from recommendations made in the White Paper on Education and Training of 1995. As a white paper, the purpose of this document was to describe the initial steps that would be taken by Department of Education to transform education in South Africa under the Government of National Unity that had been formed after the country’s first democratic elections in 1994.

The intention was that the new curriculum would be phased in from 1998 and its implementation would be completed by 2005, hence the name Curriculum

2005 (C2005) (Department of Education, 2002). According to Heugh (1999: 308) both the Language-in-Education Policy and Curriculum 2005 worked from an unstated premise that all learners would ‘somehow end up learning through the medium of English.’ This practice (of teaching indigenous children through a medium of a dominant language) according to Skutnabb-Kangas (2004:4) ‘fosters monolingualism in the dominant language, not high levels of multilingualism’ which goes against the very purpose of the policy itself (promoting multilingualism) as well as the Constitution from which the policy emanates.

This also is contrary to the principle of an additive approach to multilingualism adopted in the policy but rather sets the stage for subtractive multilingualism because it creates conditions where English dominates education at the expense of indigenous African languages. Cummins (2000) and Heugh (2000) as cited in Biseth (2009: 8) define additive multilingualism as ‘the process by which a new language is learned while the learner still maintains and develops the mother tongue.’ According to Skutnabb-Kangas (2004:5) ‘in additive language learning and teaching the new language is learned **in addition** to the mother tongue which continues to be used and developed.’ This implies that if the additional language is learned at the expense of the first language, it is likely to impede the learning of the first language. Additive bilingualism (or multilingualism) according to Prah (2006:19) ‘is said to be achieved when the acquisition process

of a second language does not interfere or inhibit the learning of the first language.’ For this to happen with indigenous African language speaking children, their own language needs to be the main medium of teaching at least during the first 8-9 years of schooling, preferably longer. This view is also supported by Collier (1995:5) who, on the basis of results of longitudinal studies done to determine the length of time needed for a learner to achieve native speaker levels of competence in a second language through formal teaching, concludes that ‘non-native speakers of English with no schooling in their first language take 7 to 10 years or more to reach age and grade-level norms of their native English speaking peers’. From these claims it can be deduced that the amount of formal schooling in a learner’s first language is an important variable in advancing additive bilingualism or multilingualism. Neglect of learning and teaching in the learner’s first language thus, works against the goal of additive multilingualism.

Furthermore, linguistic diversity which is recognised and cherished both in the Constitution and in the Language in Education Policy is threatened by the implementation provisions made in the Language in Education Policy. By determining English as a language of learning and teaching so early in a child’s schooling, the education system inadvertently creates a situation in which other languages, particularly indigenous African Languages are ‘killed’ and a

monolingual society created and consequently the linguistic diversity of the country is undermined as well.

Instead of using unclear phrases like ‘approved language’ and ‘their language of learning and teaching’ the Department of Education could have used the provisions made in the Constitution to make explicit the languages that could be used in different provincial jurisdictions. Clause 3(a) and (b) of the section on languages in Chapter 1 of the Constitution states:

provincial governments may use any particular official languages for the purposes of government, taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances and the balance of the needs and preferences of the population as a whole” and further states that: “municipalities must take into account the language usage and preferences of their residents (Republic of South Africa, 1998:4).

These clauses allow provincial governments and municipalities some leeway in determining languages to use and could be used to make explicit decisions about how languages are to be used and developed in education as well. The political dispensation of the apartheid era created linguistic zones which have not been disbanded by the new order and these can be easily used to determine which language or languages must be developed in a specific provincial jurisdiction. In a nutshell, despite its good intentions, the Language-in-Education Policy has not been successfully implemented and the state of

marginalisation which indigenous African languages experienced during the apartheid era has not come to an end.

Some of the problems related to the implementation of the Language-in-Education Policy are related to the problems experienced with implementation of the language policy at national level. Kamwendo (2006:62) refers to these as ‘worrisome trends in the language planning process in the new South Africa’. They include among others; the drift towards unilingualism (in favour of English), the presence of escape clauses in the constitutional provisions on language, low funding priority given to language issues, the low esteem in which African languages are held, the low level of corpus development of African languages; and the lack of political will to turn the grand language plan into reality. Though the trends mentioned by Kamwendo relate to language planning in South Africa as a whole, they have implications for language in education as well. The LiEP, as explained above does have escape clauses which have been referred to as loopholes and have had detrimental consequences for indigenous African languages in education.

The low esteem in which African languages are held has influenced learners’ and parents’ attitudes to the learning of the languages as is going to be discussed subsequently. Huegh (1999) has noted how discrepancies and unparallel processes in the development of the LiEP and curriculum planning have worked against the promotion of indigenous languages as espoused in the Language-in-

Education Policy. The process of curriculum planning and implementation (Curriculum 2005) took place separately from the process of language in education policy development and this largely resulted in the policy recommendations being undermined in the implementation of the curriculum.

Finally, in spite of the negative aspects noted in the policy, there are some aspects that can be used from the policy to spearhead a strategy to develop African languages. For instance, the policy allows SGBs to determine languages to be used in their schools. The SGB as explained above comprises parents, learners and educators. These can be used to initiate and drive strategies to promote the use of African languages in their vicinities. Afrikaans-medium schools have boldly used this provision in the policy to ensure the uncontested use of Afrikaans as the sole medium of instruction in their schools with English taught as an additional language. Through the SGBs then means can be made to salvage and resuscitate the learning and use of African languages in schools.

2.3 The benefits of mother tongue instruction

Mother tongue education is regarded as an aspect of language planning which according to Weinstein (1980) as cited in Kamwangamalu (2002:121) is defined as ‘a government-authorised, long-term, sustained, and conscious effort to alter a language’s function in society for the purpose of solving communication problems.’ Tollefson (1991: 43) claims that because of the important role that education plays in terms of employment and in gaining access to political

power, mother tongue education-or its denial- is one of the most important issues in language policy and language education. The prevailing trend not only in South Africa, but in most African states is to provide education in the learners' mother tongue education for the first three to four years of formal schooling and thereafter switch to a European language (English, French or Portuguese depending on a country's colonial history) as a language of learning and teaching.

There have been a lot of arguments against this practice from a number of organisations and researchers (UNESCO (1968), OAU (1986) and Skutnabkangas (1988) on the grounds that the switch is often abrupt, the linguistic preparation that learners have in the European language is often inadequate at this stage and thus leads to high failure and drop-out rates among African learners. Kamwangamalu (2002:124) notes that mother-tongue education was central to the apartheid language-in-education policies. However, what distinguished white mother-tongue education from black mother-tongue education was that the former promoted white interests and ensured that whites had access to both the power and the privileges with which these languages came to be associated, whilst the latter did not give blacks access to the same power and privileges as their white counterparts. With the end of apartheid in 1994, South Africa adopted a new language policy which promotes multilingualism by recognising 11 languages spoken in the country as official.

To entrench the goal of multilingualism as recommended in the Constitution, the South African Language-in-Education Policy adopted the principle of an additive approach to multilingualism.

The underlying principle in an additive approach to multilingualism is ‘to maintain home language(s) while providing access to and the effective acquisition of additional language(s)’ (the Language-in-Education Policy 1997:2). Biseth (2009:8) claims that ‘it is now widely recognized that it is of utmost importance to develop skills in both languages (the home language and the additional language) in order to enhance cognitive, linguistic and academic growth.’ In the South African scenario, however, particularly in the case of indigenous African learners, the reverse is happening. The Language-in-Education Policy provides for the transition from mother tongue instruction to English which happens to be an additional if not a foreign language for most indigenous African learners as early as Grade 3. This switch has implications not only for the learner concerned but for the goal of additive multilingualism as well by creating conditions that promote subtractive multilingualism instead. According to Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) as cited by Biseth (2009:8) subtractive multilingualism implies that ‘the new language is learned at the risk of displacing or replacing the mother tongue.’ A similar view is shared by (Prah, 2006:20) who claims that ‘under conditions of subtractive bilingualism, the result is incompetence in both languages which is also referred to as

semilingualism'. The concept of semilingualism according to Balfour (2007: 1), has its origins in the works of Zobl (1980) who defines semilingualism as a phenomenon that occurs 'when learners fail to develop full proficiency in either language. According to Romaine (1994: 233) this concept has been used to describe 'the less than complete linguistic skills of some bilinguals' in instances where attempts at bilingual education impede the development of the home or first language on one hand and the development of the second or additional language on the other. This implies that learners end up not developing adequate competence in both languages concerned. In the South African context, this would result from early introduction of instruction in an additional language (English in the case of indigenous African language speaking learners) before learners have developed adequate competence in their home languages.

A number of researchers (Cummins (1989), Thomas and Collier (1997), Skutnabb-Kangas (2004) have conducted various studies which prove that using a learner's mother tongue or first language for learning and teaching purposes has many positive benefits that far outweigh the negative effects that sometimes tend to be associated with using a learner's first language for instructional purposes. On the basis of longitudinal studies by Thomas and Collier (1997) done to determine the length of time needed for a learner who receives instruction at school in a language that is not their first language to reach native speaker proficiency levels in the language of instruction, Collier (1995) has

suggested a model which highlights variables that are key to the successful acquisition of the second or additional language as well as the central role that the first language plays in ensuring successful second or additional language acquisition. She claims that acquiring a second language is a process that is influenced by an interdependence of complex sociocultural, linguistic, academic and cognitive factors. She maintains that for cognitive and academic success to occur, ‘a student’s first language system...must be developed to a high cognitive level at least through the elementary school years’ and that ‘academic knowledge and conceptual development transfer from the first language to the second language’ (Collier, 1995: 3). This claim indicates that the belief prevalent in South Africa and many other African countries that learners will develop proficiency in a language by introducing it early as a language of learning and teaching is wrongly premised.

Makalela (2005:163) cites other studies that have been conducted in other contexts which justify the conclusions made by Collier namely; the Six Year Primary Project in Nigeria (initiated in 1970) and the Experimental World Literacy Programme done by UNESCO in 1976. The Experimental World Literacy Programme showed the effectiveness of literacy if the language used was closely related to everyday speech and the Six Year Primary Project in Nigeria showed that learners who received initial instruction in their mother

tongue had more developed cognitive and linguistic abilities compared to their counterparts who received instruction in a foreign language.

On the basis of results from other studies conducted by Thomas and Collier in 2002 Skutnabb-Kangas (2004: 2) concluded that ‘the longer indigenous children... have their *own* language as the main medium of teaching, the better they also become in the other dominant language.’ Mother-tongue instruction does not only benefit the learning of (an) additional language or languages but it also has a lot of benefits on children’s educational development. Cummins (2000: 4) claims that ‘when children are encouraged to reject their mother-tongue ... their personal and conceptual foundation for learning is undermined.’ A similar view is noted in a report by the International Development Research Centre (IDRC) (cited in Prah 2005: 34) based on studies conducted in Botswana, Kenya, Mali, Nigeria, South Africa and Tanzania which suggests that ‘language of instruction approaches that are based on mother-tongue instruction in the early years of basic education result in faster and improved capacity for acquisition of knowledge by pupils.’ This implies that failure to provide mother tongue education does not only put the language concerned at stake but the overall education of a child and consequently that of a nation is jeopardised as well.

Skutnabb-Kangas (2004:2) refers to the tendency to deny children education in their mother tongue (which is highly prevalent in Africa) as committing a

linguistic genocide and goes on to say that ‘the results (of denying children mother-tongue education) are often bad or even disastrous in terms of their cognitive, emotional and scholarly development.’ A number of scholars (Makalela (2005), Prinsloo (2007) and Posel and Casale (2010) have associated the high dropout rates and low levels of functional literacy among African language speaking children with failure to provide education in languages that children are more familiar with in formal schooling. Functional literacy, according to Williams and Snipper (1990: 4) is ‘often used to denote the ability to read and write well enough to understand signs, read newspaper headlines, fill out job applications, make shopping lists, and write cheques.’ Language plays a critical role in the development of this level of literacy. Makalela (2005: 156) notes that ‘despite the period of over hundred years of teaching through English in South Africa, from 1795 to the present (2005), only 24% of the country’s population is functionally literate in the language.’ In a review of studies on approaches to mother-tongue and bilingual education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Ouane and Glanz (2006) indicated ‘the importance of first acquiring literacy in one’s own language’ before learners can be expected to develop literacy in another language.

The transition that a child has to make from home to school is quite massive and shocking for any child (moving from being a child at home to being part of a group, being expected to listen and observe a teacher’s instruction, etc.). It is

important to ensure that children are helped to adjust to this change as smoothly as possible. According to Fakeye, (2011:73) ‘if the language in which all this bewildering new communication is made is also different from the mother tongue, the burden on the child is increased.’ The language used for educational purposes in the early years of schooling does not only serve communication purposes but also very central to a learner’s cognitive development. Kausar (2005: 259) argues that ‘language does not simply reflect or represent concepts already formed (but) structures and directs the processes of thinking and concept formation themselves.’ For this reason then, the language that would be most suitable for this purpose would be a language that a child can have access to, both at home and at school.

Denying a learner education in their home language does not only have negative pedagogical, academic and cognitive outcomes. In support of this view Cummins (2000:7) argues that ‘children’s cultural and linguistic experience in the home is the foundation of their future learning (which) must be built upon rather than undermined.’ The negative cultural effects this has, have also been documented by Phillipson (1992) and Pennycook (1994) as cited in Makalela (2005:163). They claim that ‘the use of a language other than the learners’ own results in cultural alienation, economic exclusion and disempowerment.’ In noting the effects of colonial languages that predominate as languages of instruction in African countries, Prah (2005: 28) states that ‘where a colonial

language becomes the language of instruction...this removes and negates the development of confidence in home or original cultures.’ A lot of cultural capital can thus be preserved and developed through encouraging the use of home languages as media of instruction and a lot of emotional challenges that come with schooling can be overcome by providing education in languages that children are exposed to in the home setting. A similar view has previously been expressed by Tollefson (1991:43) who argues that ‘pupils who do not speak the language of instruction may be at a disadvantage if required to compete with native speakers.’ The benefits that mother-tongue education has far outweigh the disadvantages for it to continue to be neglected in the South African education system.

2.4 Factors that have hindered the use of indigenous African languages in formal schooling in South Africa

The need to provide education in a learner’s first language or mother tongue has been at the forefront of recommendations made by various commissions to address deficiencies in education not only in South Africa but in all African countries that once experienced colonial rule. Heugh (1999:301) cites among others the following:

- The United Missionary Conference in Kenya in 1909;
- The Commission on Education in the East Africa Protectorate in 1919;
- The Phelps-Stokes Commissions of 1922 and of 1924;

- The Report of the East Africa Commission in 1925;
- UNESCO's Report on the Use of the Vernacular Languages in Education in 1953;
- The Lagos Conference of Education Ministers of African Member States in 1976;
- The Harare Declaration by Ministers of Education of African Member States in 1982;
- The OAU's Language Plan of Action for Africa of 1986 and
- The Pan African Colloquium on Educational Innovation in Post-Colonial Africa of 1994.

Despite the recommendations of these commissions dating as far back as 1909, not much has taken place to encourage the use of indigenous languages for instructional purposes. A number of factors are cited as reasons for the failure to develop, introduce, and implement mother-tongue education programmes not only in South Africa but in the whole of Africa.

The most significant of these factors is the alleged negative learner/parental attitudes to mother tongue education. Very few studies have been done to determine the extent and the validity of these attitudes, however. Barkhuizen (2002:502) reports exploratory studies she conducted among Xhosa (an indigenous African language) speaking learners in the Eastern and Western Cape provinces between 1998 and 1999 which 'found quite negative

perceptions towards Xhosa’ and a preference for English as a language of instruction. A finding reported in a research report commissioned to the Project for the study of Alternative Education in South Africa (PRAESA) by the Eastern Cape Department of Education in 2005 actually challenges this perception. The report states that ‘it is important to realise that negative attitudes towards African languages, whilst undoubtedly prevalent, are not ideologically motivated; that is, they are largely circumstantial and hence subject to change.’ (Makalela (2005: 155) argues that ‘it would be inappropriate to link the preference for English both in the post-1976 Soweto Uprising and post-apartheid eras as a genuine sign of any dislike for learning through African languages.’ He argues that what limits the choice of African languages for instructional purposes is the fact that there is a lack of learning and teaching materials in African languages, a circumstance which is a direct outcome of what has been inherited from the apartheid era, where African languages were not used for learning and teaching purposes beyond Grade 4. Because the schools for African-language speakers are poorly resourced, it is evident that ‘the choice is often for better resources, not for language instruction *per se*’ (Makalela (2005:155). This means that should materials be developed, it could be expected that this preference would change.

Posel and Casale (2010:449), on the other hand, claim that ‘parents want their children to study in English at least partly because of the perceived benefits

linked to English language proficiency in the labour market as well as the tendency to regard English as a pre-requisite for upward social mobility whilst indigenous African languages are often considered as insignificant and of low status.’ A similar sentiment is noted as having been the reason for the rejection of the mother-tongue education (MTE) policy in Nigeria. According to Akinnaso (1991:21) supporters of the idea to maintain English as the language of instruction in Nigeria viewed ‘English literacy as the most important skill because English continues to perform major gate-keeping roles in important areas of national life’, and providing access to educational, economic, and political opportunities in the society. This has been a prevailing perception in most African states and has led to the rejection of mother tongue education and inadvertently the diminishing use of indigenous languages not only in education but in many other spheres of public life.

In the case of South Africa, Kamwangamalu (2002:129) notes that the association of mother-tongue education with lack of economic viability has tended to perpetuate the stigma towards mother-tongue education and impeded any efforts to promote African languages as media of learning and teaching. Makalela (2005: 162) argues that the attitudes that are said to be prevailing towards learning in indigenous African languages can be changed by ‘linking learning through African languages with social mobility through a political effort to market these languages by providing incentives in the form of

scholarships.’ In South Africa several scholars have noted the impact that the language-in-education policy of the apartheid era has continued to have on the attitudes towards learning and teaching in the indigenous African languages. Barkhuizen and Gough (1996: 454) argue that ‘in apartheid terms, the primary significance of the mother-tongue principle was not educational but ideological’ because of its use to promote ethno-linguistic nationalism among Africans on one hand as well as to promote racial classification on the other. A similar observation is made by Makalela (2005:153) who states that ‘the Bantu Education Act of 1953 (passed as part of the apartheid policy of separate development) sought to increase the use of the mother- tongue from Grade 4 to Grade 8, for fragmentation of the African people whose majority status was both a political and social threat.’

According to Posel and Casale (2010:450) ‘mother tongue instruction is tainted by its association with the apartheid government’s policy of Bantu Education of 1953 which combined mother-tongue instruction with a limited and inferior curriculum for non-Whites... and provided a means of alienating the majority of the population from the political and economic core of the country.’ Mother tongue instruction thus came to be wrongly associated with inferiority, political alienation as well as low job prospects for Africans. This led to the rejection of the education system and culminated in the Soweto uprising of 1976 which was subsequently followed by the scrapping of the Bantu Education Act of 1953

which had enacted mother-tongue instruction for the first eight years of schooling. The Bantu Education Act was then replaced by the Education and Training Act (1979) which reduced mother-tongue instruction to 4 years of primary school after which learners had a choice of choosing between English and Afrikaans as media of instruction. In most instances English was chosen as a language of instruction instead of Afrikaans because of the apartheid association that Afrikaans had and indigenous African languages could not be opted for because these languages had not been used beyond Grade 8 and obviously there were no teaching materials in any of them.

However, Heugh (1999) and Prah (2005) highlight the dramatic increase in the matric pass rate of African language speaking students from 43.5% in 1955 to 83.4% in 1976 despite the disturbances in schooling that had taken place and despite the negative connotations that mother-tongue instruction had among African language speaking learners and parents. Heugh (1999:303) argues that ‘despite the poor primary curriculum, the increase in the pass rate may very well be partly attributed to the maintenance and development of the home language for 8 years of formal education, during which time English and Afrikaans were introduced and taught as subjects.’ This claim, as pointed out earlier is supported by a number of scholars and researchers who argue for the maintenance of a home language and the learning of an additional language for at least 8 years of formal schooling before it can be used for learning and

teaching purposes (Cummins, (1984), Collier (1995), Skutnabb-kangas (2000). If research evidence proves that there are positive benefits to mother-tongue education, the negative perceptions that parents and learners are said to have towards mother-tongue education need to be addressed. Posel and Casale (2010: 457) suggest that ‘parents and educators need to be educated on the benefits of mother-tongue instruction so that they can make informed decisions regarding the best way for children to achieve both English language proficiency and a suitable level of cognitive development.’

In South Africa the need to develop material in the indigenous African languages did not gain much support since the inception of the Language-in-Education Policy of 1997 until only recently. Often, the economic cost of producing materials has been highlighted at the expense of the academic benefits that such an exercise could bring to the country’s indigenous African language speaking learners. This has seen the retention of and an increase in the production of materials in English which has tended to be seen as a less expensive option. According to Makalela (2005: 159) ‘this is blind to the benefits of using these (indigenous African) languages, of accelerating academic success rate and improvements in national literacy, all necessary for economic viability and sustainable growth.’ The argument for the economic viability of developing material in indigenous African languages has been noted by some scholars (Brock-Utne, 2005, Heugh (1999) as related to the

dependence of African countries on their former colonisers for economic support and funding of their educational development programmes. Most African countries continue to be retained as text-book markets for Western publishing companies. The implication this has is that no growth in materials in African languages takes place because companies that produce materials are based outside the countries that they service and do not speak any of the African languages that are at stake in African education. It can be expected that promoting local publishing could play a significant role in bringing a turn-around in addressing the lack of materials in indigenous African languages which would in turn bring about more visibility of the languages and subsequently a change of the public's perception of these languages.

To deal with the economic infeasibility claim against developing indigenous African languages, some scholars (Makalela, 2005 and Prah 2006) have argued for the harmonisation of the nine indigenous African languages. Such a drive would result in a Nguni cluster comprising isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele and isiSwati and a Sotho cluster comprising seSotho, sePedi and seTswana. This, in their view would take away the economic infeasibility of providing materials in all the nine languages and thus help advance the development of indigenous African languages.

Another factor that has been cited as responsible for the perceived low appeal of African languages is a colonial heritage one (Prah, 2005, Biseth (2009)). In the

colonial era, the use of colonial languages (English in the case of South Africa) was often associated with elitism and social mobility. This trend has tended to continue in the post-colonial age as well where the elite tend to regard English proficiency as a symbol of elitism and social progress. It is seen as a means of differentiation between the elite, who in most cases have political control in most post-colonial states, and the masses. A reluctance to promote indigenous African languages for instructional purposes has thus come about from political circles because colonial languages tend to be favoured because they are seen as a way of preserving power in the hands of the elite.

Prah (2005:33) notes that societies which have made a break from their colonial pasts of using colonial languages as media of instruction have been able to make significant progress and development in various spheres of life and notes post-colonial Asia as a good example of such. This observation is supported by Ranaweera (as cited in Brock-Utne 2000:153) who claims that:

‘The transition from English to the national languages as the medium of instruction in science helped to destroy the great barrier that existed... between the science educated elite and the non-science educated masses; between science itself and the people.’

An important decision thus needs to be made in South Africa; whether to prioritise widening the gap between the elite and the masses by denying them education in their home languages or to reduce the gap by providing education in the indigenous languages and in a way increase the economic growth and development of the country.

2.5 Implementing mother-tongue education

The Language-in-Education Policy does not contain any suggestions on how mother-tongue education can be accommodated into the South African education system despite that it claims to be premised on the principle of an additive approach to multilingualism which advocates the use of the learners' home language first before an additional language is added. There are, on the other hand, differing points of view among scholars (Alexander 2005, Makalela 2005 and Balfour 2007) who have contributed to the debate on the need to promote the use of home languages for instructional purposes as to how mother-tongue education can be implemented in South Africa.

Balfour (2007:4) notes that 'there is no coherent research basis which supports a single view' of how (mother-tongue education can be achieved) and highlights the importance of drawing from language teaching theories and pedagogies in order to make informed decisions about models that embrace mother-tongues in education that can be sustainable for South Africa. He notes that both cognitive and functionalist approaches to language learning recognise the influence of the mother-tongue in learning another language in different ways. He further argues that 'certain models assume mother-tongue competence to be necessary prior to the 'learning' of a second language; others assume that two or more languages can be acquired easily provided that the settings for acquisition are natural' (*ibid*). The different perspectives of the influence of the mother-tongue

highlighted in different models have significant implications for models of mother-tongue education that can be proposed for South Africa. A distinction is made between mother-tongue education and bilingual education.

A model that recognises the centrality of the mother-tongue in laying the foundation for second language learning would emphasize mother-tongue based bilingual education where initial education is provided in the mother-tongue and then a switch is made to a second or additional language for learning and teaching purposes. On the other hand, a model that recognises the centrality of the mother-tongue in providing access to economic and social mobility would emphasize mother-tongue education throughout schooling where second languages are only taught as subjects. A purely bilingual education program on the other hand, puts equal emphasis on both languages deemed to be important for educational success. Bilingual education programmes also come in different forms depending on the goal of the country's broader language goals. Internationally, a distinction is made between bilingual education programs that are intended to assimilate minority language speakers into the dominant language and those that are aimed at maintaining the minority language (Williams and Snipper, 1990 and Romaine, 1994). In the South African case, the indigenous African languages that have to contest with English as languages of learning and teaching are not necessarily minority languages but the historical circumstances in the country have put them in a lower position than

English which in fact is a minority language when considering statistical data on the number of speakers of the language. Different assumptions underpin the approach taken in bilingual education provisioning. Williams and Snipper (1990: 52) claim that programmes that emphasize assimilation assume that ‘language is the most important factor that fosters national unity’ and thus encourage assimilating speakers of the minority language under the dominant one. The assumption in maintenance bilingual education on the other hand is that ‘bilingualism is a valuable asset’ and preserving a language helps learners in maintaining their self-concept (Williams and Snipper, 1990: 51). This approach recognises the importance that knowledge of and learning one’s home or first language plays in a learner’s understanding of who of they are and on their importance as individuals.

In addition to considering language learning and teaching theories in designing a suitable model for mother-tongue education, Balfour (2007:2) further highlights the importance of considering socio-economic and socio-geographic variables that can constrain the implementation of any model of mother-tongue education that can be suggested for South Africa. He mentions two significant factors that need to be considered when developing a model/s of mother-tongue education in South Africa. Namely, taking into cognizance that it is highly unlikely that children (especially in metropolitan areas) can have exposure to only one language in their early learning years and that mother-tongue

education needs to be considered insofar as it facilitates and enhances the understanding of bilingual education for a multilingual environment.

The complexity of the multilingualism in South Africa has also been noted by Makalela (2005: 164) as ‘a real challenge to mother-tongue education.’ The South African constitution recognises nine indigenous African languages as well as English and Afrikaans as the official languages of South Africa. The Language-in-Education Policy, on the other hand, in the case of indigenous African language speaking children makes provisions for home language or mother-tongue education in the first three years of schooling and thereafter a switch has to be made to English as a language of teaching and learning. One reality that has not been considered in making the provisions in the Language-in-Education Policy is the fact that English is not automatically a second language for all indigenous language speaking children. Makalela (2005:156) claims that in the Limpopo province alone, ‘only 0.4 percent of people speak English as their primary language while the school children are surrounded by African languages.’ This is a prevailing situation not only in Limpopo but in most rural areas in other provinces as well. A similar observation has also been made by Brock-Utne and Hopson (2005:9) who argue that ‘bi- or multilingualism may not even include a European language’ for most African children. The prevailing socio-geographic realities in South Africa indicate that assuming that all children have access to English is narrow-minded and has

negative impacts both for the constitutional goal of multilingualism as well as for the socio-economic advancement of the country. For these reasons, Balfour (2007:10) argues that ‘an insistence on English unintentionally privileges a particular class in South Africa.’

Considerations of mother-tongue education need to take cognizance of the prevailing multilingual realities in the country and not advantage some communities at the expense of others. It should be expected that different approaches to promoting multilingualism be applied in different areas if the prevailing linguistic realities are not to be undermined. If, for any reason, English continues to be regarded as of importance for South African education, it should be taught against the foundation of indigenous African languages through either mother-tongue education or mother-tongue based bilingual education programs which take into consideration the socio-linguistic realities of the areas in which the education is provided.

2.6 Attempts to promote mother-tongue education

In spite of the political space to promote indigenous African languages that has been created through the 1996 Constitution as well as existing research evidence that affirms the value of providing education in the learners’ home languages, no initiative has yet been taken towards developing and implementing any strategies to promote the use of indigenous African languages in the South African education system. To date, only one research project has

been conducted to determine strategies that can be used to promote indigenous languages at school level, namely the PRAESA project done in the Eastern Cape in 2004. The study particularly focused on languages of learning and teaching and languages as subjects in relation to learners' home languages in the first seven years of schooling. The report makes a number of recommendations from which insights can be drawn in attempting to devise a strategy for the promotion of all indigenous African languages for instructional purposes. Among other things, with regard to the issue of language in the Eastern Cape Districts, the researchers report that 'educators (who participated in the interviews done for the study) agreed that many difficulties could be overcome by formally using the home languages of the children for teaching, learning and assessment' (Eastern Cape Department of Education, 2005: 28).

The need to use home languages for learning and teaching purposes has been raised over a number of years if African language speaking children are to benefit from the South African schooling system. The report further cites recommendations made by specialists in African languages from different Institutions of Higher Education (IHE's), teacher trainers and other education officials in the Eastern Cape. Among others, recommendations are made to couch Mother-tongue Based Bilingual Education (MTBBE) into existing language related and curriculum policies, to undertake advocacy campaigns as well as workshops to address the alleged negative attitudes towards indigenous

African languages, to train educators in order to improve their competence in teaching in an indigenous language, to provide learning and teaching materials in indigenous languages as well as to pilot MTBBE in a few schools before it can be implemented in the entire education system.

There are also encouraging findings from brave attempts made in other few African countries regarding the initiation and implementation of mother-tongue based education programmes. These include among others, the Six-Year Primary Project (SYPP) in Nigeria (Bamgbose, 2005) and the Operational Research Project for the Teaching of Cameroonian Languages (PROPELCA) in Cameroon (Trudell, 2005).

The SYPP was introduced in 1970 as an experimental project based at the then University of Ife (now known as Obafemi Awolowo University) intended ‘to use Yoruba (a Nigerian language) as a medium of instruction throughout the six years of primary education’ (Bamgbose, 2005: 243). Results of tests in various subjects to evaluate the project are said to have indicated that the experimental groups taught in the mother-tongue for the first six years of schooling performed higher than the groups that received instruction in English only. A number of positive instructional benefits are also reported for PROPELCA. Trudell (2005) attributes the success of PROPELCA to the fact that like the SYPP in Nigeria, it was first introduced in experimental form as a project sponsored by the University of Yaoundé I in 1981, was approved by the

Cameroonian Ministry of National Education and driven by the National Association of Cameroonian Language Committees which are 'locally organized institutions dedicated to the promotion of the written mother-tongue' (Trudell 2005:242). The instructional benefits of the project for the learners included an observation of an ability to read and write in the mother-tongue by the second term of the learners' first schooling year, enhancement of classroom communication and the PROPELCA students' superior ability in English as opposed to learners who were in the English only classrooms.

Kamwangamalu (2000:130), on the basis of studies into the economics of language planning by Cooper (1989), Bourdieu (1991) and Coulmas (1992) proposes that 'mother-tongue education in the African languages should be treated as a marketing problem.' Cooper developed his analogy on the basis of suggestions by Kotler and Levy (1969) cited in Cooper (1989: 73) that marketing principles can be applied to non-business organisations. The three principles they suggested are: (1) defining the product generically, (2) defining the target group of consumers and (3) analysing consumer behavior. Cooper (1989:72) argues that viewing language planning as a marketing problem involves 'developing the right product backed by the right promotion and put in the right place at the right price'. By this, he simply means that language planners need to come up with products that consumers can find attractive, make attempts to induce potential users to adopt the product, make available,

channels of distribution and response and ensuring that the product appeals to consumers. Kamwangamalu (2000) argues that the nine indigenous African languages as recognised by the Constitution are an already existing product, and with regard to the place aspect of marketing, the natural geographic distribution of the various indigenous languages is known, for example isiZulu is known to be a majority language in KwaZulu-Natal, isiXhosa is predominant in the Eastern and Western Cape and seSotho varieties predominate in the Free State, Gauteng, North West and Limpopo to mention a few. What needs to be given attention is the promotion and price issue of the linguistic marketing problem.

One of the arguments that has often been used to discourage the promotion of the indigenous African languages for learning and teaching purposes is that African learners themselves and their parents have negative attitudes towards such a drive on the basis that there is no market value for African languages in the work place. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997: 156) claim that ‘the value of language is not a property of language itself, but an index of its appreciation by a relevant community’ and further argue that ‘if languages are perceived as being useful and of value in the economic activities of consumption and work and considering the cost of acquiring a language, then the language is more likely to be learned by members of the society.’ This points to the need by community leaders to advance the language by placing a premium on its acquisition and fostering ways to promote the acquisition of the language.

Hence Kamwangamalu's (2000:131) claim that 'language consumers need to know what an African language, if adopted as a medium of learning, would do for them in terms of upward mobility.' He suggests the following as strategies to deliberately promote mother-tongue education: establishing agencies that will encourage use (of indigenous African languages), developing curriculum materials and teacher training, encouraging researchers to study African languages, bold political support for the use of African languages as media of learning, make certified knowledge of an African language a requirement to access employment.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter legislation that gives official status to indigenous African languages in South Africa was highlighted. The educational implications of language related legislation were also discussed. Research that suggests the benefits of mother-tongue education was discussed. Factors that have hindered the promotion of indigenous African languages were also highlighted. Some initiatives that have been taken in other African countries from which lessons on how mother-tongue education can be promoted can be learnt were also highlighted.

CHAPTER 3

Research Design

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the method of research used in this study. The methods and instruments of data collection, the profiles of respondents as well as how they are going to be sampled are described in detail. The methods of data analysis are also explained.

3.2 The purpose of the study

The main purpose of this study is to explore strategies that can be used to promote the use of isiZulu as a medium of instruction (MoI) or a Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in the GET and FET phases of schooling in South Africa.

3.3 Aims of the study

To identify strategies that could be used to promote the use of isiZulu for learning and teaching purposes at school level (in the GET and FET phases).

To develop a framework of strategies that can be used to develop and use isiZulu for learning and teaching in the GET and FET phases of schooling.

3.4 Research Design

The study follows a qualitative research design. Leedy (1993) and Creswell (2009) claim that qualitative research designs are most suitable for addressing exploratory questions and gaining an understanding of phenomena from the participants' point of view. Using an indigenous African language for learning and teaching purposes in the South African context is quite a complex phenomenon that has not been thoroughly explored nor described thus making a qualitative design more suitable for this study. An exploratory case study approach was used to conduct this study. An exploratory case study, according to Yin (2003: 6) can be considered a prelude to much social research, which in the case of promoting the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching purposes in South African schools is necessary to do as very little research exists on the matter.

A case study design according to Merriam (cited in Henning, 2004:41) 'is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of a situation and meaning for those involved.' According to Freebody (2003: 81) the goal of a case study in educational settings is 'to put in place an inquiry in which both researchers and educators can reflect upon particular instances of educational practice.' In this study the educational practice of teaching in the learners' home language for African learners will be reflected upon during the data collection phase and the findings shall be used to design a model that can be used to promote isiZulu as a

language of learning and teaching in the GET and FET phases of schooling in South Africa. Information from case studies, according to Litchman (2010:84) provides rich and detailed insight into a case. Adelman *et al* as cited in Nunan (1992:78) suggest the following six principal advantages of a case study as a method of research. Firstly it is ‘strong in reality and therefore likely to appeal to practitioners’ who will be able to identify with the issues and concerns raised. Secondly, they claim that it is possible to generalise from a case, either about an instance or from an instance to a class. Thirdly, ‘it can represent a multiplicity of viewpoints.’ Its fourth advantage is that if properly interpreted, it can provide a database of materials which may be reinterpreted by future researchers. Fifthly, it can yield insights that can be put to immediate use for a variety of purposes and lastly case study data are usually more accessible than conventional research reports. Creswell (2012:98) claims that ‘a hallmark of a good qualitative case study is that it presents an in-depth understanding of a case’ which is accomplished through collecting different forms of qualitative data. A case study design is thus appropriate for this study as its main aim is to explore participants’ views on how isiZulu can be promoted as a language of learning and teaching in the GET and FET phases of schooling by giving them a chance to reflect upon the idea of promoting the use of an indigenous language as a medium of instruction. Insights gained through the study can be put to use to inform policy-making in as far as the issue of language in education is concerned.

3.5 Research Instruments

3.5.1 The Interview schedule

The interview is largely recommended as a method of data collection in qualitative research (Leedy 1993, Marshall and Rossman 1999 and Creswell 2009). Interviews will enable the researcher to explore and uncover participants' views as well as get large amounts of data quickly (Leedy (1993), Marshall and Rossman (1999), Creswell (2012)). The interview schedule was used to collect data from focus groups comprising of learners doing different subjects in the FET phase of schooling from the different geographical locations represented in the study, namely rural, peri-urban and urban settings. According to Litchman (2010:101) the purpose of qualitative interviews is to allow participants to share their own views, ideas and perspectives in their own way, in ways that are not possible to probe through a questionnaire. The interview schedule was unstructured and mainly comprised open-ended questions that sought learners' views on the role that the home language could play in teaching and learning.

Lichtman (2010:153) describes a focus group as 'a group interview' whose purpose is to gather information from participants about a topic of interest.

According to Marshall and Rossman (2006:114) the method of interviewing participants in focus groups has its origins in marketing research but has been adapted to include social science and applied research. They further claim that a

focus group can be composed of anything between 4 and 12 members ‘who are unfamiliar with one another but have been selected because they share certain characteristics relevant to the study’s questions.’ The advantages of focus groups are that they promote group interaction and also save time (Litchman 2010). The major benefit that the interaction in focus groups has is that it helps trigger thoughts and ideas from participants that are unlikely to emerge in individual interviews. For this study, focus groups were created to represent subjects or fields of learning offered in the FET phase in each of the schools that were used for data collection. The discussions in the focus group focused on the following aspects: experiences in learning the various subjects represented, challenges experienced, the extent to which language influences their learning of the subject as well as views on what they think needs to be done to promote learning and teaching each subject in their home language.

3.5.2 The questionnaire

Like the interview, the questionnaire is also highly recommended as a method of data collection in qualitative research (Leedy 1993, Marshall and Rossman 1999 and Creswell 2009). The questionnaire was used to collect data from educators both in the GET and FET phases of schooling. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:247) suggest that ‘where rich and personal data is sought, a word-based qualitative approach’ to designing a questionnaire is recommended. It mainly consisted of open-ended questions to enable the researcher to solicit

the views and opinions of the participants in an unobtrusive way. Where close-ended questions were included, they were mainly used as precursors to related open-ended questions.

Marshall and Rossman (1999:108) assert that ‘open-ended questions allow the participant’s perspective to unfold as the participant views it, not as the researcher views it.’ Open-ended questions allowed the researcher to uncover the views of participants as well as allowed participants to structure their responses in ways that suit them best.

The questionnaire consisted of thirteen items in all. The first five items of the questionnaire were aimed at eliciting data that is related to the respondents’ profiles. The first two items required respondents to give an indication of their language knowledge and proficiency profiles. The third item required respondents to indicate the geographical demarcation in which their school is situated while the fourth and the fifth item required educators to indicate subjects they teach and the medium of instruction in their schools respectively. Items 6 and 7 required educators to rate and explain the effectiveness of the school’s medium of instruction in the subjects that they teach. Items 8, 9 and 10 required respondents to indicate if they ever experienced language-related problems, give a description of such problems and how they resolved them. Items 11 and 12 required educators to indicate instances of home language use in their teaching and how they felt about the idea of using the home language

for learning and teaching in their different subjects. Item 13 required respondents to give their views on what they think can be done to promote the use of the home language in their subjects.

The questionnaire was also used to collect data from language and education experts in institutions of higher learning. It mainly consisted of open-ended questions that required respondents to state their views on the issue of language in learning and teaching as well as views on what they think needs to be done to promote the use of isiZulu for learning and teaching purposes in the GET and FET phases of schooling.

3.5.3 Observation schedule

In this study an observation schedule was compiled and used for purposes of observation of classroom interaction in order to determine the impact that languages (both the language of learning and teaching and the home language) have on the learning and teaching situation. Mason (2002:84) regards observation as a method of generating qualitative data and defines observation as a method 'which entails the researcher immersing herself or himself in a research setting so that they can experience and observe at first hand a range of dimensions in and of that setting'. She mentions a range of dimensions for which an observation might be undertaken which include among others, social actions, behaviour, interactions and relationships. For this study, the focus of

the observations will be interactions that take place in the course of mediating learning.

According to Henning (2004:87) a researcher may observe a site without real participation in order to explore issues that will reveal more about data that has been acquired through interviews and other forms of data collection.

Observations are very common in qualitative research and can be performed by a participant observer or a non-participant observer (Seliger and Shohamy (1989:161). A number of observation methods and procedures have been developed and used in classroom research to observe instances of language learning and development. These include among others the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) developed by Chaudron in 1988 and the interaction analysis originated by Halliday and Hasan and later adapted by Lemke (1985). The basis of Lemke's adaption is his view of education as the social use of language to enact regular activity structures and to share systems of meaning among educators and students. According to Nunan (1992: 98) interpreting education as the use of language in the context of social activity 'enables the researcher to observe, document and interpret how educators and students use language across all school subjects.' For this study, interactions between educators and learners are going to be observed in relation to the social use of language in education.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:162) further state that ‘observations can also vary in their degree of explicitness from unstructured to highly structured observations’. In structured observations, as used in this study, there is a high degree of explicitness in which the researcher determines beforehand what to look for in the context to be observed. Particularly, the observations are intended to observe instances of the use of both the home language and the language of learning and teaching in classrooms that are going to be observed. The observation involved an investigation of frequencies of home language use both by educators and learners in learner-to educator interaction, educator-to-learner interaction and learner-to-learner interaction. These frequencies were recorded as tallies in a checklist on a scale of 0-10 tallies. 0 was used to indicate no occurrence, 1-4 tallies indicated low occurrence, 5 indicated moderate occurrence, 6-10 will indicated frequent occurrence. The purpose of the observations done in this study was mainly to explore language related teaching practices that educators and learners might be using in classroom situations to deal with language-related difficulties and analysed as part of the findings of the study.

The research instruments described above have been selected and used as a combination for this study because the study is qualitative and qualitative research does allow for the use of multiple forms of data in a single study (Leedy 1993: 143). The advantage that using multiple forms of data has, is that

it allows for triangulation. Triangulation according to (Leedy 1993: 99) involves collecting multiple sources of data ‘with the hope that they will converge to support a particular hypotheses or theory.’ For this study, triangulation will enable the researcher to compare data from the different categories of respondents used in the study in order to find common themes that can be used to inform the main objective of the study which is to identify strategies that can be used to promote the use of isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching in schools.

3.6 Sampling

A purposive sampling strategy was used to determine respondents to be used for this study. According to Creswell (2012:156) when purposive sampling is used in qualitative research it means that ‘the inquirer selects individuals...because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study.’ Since the main aim of this study is to explore strategies that can be used to promote the use of isiZulu for learning and teaching purposes, a purposive sample of respondents is an ideal one to use.

The respondents and the study site that have been selected and targeted for use were selected because of their appropriateness for what the study purports to do. Firstly, the province of KwaZulu- Natal has been identified for use because of the predominance of isiZulu which is used as an exploratory case for this particular study. The first category of respondents comprised language and

education experts and practitioners from institutions of higher education in the KwaZulu-Natal province, namely Durban University of Technology, Mangosuthu University of Technology, University of KwaZulu-Natal and the University of Zululand. These were targeted because of their expert knowledge on how language can either pose a barrier or provide a benefit to learning. To determine the sample size of language experts, databases of personnel in faculties that offer language related courses as well as education experts in each institution of higher learning were used.

The second category of respondents was made up of school level educators in the GET phase as well as in the FET phase that have first-hand experience of the advantages and disadvantages associated with teaching through a language that is not the learners' home language. Maximum variation sampling (Creswell, 2012:156) which entails determining criteria that differentiate sites and participants in advance will be used. To determine the number of educators from whom data would be collected, the districts as well as the geographical locations of schools in terms of urban, rural and peri-urban settlements were used so as to reflect the demographic spread of the province's population.

The list of schools was drawn from the districts into which the province has been demarcated according to the Education Management Information Systems (EMIS). The districts in alphabetical order are: Amajuba, Empangeni, Ilembe, Obonjeni, oThukela, Pinetown, Sisonke, uGu, uMgungudlovu, uMlazi,

uMzinyathi and Vryheid. From these twelve districts Empangeni, Ilembe and uMgungundlovu were used as a sample since they each comprise all the three types of demographic settlements identified in the province, namely urban, peri-urban and rural. From each district, six schools were sampled; one primary school and one secondary or high school from each type of demographic settlement (urban, peri-urban and rural settlements). The sample thus consisted of eighteen schools in all. The staff complement in each school was used to determine the number of educators to whom the questionnaire would be distributed.

The third category of respondents comprised learners who have first-hand experience of being taught and of learning in a language that is not their mother-tongue. The sample of learners was drawn from the same list of schools from each of the districts that were used to collect data from educators. Empangeni, Ilembe and uMgungundlovu districts were used as a sample since they each comprise all the three types demographic settlements identified in the province, namely urban, peri-urban and rural. Three schools were targeted in each district; one urban school, one peri-urban school and one rural school i.e. a total of nine schools were used for focus group discussions. Only learners in Grades 11 and 12 of the FET phase were requested to participate in the focus group discussions. The focus groups were created in accordance with the subject fields

(namely, science, technology, social sciences and commerce) in the schools that were used for purposes of data collection.

3.7 Data analysis

Data analysis according to Marshall and Rossman (1999: 150) is ‘the process of bringing order, structure, and interpretation to the mass of collected data.’ To enable the interpretation of data collected from respondents, it is important to analyse it rigorously in order to make the reporting of findings possible.

Qualitative data are exceedingly complex and not readily convertible into standard measurable units of objects seen and heard; they vary in level of abstraction, in frequency of occurrence, in relevance to central questions in the research (Marshall and Rossman (1999: 151). In qualitative research in particular, data analysis is mainly aimed at searching for statements that can be generalised about relationships among categories of data. For this study, data was collected from three categories of respondents namely; educators, learners and education experts. Three different types of instruments were used to collect the data; a questionnaire, an interview schedule and an observation schedule.

The key procedures that were used to analyse the data involved organizing the data, generating categories, themes and patterns, coding the data, representing the data and forming an interpretation of them (Marshall and Rossman (1999), Creswell 2012). The benefit of each of the steps in this analytic procedure lies in that each step results in data reduction and makes the data more manageable

and simpler to interpret. For the questionnaire, the data was organised according to responses received for each question included in the questionnaire from all the respondents with whom the questionnaire was used, namely, educators and education experts.

For the interview schedule, responses from focus groups were first transcribed and then organised according to responses received for each question from each of the focus groups. Items on the observation schedule were also aggregated in order to categorise differences and similarities in the observations made in the different settings. This organisation made it easy for the researcher to create codes, draw themes and interpret the data.

The process of generating categories involved noting patterns evident in the setting (in the case of observations) and those evident in what is expressed by participants (in the case of focus group interviews and questionnaires).

According to Creswell (2012:186) themes in qualitative research ‘are broad units of information that consist of several codes aggregated to form a common idea.’ The concept of themes in qualitative research is often used to describe ‘elements identified from text’ and they are often regarded as the starting point in reporting findings of a qualitative study (Bazeley, 2009:6). Once the responses have been categorised into patterns and themes, the next phase of the analysis process will entail coding the data. Marshall and Rossman (1999: 155) define coding as the formal representation of analytical thinking. It refers to

data reduction either by a system of symbols or numbers (Richards (2009:93) in quantitative data analysis but in qualitative data analysis coding is used for purposes of data retention so that the researcher can keep revisiting the data until they can identify patterns and be able to make explanations. Bazeley (2013: 125) claims that ‘coding provides a means of purposefully managing, locating, identifying, sifting, sorting and querying data.’

Codes are applied to categories and themes and may take several forms which include using abbreviations, key words, coloured dots or numbers. The three types of coding that have been identified by Richards (2009: 96) are descriptive, topic and analytical coding. Descriptive coding involves storing information about cases being studied. Topic coding, on the other hand, involves labelling text according to its subject whilst analytic coding is the one that is central to qualitative research since it leads to the emergence and affirmation of theory.

For this study all three types of coding were used. Descriptive coding was mainly done in order to generate a descriptive profile of respondents used in the study. Topic coding entailed using the themes of each of the questions in the questionnaire and focus groups discussions and items of the observation schedule. Analytical coding was done in order to interpret and generate findings from the data collected through all the instruments; namely, the questionnaire, interview schedule and observation schedule.

Once patterns from the responses had been established and encoded they were presented in tabular form in order to show relationships between the different categories. Stake (1995) cited in Creswell (2012:199) refers to this as categorical aggregation wherein the researcher ‘seeks a collection of instances from the data in order to allow issue-relevant meanings to emerge.’ This categorical aggregation is suitable since the study is exploratory and seeks to find views that are held by the various categories of respondents in relation to the issue of promoting isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching at school level.

3.8 Ethical considerations

Most researchers recommend that ethical issues that might surface during the study be considered and planned for (Ruane, (2005), Litchman, (2010) and Creswell, (2012). According to Piper and Simons (2005:56) ethical decisions result from weighing up a number of factors in the specific social and political situations in which we conduct research and entail drawing up a set of principles to guide the researcher as well as to protect the rights of participants. They further define ethical practice as ‘doing no harm.’ To ensure that no harm is done to participants in this study, ethical guidelines of institutions granting permission to conduct research were adhered to, informed consent was sought from participants or their guardians and confidentiality and anonymity of participants was ensured.

To ensure adherence to ethical guidelines, permission was sought from all institutions which have been selected for use in this study. A certificate of ethical clearance was applied for and granted by the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Zululand. Along with research instruments and a copy of the research proposal, the certificate of clearance was submitted to the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Research Offices of all institutions of Higher Learning that were used for this study. Letters requesting permission to conduct research were also written and sent to all principals of schools that had been selected for data collection.

Informed consent means that ‘those interviewed or observed should give their permission with full knowledge of the purpose of the research and the consequences for them of taking part’ (Piper and Simons, (2005:56). Two letters of consent were drawn for this study. One of the letters was intended for parents/guardians of learners (in the FET phase of schooling) who were selected to participate in focus group discussions who were below 18 years of age. The other letter was a letter of informed consent to be signed by learners who were 18 years and older who were selected to participate in focus group discussions. The letters were made available both in English and isiZulu and participants were given an option to sign the letter in their preferred language.

According to Piper and Simons (2005: 57) confidentiality and anonymity are the second common assumption in ethical social research practice.

Confidentiality refers to assuring participants that their views are held in confidence and allowing them to refuse publication of any material that they feel might harm them whereas ensuring anonymity involves protecting the participants' privacy and confidentiality. To ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of participants in this study, names of institutions and individuals were not used at all when the findings of the study are reported. An anonymity and confidentiality clause was included as part of the letters of consent as well as the questionnaire and was explained in detail before any focus group discussion was conducted with learners.

3.9 Piloting the study

A pilot study, according to Polit, Becker and Hungler (2001: 467) can be used as 'a small scale version or a trial run in preparation for a major study.' Baker (1994:182) states that it is usually used to test a research instrument.

Conducting a pilot study is often recommended before conducting the major study as it helps the researcher solve a number of logistical issues which may include the following:

- Checking if questions used in a research instrument are comprehensible.
- Checking that the wording used in the research instrument is appropriate.

- Checking the efficiency of analytic procedures to be used in the study.

Another benefit that conducting a pilot study has is that it enables the researcher to determine if the research instrument is yielding the kind of information that is needed. De Vaus (1993: 54) advises that a researcher should check ‘to see if there are any ambiguities or if the respondents have any difficulty in responding.’ Pilot testing thus helps the researcher identify questions that are misleading, inappropriate or redundant.

Baker (1994:183) suggests that of 10%-20% of the sample to be used for the major study is a reasonable sample size to consider for a pilot. For this study, a pilot was done in two schools and one institution of higher learning. One educator per learning area or subject field offered in the school was requested to respond to the interview or answer a questionnaire and one group of learners was used for a focus group discussion. From the institution of higher learning one language expert and one education expert were requested to fill in the questionnaire. Respondents were invited to comment on the suitability or relevance of each question for the purpose of the study as well as to make comments on additions or changes that need to be made to the items in the research instrument.

Improvements that were made to the research instrument after the pilot study as well as findings from the pilot study will be reported in detail in Chapter four of this study.

3.10 Issues of transcription and translation

Educators and learners are going to be given an option to answer questions in a language in which they are more comfortable (English or isiZulu) to use. Once the data has been collected, responses that were given in isiZulu will be first transcribed (in the case of interviews) and then translated to English before it is analysed. Marshall and Rossman (2002: 110) define transcription as ‘transposing the spoken word into a text’ and ‘translation as the transposing of a word from one language into another language.’ They further note that issues of transcribing and translating have become salient issues in qualitative research as they are not merely technical issues but entail making judgments and interpretation.

According to Wengraf (2001: 7) once data has been either transcribed or translated it is no longer raw data but has to be regarded as processed data. The challenges presented to the researcher in the process of transcribing data have been noted by some researchers (Marshall and Rossman (2002) and Tilley (2003)). These include among others making judgments about the use of punctuation marks which are not provided for in spoken language and might result in the change of meaning from what a respondent had intended as well as the absence of paralinguistic clues that could help in clarifying the meaning of some of the responses.

To enable the researcher to deal with the challenges that could be experienced at transcription level, the researcher took notes that are going to be read alongside the transcribed data to ensure fair judgment and interpretation of data. The researcher happens to be an experienced transcriber and translator and made use of her expertise in both respects to transcribe and translate the data. So the researcher's first-hand involvement at all levels from collecting the data, transcribing and translating the data ensured the reliability of the data at the analysis phase of the research.

3.11 Summary

In this chapter the research design used in the study was explained in detail. The rationale for using a qualitative design was explained. Research instruments used for the study were indicated and described in detail. The procedures to be used for data analysis have been explained and described in detail. How the study was piloted was explained. Ethical considerations and issues related to the transcription and translation of data where required were also explained.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore educators' as well as learners' views of what needs to be done in order to promote indigenous African languages as languages of learning and teaching at school level (GET and FET phases). IsiZulu, which is the predominant indigenous African language in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province, was used as an exploratory case for this study. Three districts from the provincial demarcation of the KZN Department of education were sampled for use in the study, namely Ilembe, Umgungundlovu and Empangeni. The three districts were purposively sampled because they have representations of the demographic spread of the population of KZN namely rural, urban and peri-urban. It is believed that each of these settings will have an influence on how language is used and viewed both in the community and in school. This section of the study focuses on analysing responses elicited from data collected from educators and educators in schools situated in the three districts sampled for use in this research as well as data collected from lecturers in institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal.

4.2 Analysis of data collected from educators

4.2.1 Demographic profile of respondents

To determine proficiency in the different official languages of South Africa, the questionnaire required respondents to indicate which language or languages they knew (could speak, read and write). All the 11 official languages of South Africa were listed in the response section of this item. Responses elicited indicated a predominance of isiZulu and English in terms of the total number of respondents who indicated proficiency in either of the two languages as well as in terms of levels of proficiency. The majority of the respondents indicated a high level of proficiency in isiZulu much proficiency in English and low proficiency in Afrikaans. This spread was mainly prevalent among educators in rural and peri-urban settings. A few instances of high proficiency were indicated for English in combination with some proficiency for Afrikaans in urban based schools. A few cases of proficiency in English only were indicated as well. These respondents indicated to have no knowledge of any other language spoken in South Africa and it could be deduced that they were from outside the borders of South Africa. Most of them were teaching in high schools in urban, peri-urban and rural based high schools.

The questionnaire further required respondents to indicate the subjects or learning areas that they taught. Respondents were also well spread across subject offerings: 17 Social Science educators, 27 Natural Science educators, 12

Technology educators, 33 Mathematics/Mathematical Literacy educators, 30 Life Skills/Life Orientation educators, 10 Economic and Management Sciences educators, and 8 Arts and Culture educators. Except for Foundation Phase educators, English was indicated as the official language of learning and teaching in all the schools in all geographical locations (rural, peri-urban and urban schools).

2.2 Themes elicited from responses given by educators

Respondents were further requested to indicate the extent of the effectiveness of the language of learning and teaching for their subjects/learning areas.

Currently, legislation provides for the use of the learners' home language as a language of learning and teaching in the Foundation Phase (Grades R-3) only which in the case of predominantly black schools in KwaZulu-Natal is isiZulu. Thereafter, a switch is made to English as a language of learning and teaching from the Intermediate Phase (Grades 4 -6) up to the FET Phase (Grades 10-12). Respondents were given 5 options from which to rate the effectiveness or the ineffectiveness of the language of learning and teaching in their subjects. The options included the following; very effective, slightly effective, effective, ineffective and very ineffective. For isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching in the Foundation Phase, 22 respondents indicated it to be effective and 6 respondents indicated that it was ineffective. For English as a language of learning and teaching 11 respondents rated it as very effective, 20 rated it as

slightly effective, 26 rated it as effective, 8 rated it as ineffective and none rated it as very ineffective.

Item 7 in the questionnaire was a sequel to item 6 which required respondents to rate the effectiveness of the language of learning and teaching and it required respondents to give reasons for the rating they had given in item 6. The following themes were extracted from the responses in relation to the ratings specified for item 6 namely; very effective, slightly effective, effective, ineffective and very ineffective.

Reasons that were predominantly given for rating English as very effective as a language of learning and teaching included the following:

- it is the learners' home language,
- good results are produced,
- the school is an English-medium school,
- learners understand it easily,
- learners actively participate,
- learners use English among themselves when communicating and are fluent in English.

Reasons that were predominantly given for rating English as slightly effective as a language of learning and teaching included the following:

- level of response by learners is moderate,
- it is a second language and not known well,
- learners lack fluency in the language,
- some learners can write stories in English.

Reasons that were given in relation to rating English effective as a language of learning and teaching included the following:

- learners give appropriate responses to questions,
- learners have appropriate vocabulary,
- English is the language of both learners and educators,
- learners can apply knowledge in English,
- learners enjoy English and show interest and can speak in English,
- it is easier to explain terms in English.

Reasons that were given in relation to rating English as ineffective as a language of learning and teaching included the following:

- learners lack comprehension or ability to grasp what is taught,
- English is not their home language,
- parents cannot help with homework because most of them are illiterate,

- English is introduced late as a language of teaching and learning,
- English is not the educators' home language,
- there is a language barrier,
- learners are unable to express themselves in English,
- the home language interferes with teaching and learning,
- learners have difficulty with vocabulary and have difficulty with interpretation.

In relation to the ineffectiveness of isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching in the Foundation phase, the following reasons were cited:

- isiZulu is not a home language for some of the learners;
- the material that is used is not original but translated.

In the instances where isiZulu was rated as effective as a language of learning and teaching the reason that was given is that:

- it is the learners' home language.
- learners understand the language perfectly

Item 8 required respondents to indicate if they ever encountered language related difficulties when they teach. Only 8 responses indicated No and 67 indicated yes.

This item was followed by item 9 which required respondents to describe the type of difficulties they experience. The following difficulties were indicated in the responses:

- learners have reading, writing, speaking, spelling and pronunciation and comprehension difficulties.
- learners also lacked or had low vocabulary.
- there is a shortage or lack of language learning aids like dictionaries and encyclopedias,
- learners lack exposure to the English language which places extra demands on the teacher.
- learners regularly require repetitions in their home language and also give their responses in the home language.
- educators lack sufficient conceptual knowledge.

Deviations which were mentioned but worth noting included a need for translation and translanguaging (using the language of learning and teaching and the learners' home language interchangeably).

Item 10 required respondents to explain how they resolve language related problems when they teach. The following strategies were mentioned:

- Learners are encouraged to buy dictionaries or the educator creates their own or the school purchases dictionaries for learners.
- During lessons learners who speak the same language are put in the same group.
- Educators collaborate to solve the language problem through language committees.
- Learners are encouraged to read newspapers and magazines.
- Parents are requested to assist.
- Learners are given extra work or more homework.
- Learners who speak the same language as the learner who is struggling are asked to explain or interpret.
- Educators or cleaners who speak the learners' home language are asked to assist.
- The learners' home language is used by the teacher to explain or simplify difficult concepts.
- Learners are encouraged to practice or speak English more.
- Language problems are ignored if the answer is correct.
- The educator rephrases or repeats material that was not understood.

- Code switching and translation (interpreting) is done.
- Learners who have a better command of the English language are asked to assist.
- Learners are allowed to answer in a language in which they are comfortable.

Important deviations that were noted mentioned the importance of establishing the learners' home language and the need to create material in the learners' home language.

Item 11 required respondents to indicate if they ever found themselves forced to resort to using the learners' home language for purposes of learning and teaching in their subjects. Out of 76 responses received for this item, 60 responses indicated yes and only 16 indicated NO.

Item 12 required respondents to indicate if they would teach in the learners' home language should they officially be allowed to do so and to give reasons for their responses. Responses to this item were placed in three categories; those that were in favour of teaching in the home language, those that were against teaching in the home language and those that were mixed (yes with reservations or in favour of mixing or using the languages (English and isiZulu interchangeably)).

Responses that were in favour of using the learners' home language for learning and teaching were supported with the following reasons:

- teaching in the home language will enhance understanding;
- it will make it easier for learners to grasp concepts taught,
- it will simplify content,
- it will result in better performance and increase the pass rate,
- it will make learning and teaching effective,
- children learn best in their home language,
- teaching will not be frustrating and unrewarding but will become meaningful and learning would be exciting for learners,
- it will result in more successful teaching,
- it will develop critical thinking, analytical and interpreting skills,
- learners will be happier,
- it will promote learner efficiency,
- learning will take place much quicker, it will make learners more knowledgeable than they are now,
- it will make the teacher's job easier and

- it will improve learners' levels of engagement and participation.

Responses that were against using the home language for learning and teaching purposes were supported with the following reasons:

- learners will use English throughout education and must learn to communicate with other people,
- there are no home language equivalents for most terms used in different subjects,
- English is used by many racial groups,
- there are no employment opportunities in their home language,
- some educators are not proficient in the home language,
- learning and teaching materials are published in English,
- learners need to be exposed to English because it is an international language,
- English is the official medium of instruction and it is the language of teaching at university level.

The following reasons were given for responses that indicated mixed feelings about using the home language for learning and teaching purposes:

- teaching in the home language would help learners understand but it would create problems for them at high school, tertiary and work level,
- it would be slightly difficult to explain some of the things in the home language,
- teaching in the home language would disadvantage learners
- a concern with lack of learning and teaching material in the home language
- available material in the home language is badly translated.

An important deviation that was noted in these responses was a suggestion of an adoption of a structured dual medium policy.

Item 13 required respondents to suggest strategies that would help promote the use of the home language as a language of learning and teaching in their subjects. Responses to this item were categorised as follows; those that are teacher-related, those that are material-related, those that are legislation- related and those that are language-related.

The following factors were given as part of educator-related strategies:

- a need for workshops and quality training for educators to teach in the home language,
- giving educators an opportunity to learn the learners' home language.

Material-related suggestions included the following:

- creating teaching aids as well as computer programs that use the learners' home language,
- providing reading material (newspapers and magazines) in the learners' home language,
- compiling textbooks in the learners' home language,
- creating terminology dictionaries that use both languages,
- restructuring the curriculum,
- setting examination question papers in both languages (English and isiZulu).

Suggestions that are legislation-related included the following:

- Adoption of a policy that officially recognises the learners' home language as a language of teaching and learning,
- make the use of the learners' home languages a national initiative,
- the governing bodies to take the lead in enforcing the use of the learners' home language,
- recognition of the learners' home language in universities and the workplaces.

Suggestions that are language-related included the following:

- the need for terminology creation,
- teaching isiZulu as a home language in ex-model C schools,
- using good methods in the Foundation Phase in order to make it possible to use the language in subsequent phases,
- using the learners' home language alongside English as an additional language,
- standardization of the learners' home language in order to simplify it,
- reviving the teaching of indigenous African languages in universities,
- appointing home language speakers as examiners and moderators of examination papers.

4.3 Analysis of data collected from focus group interviews

Focus group interviews were conducted with learners in four different schools; two rural-based, one peri-urban based and one urban-based school. Only learners who were in Grade 11 or 12 were requested to participate in the interviews. Once permission was obtained from the principal and learners who could participate in the discussions were identified, informed consent was sought from the learners and consent letters to be signed by parents or guardians were given to the learners to take home and request

parents or guardians to sign. The following section presents themes that emerged from the data collected from the focus groups.

4.3.1 A description of focus groups

The focus group from School A consisted of 10 interviewees that were all doing Grade 12, which is the final year of the FET schooling phase. They came from a rural based high school. The group consisted of learners from the following streams of learning: Social Science, Commerce and Physical and Natural Sciences. Learners were asked to choose the language they would prefer to be used for the interview and they asked that the interview be conducted in isiZulu.

The focus group from School B consisted of 10 learners who were doing Grade 11 and also came from a rural-based school. The group consisted of learners from the following streams of learning: Commerce, Physical and Natural Sciences and Technology. They were also given a chance to choose the language in which they would prefer the interview to be conducted and they chose to be interviewed in isiZulu.

The focus group from School C consisted of Grade 11 learners from a peri-urban school. The group consisted of 8 learners from the Commerce and Physical and Natural Sciences streams. They also opted to be interviewed in isiZulu. The focus group from school D consisted of learners doing Grade 12 in

an urban school. The group consisted of 12 learners from the Physical and Natural Sciences stream. The interview was also conducted in isiZulu.

Once the data had been collected from all groups, it was first transcribed, and then translated into English and thereafter it was analysed. All discussions in the focus group interviews focused on the following aspects: personal learning experiences in their streams, views about being taught and learning in their home language, suggestions of what they think needs to be done to promote the use of their home language for purposes of learning and teaching and any other views that they had regarding the topic being discussed.

4.3.2 Themes extracted from focus group interview data

Learners mentioned the following factors as having made some subjects difficult in their learning experiences:

- comprehension problems due to difficult terminology,
- difficulties in understanding examination questions,
- difficulties in expressing themselves in English even if they know the answers and
- lack of home language words or terms to explain difficult terminology in the different subjects.

Both positive and negative views were expressed in relation to using the learners' home language for learning and teaching purposes. Views that were in favor of using the learners' home language included the following:

- it would help them comprehend better,
- if done, it must start in Grade 8,
- examination papers to include home language translations,
- it would enable parents to help with school work more
- it must take place alongside English
- a need to create learning aids that explain difficult concepts in isiZulu

Views that were not in favour of using the home language for learning and teaching included the following:

- some educators are not South African and cannot speak the learner's home language,
- isiZulu itself sometimes seems difficult,
- it will create problems for them in tertiary education,
- isiZulu does not have proper terms for some mathematical concepts,
- it will affect employment opportunities once they finish school,

- it will create problems for learners who are not isiZulu speakers,
- they have too much English influence as they have been taught in English since primary school
- mix the use of English and isiZulu and
- English is good for communication.

When asked to suggest what can be done to promote the use of the learners' home language for learning and teaching for upcoming learners, the following issues were suggested:

- isiZulu should be used alongside English,
- educators need to be trained,
- setting examination papers in isiZulu,
- teaching in English and providing worksheets that explain in other languages,
- make the language more respectable by teaching it at universities as well,
- write textbooks both in English and isiZulu to help aid understanding,
- make isiZulu recognisable in the workplace,
- devise a strategy to motivate learners' interest in isiZulu,

- create isiZulu terminology for concepts used in different learning areas,
- offer extra isiZulu classes,
- run awareness campaigns in schools to sensitise learners and educators to the value of home language learning,
- standardise isiZulu first before it can be used for teaching and learning.

Other views that came up from the interviews which are worth noting included the following:

- parent's preference of English as a language of teaching and learning,
- isiZulu is not held in high esteem by high profile people,
- fear of experiencing problems when they get to universities if they learn in isiZulu,
- writing books in isiZulu would be time-consuming,
- learning and teaching in isiZulu would limit chances and promote racial division,
- learning in isiZulu would disadvantage them while learning in English would advantage other races and
- the failure rate would still be high even if teaching takes place in isiZulu.

4.4 Analysis of data collected through the observation schedule

Observations were conducted for purposes of triangulating the data obtained through questionnaires distributed to educators and focus group interviews that were conducted with learners. The observation schedule included nine items that focused on classroom interaction between the educator and the learners, among learners and the extent to which the learners' home language and the language of learning and teaching influenced such interaction. Tallies were used to determine the frequency of the use of the learners' home language or the official language of teaching and learning. 0 indicated no occurrence, 1-4 tallies indicated low occurrence, 5 tallies indicated moderate occurrence and 6-10 tallies indicated frequent occurrence of either learners' home language use or language of learning and teaching use in interaction during the lesson. The following section presents themes that emerged from the data collected through the observation schedule.

4.4.1 Themes that emerged from the observation schedule

The first lesson that was observed was a Grade 12 Physical Science lesson in a rural school. It consisted of 12 learners who all spoke isiZulu as a home language. The teacher was of foreign origin and had no knowledge of the learners' home language but spoke English only. The lesson was particularly on *Measurement* and was 40 minutes long. Learners did not have relevant

textbooks for the subject and had to rely on the notes made by the teacher on the board as well as the explanations the teacher gave.

The following observations were made:

- The learners' home language was not used to explain the content being taught,
- The learners' home language was not used to clarify questions,
- Learners did not use their home language to either ask or to respond to questions,
- Only one word responses were given as responses to questions asked by the teacher,
- No instances of learner to learner interaction took place either in the learners' home language or in the language of teaching and learning.
- No instances of code-mixing or code-switching took place.

The second observation was of a Grade 10 Physical Science lesson in a rural school. The class consisted of more or less 35 learners who all speak isiZulu as a home language and the teacher also is an isiZulu home language speaker. The lesson was conducted in English and the topic of the lesson was *Velocity*.

Learners had to share textbooks as there were not enough for each learner to have an individual copy. The lesson was 40 minutes long.

The following observations were made:

- Frequent use of the learners' home language when explaining subject matter,
- Less frequent use of the learners' home language when asking questions,
- Frequent use of the learners' home language by learners when asking questions,
- Frequent use of the learners' home language by learners when responding to questions,
- Low levels of response when only the language of teaching was used,
- Many instances of code-mixing or code-switching were observed,
- Learner-learner interaction only took place in the learners' home language.

The third lesson that was observed was of a Grade 12 Geography lesson in a peri-urban classroom. The class consisted of 55 learners who predominantly speak isiZulu as a home language and a few who speak either seSotho or isiXhosa as a home language. The teacher was a home language speaker of isiZulu. The lesson was a revision of the *Topography* section from the mid-year examination paper. Not all learners had the study guide that was used by the teacher for reference purposes. The lesson was 50 minutes long.

The following observations were made:

- The learners' home language was not used but the teacher resorted to different ways of explaining,
- Learners were discouraged from using the home language either to ask or to respond to questions,
- Low levels of participation and only one-word responses given,
- Many instances of code-mixing,
- Only the learners' home language is used in learner-learner interaction.

The fourth lesson that was observed was of a Grade 10 Mathematics lesson in an urban school. The class consisted of 28 learners who were predominantly isiZulu first language speakers and a few who are originally not first language speakers of isiZulu but now use isiZulu as their language of communication as they come from outside South Africa and their home languages are not spoken in South Africa. The teacher was also not South African and speaks English but has started to learn to speak a few isiZulu words. The lesson was 40 minutes long. The following observations were made:

- Only the language of learning and teaching was used to explain and ask questions,

- the learners' home language was used slightly by the teacher to clarify questions,
- There were few instances of the use of the learners' home language by learners when responding or asking questions,
- There was a lot of code-mixing by the teacher,
- Learners only used the home language in learner-to learner interaction.

4.5 Analysis of data collected from higher education specialists

A questionnaire was used to collect data from higher education specialists. Data was particularly collected from teacher education and language or linguistics specialists because of their direct involvement with the education of educators and language development and teaching respectively. The questionnaire consisted of six items, two of these focused on the respondents' biographical data namely, the respondent's field of expertise (teacher education or language/linguistics) and experience. The rest of the items focused on views about the language of learning and teaching in tertiary education. This section presents themes that emerged from the data that was collected from higher education specialists.

5.4.1 Teaching Experience profile of respondents

A total of 10 responses were received; four of the respondents were from the field of Language/Linguistics and six of them specialise in teacher education. In terms of teaching experience specialists from the Language/Linguistics field ranged from 9 to 29 years of experience. This means the respondent with least experience had been teaching for 9 years and the respondents with the longest experience had 29 years of teaching experience. The experience of teacher education specialists ranged from 19 to more than 30 years of teaching experience. The respondent with the least experience had 10 years of teaching experience whilst the respondent with the longest experience had more than 30 years of teaching experience.

4.5.2 Themes elicited from higher education specialists' responses

In response to the item which required respondents to indicate if they did experience language-related challenges when mediating learning, all respondents stated that they did experience language-related challenges when they teach.

The next item in the questionnaire required respondents to describe the types of challenges that they encounter. The following descriptions featured predominantly in the responses that were given:

- Misinterpretation of information both in the classroom situation and during assessments,
- Underdeveloped cognitive academic language proficiency,
- Inability to comprehend key concepts and
- Learners' failure to express themselves in English.
- Difficulty in understanding English questions and instructions which is manifested in the way students respond to assignment and examination questions.
- Students fail to express themselves in the additional language
- Inability of students to make use of either of the languages (English and IsiZulu) to help understand unique or strange concepts from the other language.

Respondents were further requested to give views on what they thought caused the challenges they had described in the previous item. The following factors were thought to be the causes of the problems that were highlighted:

- Under-preparedness of learners who come to higher education for the first time,
- Early immersion into English before learners have even mastered their mother-tongue,

- The language of learning and teaching in schools,
- Lack of mastery of the language of learning and teaching
- A gap in the learning and teaching of English in black schools.
- Failure to promote indigenous African languages as media of learning and teaching
- Learners are not taught the additional language (English) properly in schools.
- Lack of common knowledge or common ground on conceptual understanding between learners and lecturers which has become worse in the younger generation who lack knowledge of indigenous languages.
- The impact of social media in killing indigenous African languages.

Respondents were then required to make suggestions of what they think needs to be done in the schooling system to address the problems mentioned above before learners reached the post schooling phase. The following suggestions were made:

- A review of teaching strategies and methods that educators use,
- Promoting multilingual education,
- Putting more emphasis on English proficiency,

- A systematic conversion to teaching in learners' vernacular languages,
- Educators in black schools to get advice from educators in ex-model C schools on how to make learners fluent.
- Develop a language policy that promotes indigenous language education
- Training educators to teach in indigenous African languages
- Early introduction of literacy teaching - as early as in the pre-school phase.
- A need to retrain educators as it happened under the apartheid era where educators could take leave for a year to retrain.
- Encourage reading and writing in indigenous African languages.
- Ensuring that indigenous African languages are taught by people who understand and know both the language and the culture.

The next item required respondents to give their views on whether they thought promoting the use of the learners' home language could help alleviate the language related problems in teaching and learning. The following responses were given:

- A strong belief that using the learners' home language for learning and teaching would help alleviate problems as learners already possessed

knowledge of the language which would make it easy for them to understand concepts taught,

- Thorough grounding in the home language would make learners perform better academically,
- Full benefits can only be realised if the entire system changes to promote mother-tongue education,
- Using the learners' home language for learning and teaching would restrict future chances of employment.
- Research findings indicate skills learnt in the mother-tongue can easily be transferred to a second language. If learners can first learn to develop an argument in isiZulu for instance, it would be easier to transfer such skills to English.
- Use the learners' home language for learning and teaching in the Foundation Phase (in line with findings in psychology that indicate that children learn best if they are first introduced to the world of learning in their own home language) but thereafter offer all subjects in English.
- Yes. Although learning and teaching should not be purely in the learners' home language but some aspects of learning have to be presented in that manner. This would stimulate learners to understand their own languages and develop interest in them. Furthermore they

would not feel that their languages are in anyway inferior to other languages

Respondents were finally requested to suggest things that need to be done to promote the use of the learners' home language for learning and teaching in the schooling phase. The following suggestions were made:

- Developing the home language first,
- Reinforcing multilingual teaching as enshrined in the Language-in-Education Policy,
- Developing learning and teaching materials in the learners' home language,
- Encouraging educators to learn the learners' home language/s.
- Maintaining the learners' home language as a language of learning and teaching for the first seven years of schooling would help promote the indigenous African languages.
- The home language is okay for instruction in the Foundation Phase, but from the Intermediate Phase onwards learners need to be taught all subjects in English since it is an international language. Learners do not fail because of English but it is educators who have a problem.

- Start by allowing learners to make use of their home language in the classroom without being punished for doing so.

4.6 Discussion of Findings

The purpose of this study was to find out strategies that can be used to promote the use of the learners' home languages as languages of learning and teaching in the GET and FET phases of schooling. The study is particularly focused on indigenous African languages in South Africa which are currently only taught as subjects and not used as media of instruction; namely isiZulu, SeSotho, seTswana, sePedi, isiXhosa, siSwati, isiNdebele, xiTsonga and tshiVenda. For the study only isiZulu was used as a case study and all data for the study was collected from the province of KwaZulu-Natal. Data was mainly collected from educators and learners in schools and from higher education specialists in institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal. These categories of respondents are regarded as the main stakeholders or role-players in learning and teaching that have experiences that directly relate to the impact of language in learning and teaching in different ways. Three different types of instruments were used to collect data from these different categories of respondents namely; a questionnaire (one questionnaire was used to collect data from educators and another was used to collect data from specialists from institutions of higher learning), an interview schedule and an observation schedule.

For purposes of this discussion, data from the questionnaire used to collect data from educators will be used to structure the discussion and data that came from the interviews and observation schedules will be interpreted in relation to the findings from the questionnaire since all three instruments focused on collecting school related data. Data from all categories of respondents for the key research question namely; suggestions of strategies that can be used to promote the use of the learners' home language for learning and teaching purposes will be tabulated, compared, analysed and used to devise a model that can be proposed for this purpose.

4.6.1 Discussion of themes elicited from data collected from schools

4.6.1.1 Themes related to the effectiveness of the language of teaching and learning

The educator questionnaire required respondents to rate the effectiveness of the language of learning and teaching for their different subjects as well as for the grades they teach. As indicated in the themes section of this report, responses to this question varied from ratings that indicated the language of learning and teaching to be very effective, slightly effective, effective, ineffective and very ineffective. Some of the ratings applied to isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching in the Foundation Phase. The questionnaire further required respondents to give reasons for the rating that they had given for the language of teaching and learning.

Reasons that were predominantly given for rating English as very effective as a language of learning and teaching mostly came from respondents in urban based schools which are commonly known as ex-Model C schools. In most instances where a positive (effective to very effective) rating was given for English as a language of teaching and learning, the school educator profile was made up of first language speakers of English and learners also predominantly spoke English as a home language as well. The implications that these reasons have is that a language functions effectively in a learning and teaching situation if it is also the learners' home language. This then is in line with research findings that point to positive benefits of a language in instances where there is continuity between the language spoken at home and the language used for learning and teaching at school (Skutnabb-Kangas (2004), Thomas and Collier(2004), and Kausar (2005)). The other indicators of the effectiveness of English as a language of learning and teaching (active participation, ability to easily comprehend and fluency in communication) also directly relate to the status that English has in the school (English medium school) and in the learners' out of school life (first language speakers). This implies that the positive benefits of English as a language of learning and teaching will normally be experienced if it has home language status for both educators and learners.

The rating of English as slightly effective was noted in some responses received from urban based educators but was mainly predominant in responses from

peri-urban based and a few rural based educators. What is noted in these responses is that the indicators cited for giving a slightly effective rating relate to the status of the language for the learner. If the language of learning and teaching is not a learner's home language and if they lack fluency in the language, it will influence the learners' level of response during lessons and only a few of them can derive some positive benefits as indicated in the reasons given by respondents. This finding directly relates with most of the findings from the observation schedule data. In all of the schools in which the researcher was allowed to observe lessons, English was either not a home language for both the educator and the learners or it was a home or first language for the educator only. As a result, what was observed in common from all the lessons were a low level of participation and a low level of response to questions posed by the educators until they made a switch to the learners' home language if they could do so.

Responses that indicated English to be effective came from a few urban-based and a few peri-urban based and some rural based educators. From responses that came from urban-based educators, a relationship is also implied between the status of the language for both educators and learners and its effectiveness for teaching and learning. Responses point out that if the language is a common language for both educators and learners it is likely to be effective for mediating teaching and learning. Responses from peri-urban and rural based respondents

mainly relate effectiveness to the educators' observations and perceptions of what happens in the classroom without relating it to the status of the language for themselves and for their learners. A few responses indicated a rating that views the effectiveness of English as a language of learning and teaching from its usefulness for them as educators and not in relation to its impact on learners. This response particularly highlighted the effectiveness of English in making it easier for the educators to explain concepts when compared with the use of isiZulu. A similar view was expressed by most learners who participated in the focus group interviews. They mentioned that using English made learning and teaching effective because it made it easier to explain many concepts which would not be easily explained in their home language. This however contrasts with another view which they expressed where they indicated that they do need the teacher to explain in the home language to make it easier for them to understand. A similar occurrence was observed in all the lessons which were observed where learners expected and requested further explanations in the home language if the educator was in a position to do so. This implies that English is deemed effective only to the extent of making it easy for the teacher to explain but not effective in ensuring adequate understanding on the part of the learners.

The rating of English as ineffective was noted predominantly in responses that came from peri-urban based and rural based respondents. Responses consisted

of both reasons that are associated with the status of the language of learning and teaching and learner performance. A relation is pointed out between the status of the language for both the educator and the learner and its influence on teaching and learning. The influence that the learners' home language has on the learning and teaching situation is also noted in its tendency to interfere with teaching and learning. This was also noted during observations where, even if the educator discouraged responses or questions in the home language but learners repeatedly resorted to the use of their home language despite threats of punishment at times. In some cases this was interpreted as lack of discipline by the educators who would then start shouting at learners or taking punitive measures against them where it was possible. The learners' home language is seen as interfering with learning and not as an indicator of the value that it has in ensuring effective teaching and learning. This is inconsistent with Collier's (1995:3) argument that 'academic knowledge and conceptual development transfer from the first language to the second language.' Discouraging reliance on the learners' home language simply indicates educators' lack of understanding of the value that the home language has in ensuring effective learning for learners.

Responses further indicate that educators realize the barrier that English poses in the learning and teaching situation if it is not commonly shared as a home language by the educators and their learners. A number of barriers are

mentioned in the responses. Some of these relate to the actual learning and teaching situation, while some have to do with the continuity or extension of learning beyond the classroom. Barriers that directly relate to classroom learning and teaching include inability to comprehend, lack of vocabulary and inability to express themselves which are all aspects that are important and key to the success of any learning and teaching endeavor. Barriers that have to do with continuity have to do with the fact that educators cannot rely on learner parental support due to parents being illiterate in the language of learning and teaching in rural areas especially. One other factor that was pointed out as responsible for rendering English ineffective as a language of learning and teaching is that it is introduced quite late as a language of teaching and learning. Currently, legislation provides for it to be introduced as a language of learning and teaching at the start of the Intermediate Phase in Grade 4. This view mainly came from responses elicited from peri-urban based and rural based educators who mainly teach African learners who speak isiZulu or some other indigenous African language as a home language. In predominantly African schools learners officially learn in the home language until Grade 3 but this is not the case in most urban based schools even if the learner population is predominantly African and speaks isiZulu or some other African language as a home language.

In contrast to views from urban based educators who attribute the effectiveness of English as a language of learning and teaching to the fact that learners use it both as a home language and as a language of teaching and learning, respondents from peri-urban and rural based settings do not realise the switch in the language of learning and teaching as disadvantaging learners in predominantly Black schools, but rather see the home language as interfering with their teaching if learners appeal for its use. The view that it is late to introduce English as a language of learning and teaching in Grade 3 contradicts research findings which have proven that the longer the learners' home language is retained as a language of learning and teaching the better the chances of academic success (Thomas and Collier (2002), Skutnab-Kangas (2004) and Prah (2005)).

Responses that indicated isiZulu as ineffective as a language of learning and teaching in the Foundation Phase mainly came from respondents in peri-urban areas where an influx of foreigners from neighbouring countries (Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Mozambique, etc) have been noted. An increase in the number of learners whose home language is neither English nor isiZulu is being experienced in these settlements. The presence of learners of foreign origin was also cited as a reason why it would not be acceptable to use isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching in data obtained through focus group interviews as well. Another issue that came up from responses that rated isiZulu

as ineffective as a language of learning and teaching has to do with bad translation of material that is used for learning and teaching across all learning areas in the Foundation Phase. This implies that the language could not necessarily be a problem but instead it could be the material used for facilitating learning and teaching that is problematic.

4.6.1.2 Themes related to language-related problems experienced in teaching and learning

The responses given to the item about language-related problems experienced by educators indicate a prevalence of problems in all areas of language use—reading, writing, speaking; comprehension and poor vocabulary. This could imply that there could be a risk of no learning being mediated if learners cannot use any language skill or tool effectively in the learning and teaching situation.

These problems manifest themselves in different ways. Among other things, educators mentioned that learners failed to respond to questions and this failure was ascribed both to the inability to comprehend questions and/or the inability to respond due to lack of vocabulary or inability to express themselves in English. This came out several times from focus group interviews where learners mentioned that using English only to explain made it difficult for them to comprehend not only questions but concepts that were being taught as well.

A similar phenomenon was also observed almost in all the classrooms that were observed where questions from the teacher were often accompanied by silence

and a lack of response from learners until the teacher either reworded the question or interpreted it in the home language.

Lack of exposure to English was mentioned as a factor in responses that came from rural-based respondents especially. The only time that learners have contact with English is in the classroom situation and they do not have exposure to the language outside the classroom as they come from rural households where parents and guardians also do not have any knowledge of the language. This recognises lack of exposure to the English language as impeding learning and not necessarily an indicator of lack of intelligence. This is consistent with some findings in existing research which indicate that multilingualism does not always imply that one knows English and some other language (Makalela, 2005 and Balfour, 2007). The inefficiencies noted are not only learner-related but educator-related as well. Another important factor that was mentioned is the lack of sufficient conceptual knowledge on the part of educators themselves. This is quite understandable because most of the educators currently in the system are also a product of the education system which did not promote home language education. In the focus group interviews learners also did mention that some of their educators lacked adequate training and that there would be a need for educator training before any attempts to introduce the use of the learners' home language. The lack of conceptual knowledge on the part of the educator coupled with deficiencies on the part of learners and the lack of support material

in the form of dictionaries and encyclopaedias is likely to make the learning and teaching endeavour unsuccessful for both the educator and the learner. The lack of resources has been cited by some scholars (Makalela, 2005) as the reason for the alleged rejection of home language instruction –what is often regarded as negative attitudes towards home language education actually stems from lack of materials in the home languages which is said to be a direct outcome of education policies of the apartheid era in South Africa.

Interestingly the learners' need for repetitions in their home language is noted as a difficulty and not an indicator of a corrective measure that can help improve the learning and teaching encounter for both educators and learners. Research has proven that if skills and concepts are first acquired and understood in the home or first language, it becomes easier to transfer them to a second language (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2004, Kausar, 2005, and Prah, 2005). Regarding the home language as interference contrasts with the need for interpreting and code mixing as mentioned in focus group interviews and observed during lessons that were attended by the researcher. A high prevalence of code mixing and code switching was noted in most of the lessons that were observed in the cases where the teacher happened to know the learners' home language. An interesting observation was made in one school where the teacher was of foreign origin but had taken strides to learn the learners' home language. This

was taken as an indication that the educator in question realized the value that knowing the learners' home language had in the teaching situation.

In all focus group interviews that were conducted learners pointed out that teaching in English made it difficult for them to comprehend completely and expressed a need for explanations in the home language. The gap that existed between the language used in school and the language used at home was particularly raised by all learners irrespective of the geographical location of the school. Parents were reported to be unable to help with homework due to their lack of proficiency in English. This finding is consistent with the one expressed by educators as well where they point out the inability of parents and guardians to help with schoolwork as one of the problems caused by the disparity between the language of learning and teaching and the language of the home.

An important deviation that kept coming up from responses that were given by educators was the constant need to either interpret information or code mix and code switch in order to enhance comprehension among learners. Learners also pointed out that they need information and questions to be interpreted into the home language for them to understand and subsequently be able to respond to questions. The high prevalence of code mixing and code switching can be said to be a result of a lack of relevant terminology in the home language for most of the concepts taught. This was noted in most of the lessons that were observed

where the educator was willing or in a position to explain in the learners' home language. A lot lexical borrowing took place which was indicated by the use of words like *islope*, *ukusubstituta iformula*, *amachemicals* in attempts to simplify concepts for learners.

4.6.1.3 Themes related to strategies used to resolve language related problems during learning and teaching

Strategies that are used to resolve language related problems that were mentioned varied and featured across all locations viz, urban, peri-urban and rural settlements. They range from strategies that are educator-initiated to those that are learner-centered and those that transfer the responsibility for the resolution of problems from educators to learners and vice versa. Strategies that are educator-initiated include the provision of dictionaries to learners, collaborative efforts done through language committees and code-switching. None of the responses that mentioned collaborative language committees elaborated what the committees do to help solve language problems except mentioning that learners are referred to the committee where applicable. Some of the educator-initiated strategies mentioned cannot really be said to help solve the language problem but seem to diverge the responsibility for a solution away from the educator. These include measures like encouraging learners to read newspapers and magazines, giving extra work or asking parents to assist. These

seem to be desperate measures for a number of reasons especially in rural and peri-urban based settings.

In relation to difficulties raised in response to item 8 which required respondents to indicate the types of language related problems that they experienced, the issue of lack of exposure to English as well as the illiteracy of parents or guardians were mentioned as some of the problems that educators encounter which pose learning and teaching problems. In this item, however, educators seem to appeal to these deficiencies as measures to use to solve language-related problems in the classroom. If it is known that the learners do not have access to English magazines and newspapers and that their parents and guardians are illiterate, learners should not be expected to get help from these sources.

Some strategies that are indicative of desperation on the part of educators came from responses elicited from urban based respondents. These included grouping or pairing learners who speak the same language, using cleaners or educators who speak the learners' home language to explain or interpret into the learners' home language. What can be pointed out from these responses is the difficulty of interaction in a learning and teaching situation if the educator and the learners do not share a common language. Some strategies mentioned point to the value of the learners' home language as a helpful measure when learning and teaching are impeded by difficulties related to the language of teaching and

learning. These include code switching or using the learners' home language in order to simplify difficult concepts or using learners themselves and even cleaners in the school. Interestingly, responses that mentioned the use of learners and cleaners to interpret into the learners' home language mainly came from urban-based schools which mostly had indicated that the language of learning and teaching was effective in their schools.

4.6.1.4 Themes related to the resolution to use the learners' home language for learning and teaching

Respondents were further requested to indicate if they ever found themselves forced to resort to using the learners' home language for purposes of learning and teaching in their subjects. Out of 76 responses received for this item, 60 responses stated that they do resort to the learners' home language and only 16 stated that they do not resort to using the learners' home language when they teach.

The predominance of positive responses towards the use of the home language is an indication of the value that the learners' home language has in any learning and teaching situation. The 16 responses that gave 'no' as a response to this item predominantly came from respondents who were based in urban and peri-urban areas and very few came from rural areas. In most of the instances, the home language was not used simply because it was not known by the educator. A number of respondents indicated that they would use the learners' home

language if they knew it. For those who indicated that they knew the learners' home language, but not willing to resort to using it for teaching purposes claimed that using the learners' home language would disadvantage learners. This was also observed in one of the lessons where the educator discouraged the use of the home language even though she herself knew the language and the learners showed an inclination to use the home language when either asking or responding to questions. Probably this tendency to refuse the use of the home language originated from the traditional school of thought which equates English to education and upholds the belief that the use of the learners' home language must be discouraged at all cost. Kamwendo (2006) has reported the fact that indigenous languages are held in low esteem as one of the worrisome trends in South African national language planning which has permeated to the learning and teaching situation as shown by the data collected from both educators and learners. The tendency to refuse to use the learners' home language contrasts with a sentiment expressed by learners in all focus group interviews that they understand better if a teacher makes use of their home language to explain some of the concepts taught.

Another strategy that some educators indicated they use is to ignore language errors that learners made if the answers they gave were correct and felt the responsibility of correcting errors was for language educators and not theirs as content subject educators. The use of this strategy indicates a lack of awareness

of the principle of teaching language across the curriculum which regards any teaching platform as an opportunity to learn language. It also seems to be blind to the fact that the time allocated for language teaching in any school timetable is never sufficient to enable learners to master all the linguistic skills and competencies needed for the learners to be regarded as proficient in the language of teaching and learning. Rather than helping the learner in any way the strategy of ignoring errors is likely to foster unbalanced language development and likely to have very detrimental effects especially for learners who only get to have contact with English at school, particularly those who come from illiterate households.

On the other hand, the positive responses that were given to the question of whether educators would use the learners' home language for teaching if it were made official indicate an understanding of the fact that any teaching endeavour that can be described as successful is one that places the learners' immediate benefit from any teaching situation at the centre. If learners achieve immediate benefits from learning, the educator's job would become easier. This directly relates with a concern that was raised as one of the responses to the item about how language related problems are resolved where educators mentioned that the language barriers prevalent in the classroom made it take longer to achieve any effective teaching and learning. This is due to the fact that educators have to spend a lot of time trying to cross the language barrier before they could get to

transmitting the knowledge that they intended to pass on to learners. Another important factor that comes from these responses recognises the role that using a learner's home language can have in developing critical and analytical thinking skills, which is one of the most important benefits that learners should achieve from any teaching or learning situation. True learning happens when learners can demonstrate the ability to analyse and think critically not when they can just give a correct answer. The development of analytical and critical thinking skills is always dependent on well-developed language abilities. A valuable learning experience for learners conversely implies a meaningful and rewarding experience for educators as well.

What is worth noting about most of the responses that are not in favour of using the learners' home language for learning and teaching is that they tend to express concern about factors that are outside the immediate learning and teaching situation. The factors that are raised are mostly related to the lack of value that the home language has outside the classroom situation namely that teaching materials are published in English and that the home language is not recognised as a language of teaching at tertiary level and of communication in the workplace. This can be interpreted as meaning that should the home language be made more visible, these educators would be willing to use the home language for teaching and learning. These reasons point to the importance of creating an appeal for indigenous languages in higher education and

workplaces. These concerns were also raised by almost all the learners who participated in focus group interviews. Much as they mentioned deriving benefits from getting learning and teaching material explained in the home language but what made the learners reluctant to learn in the home language was the fear that their chances of accessing tertiary education and the job market would be compromised. Posel and Casale (2010) have reported the perceived benefits that English has in the workplace particularly as a reason that makes most parents to opt for their children to receive instruction in English instead of their home language.

The issue of lack of terms for most concepts used in the different languages is important. Learning can only be said to have effectively taken place if learners can demonstrate conceptual knowledge of what they are taught and thereafter be able to apply the knowledge in different situations. This concern also came up in almost all the focus group interviews that were conducted. It was one of the reasons that made learners themselves hold their home language in low esteem and believe it cannot be used effectively for learning and teaching in different subjects. The lack of terminology can also be said to be the reason for the high instances of code-mixing in cases where the educators were flexible to integrate the home language into their teaching. This indicates a need for a term creation drive if the home language is to attract appeal both for learners and educators.

Responses that showed mixed feelings about using the learners' home language for learning and teaching pointed out factors that are more or less similar to those that were raised by respondents who expressed not being in favour of using the learners' home language for teaching and learning. The issues that they raised which led to their expression of mixed feelings have to do with the long term value of learning in the home language in that much as it would have immediate benefits by improving conceptual understanding and improving the pass rates in schools, it did not have long term benefits in that learning in the home language will impact on their success in tertiary education and employment chances. This corresponds with a concern that was expressed by all the learners in the focus group interviews about the lack of visibility and usability of the home language beyond the school phase. Any efforts to promote the use of learners' home languages then should not only concentrate at school level but should happen alongside promoting them in tertiary education as well. Makalela (2005) has argued that learning through African languages can be linked with social mobility through a political effort to market these languages by providing incentives in the form of scholarships. Another reason for reluctance of wholesale acceptance of the home language for learning and teaching purposes by these respondents had to do with the lack of material in the home language for most subjects and the fact that where it is available it is translated material that has not been translated in accordance with high quality standards.

Learners who participated in the focus group interviews also expressed a concern with lack of material which led to most of them assuming that learning in the home language would create problems for them as they were somehow out of touch with their home language as well. On one hand learners are faced with a problem of early introduction of an additional language as a language of learning and teaching and on the other hand lack of exposure to their home language due to lack of material in the home language. This is consistent with the concept of semilingualism that is suggested by Romaine (1995), Prah (2000) and Skutnab-Kangas (2002) which results from receiving education in an additional language before learners have fully developed competence in their home language. Learners neither have adequate knowledge of their home language nor the language of teaching and learning. Most respondents who expressed mixed feelings about promoting the use of the learners' home language for learning and teaching brought about a suggestion of a structured dual medium policy in which both the home language and English will be used for teaching and learning. A similar view was expressed by learners in focus group interviews. Whilst they did realise the benefits that the home language had, they were not completely agreeable to using the home language solely for learning and teaching but wanted the home language to be used alongside English. This is consistent with the claim made by Biseth (2009:8) that 'it is of utmost importance to develop skills in both languages (the home language and the additional language) in order to enhance cognitive, linguistic and academic

growth.’ Two options of how that could be done constantly came up in the interviews; namely teaching in English and providing either worksheets or dictionaries that provided explanations in the home language or providing textbooks that use both the home language and English to explain.

4.6.1.5 Discussion of themes that emerged from data collected from higher education specialists

A questionnaire was used to collect data from higher education specialists based in institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal. Teacher education specialists and language/linguistics specialists were particularly targeted as respondents since they are directly involved in education and language learning and teaching respectively. Higher education institutions in KwaZulu-Natal were used simply to ensure consistency with the sample that had been used to collect data from schools. A total of ten responses were received and six of these responses came from teacher education specialists and four from language/linguistics specialists.

In response to the item that required respondents to indicate whether or not they experienced language related challenges when they teach, all respondents stated that they experienced challenges. This was to be expected since these institutions of higher learning source their students from the schools which are bugged by language related difficulties in teaching and learning. It is to be

expected that if there are problems in the schooling system, they are likely to spill over to institutions of higher learning.

Descriptions of problems that respondents gave varied, but all of them identify in common that higher education learners have problems with English as a language of learning and teaching which manifests itself in different ways, namely through misinterpretation of instructions and questions, inadequate academic literacy and failure to express themselves in English. The nature of challenges observed in higher learning are similar to those reported by educators at school level as well. The persistence of these problems in spite of the fact that learners in higher education currently come from a schooling background which promoted early immersion into English as a language of learning and teaching proves that early exposure to an additional language as a language of instruction does not guarantee better or increased proficiency in the language. In fact research findings attest to the contrary; that the longer a child maintains their home language as a language of instruction the better the chances of proficiency in a second or additional language subsequently (Heugh (2005) and Collier (1995).

Another view that was expressed was an observation of an inability to use the two languages as resources when needed in the teaching situation. The respondent specifically gave an example of conditions taught about in health education that have indigenous African terms but no corresponding English

equivalents on one hand and terms and concepts that have English names but do not have indigenous African language equivalents on the other. This results in a situation where the lecturer cannot depend on either of the languages to explain and ensure complete comprehension on the learners' part, particularly with the younger generation of learners. This is akin to the phenomenon of semilingualism that is described by Skutnabb-Kangas (2004).

Different views were given about perceived sources of the problem but they all center on the effect of the language of learning and teaching in some or other way. The time of its introduction, how it is taught and which one is used and how long it is used are all matters of contention which, as one respondent mentioned results in the under preparedness of learners who come to tertiary education for the first time. There is a view among higher education specialists that learners are immersed into using an additional language as a language of learning and teaching too early when they still have not yet even developed sufficient competence in their home languages. Some respondents mentioned that failure to provide mother-tongue education for all learners as is currently the case with English and Afrikaans speaking children is the main source of the language related problems that bug the South African education system from school to tertiary level. One respondent specifically stated the following:

Research has proven that mother-tongue instruction has positive effects on students' learning and that most students prefer learning in their

mother-tongue. Students learning in the mother-tongue generally perform better than their counterparts using English as a medium of instruction.

There is also a view that states that the language problem is a black school problem because according to the respondent's perception black learners who attend former model C schools seem to master English better than their counterparts in predominantly black schools. Another view ascribes the language problem to educators' failure to teach learners the additional language. This view is based on an observation that the respondent made, whilst observing teaching practice sessions for Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase teacher trainees. According to the respondent, it seems as if educators in the Foundation Phase have misinterpreted the legalisation of home language instruction for this phase to mean that learners should not be introduced to literacy in the additional language at all, which implies that when they get to the intermediate phase and have to make the switch to English, they are still not ready for instruction in an additional language. This is consistent with a view that was expressed by intermediate phase educators who felt that learners are under prepared to receive instruction in the additional language.

Another factor that was mentioned has to do with the impact that the social media has in compromising indigenous African languages. In a way social media is perceived to be the cause of the younger generation's lack of African language vocabulary even for concepts that are imperative to know for purposes

of learning and teaching as well as for the preservation of African languages and their cultures. This view is consistent with one that was expressed by Technology educators particularly of a need to develop computer programmes in the indigenous African languages to create an appeal for them among younger learners. In a nutshell, failure to lay a proper foundation whether as a result of poor instruction or as a result of early additional language instruction has long term consequences which affect the learners' entire educational career.

Views that were given in response to the item that sought suggestions on what needs to be done in the schooling phase to ensure that language related problems are solved before learners reach the post school phase can be categorised in two ways. Some of the suggestions are policy-related and some are related to language teaching. As far as policy is concerned, two views were identified, namely; ensuring that the language in education policy provides clear guidelines on how to teach in multilingual contexts on one hand and promoting indigenous languages on the other. With regard to the suggestion to make clear policy provisions about how multilingualism can be promoted, the current language in education policy places the responsibility on the schools' governing bodies (SGBs) but does not continue to state how the actual learning and teaching situation in the classroom should cater for this once the SGB has decided which language/s to promote. This suggestion relates to Balfour's (2007) suggestion that any model aimed at promoting mother-tongue education

in South Africa should take into cognizance the varied socio-economic and socio-geographic realities in which education takes place. Namely, that it is highly unlikely that children (especially in metropolitan areas) can have exposure to only one language in their early learning years and that mother-tongue education needs to be considered insofar as it facilitates and enhances the understanding of bilingual education for a multilingual environment.

Proficiency in an additional language (if it is regarded as valuable as is currently the case in South African education) cannot be achieved through only one path but different approaches can be used and similar results can be achieved. The linguistic development needs of learners in urban and perhaps peri-urban areas are quite different from those of learners in rural areas.

The suggestion to promote indigenous African languages for learning and teaching seems to stem from two different experiences highlighted by higher education specialists. On one hand, the view is based on an experience where one respondent has to teach both Afrikaans speaking learners and learners who speak various indigenous African languages. The institution in question provides for study material to be translated into Afrikaans for Afrikaans speaking students but does not do the same for indigenous African language speakers. Afrikaans-speaking students as a result, perform better and have a higher pass rate than indigenous language speaking students. This has led the respondent to the conclusion that receiving instruction in one's home language

has better academic benefits for the learner than when an additional or foreign language is used for instruction and hence the suggestion to develop indigenous languages as languages of teaching and learning.

On the other hand, the suggestion is based on experience with working with learners who are first language speakers of indigenous African languages. These learners have problems with interpreting information correctly if it is not in their home language and also cannot express themselves properly in the language of instruction although they are now at tertiary level. The suggestion to promote home language instruction is consistent with a finding reported by Collier (1995) that for learners who do not use their home language as a language of instruction to reach native speaker competence in the language of instruction, they need at least 7-10 years of schooling in their first language for them to reach a level of competence that is equivalent to their native speaker counterparts. In addition to lengthening the duration of home language instruction, there is also a view that African languages, if they are taught, need to be taught by educators who understand and know both the language and the culture for learners to obtain cultural benefits that come with learning a language. This suggestion came from an observation of there being an increase of situations where African languages are taught by educators who have no cultural background in the language. Cummins (2000) argues for the value that a learner's cultural and linguistic background has for the learning situation and the importance of building upon this foundation and not undermining it.

Another important spin-off that can emanate from promoting the use of the learners' home language for learning and teaching is the preservation of cultural capital that comes with learning and using the learners' home language.

Views that are language related seem to suggest a need to address how the additional language is taught. Mostly there seems to be a feeling that the problem might not be with the language of instruction per se but with its teaching as a subject. In other words, this means the respondents are of the view that if English (which is an additional language for most learners) is used as a language of instruction it is imperative that its teaching as a subject be done according to proper standards if it is to benefit learners as a language of learning and teaching subsequently. In relation to the need to improve the teaching of both the indigenous African languages and the language of teaching and learning, there is mention of the dire need to provide proper initial training and ongoing training for educators as it used to happen during the apartheid era. The need to develop proper and relevant material for both the language of learning and teaching and the indigenous home languages is also mentioned. From these views the importance of each language for the subsequent development of the other is recognised.

For learners to develop competence in the additional language they need a proper foundation in the home language and to realise the South African

constitutional goal of multilingualism, learners need a balanced exposure to languages that are offered in their school curriculum.

Responses given in response to the item that required respondents to give their views on whether they thought promoting the use of the learners' home language could help alleviate language related challenges that they experienced indicate mixed views. However, views in favour of promoting the use of the learners' home language predominate. 70% of the respondents are in favour of promoting the learners' home language for learning and teaching and only 30% of the respondents are against the use of the learners' home language for instructional purposes. There are, on one hand, views that seem to be in favour of complete use of the home language for learning and teaching purposes and, on the other hand, there are views that favour the use of the home language for learning and teaching for a limited period of time and then a switch to English as a language of teaching and learning.

Various reasons are given in support of the views that are in favour of using the learners' home language for teaching and learning. Views that are in support of complete use of the home language for learning and teaching seem to be based on varied benefits that using the learners' home language can have both for the learner and the language itself. There is a view that since learners presumably know the grammatical structure of their home language, it would be easy for them to gain conceptual knowledge of information presented to them and thus

be able to express themselves well when assessed. This view relates to one of the challenges that were expressed by educators that it takes longer to explain and for learners to master information since the language of learning and teaching(English) often poses difficulty and requires learners first to cross the language barrier before they can reach conceptual understanding.

Another view in favour of using the learners' home language is based on the claim that if learners get proper grounding in their home language, it has the advantage that the language skills and tools gained in the home language can be easily transferred to the additional language. The respondent particularly stated:

If a learner has developed good reading skills in IsiZulu, s/he is likely to be able to apply these skills when reading English. Similarly, the skills of being able to develop an argument in a persuasive essay can be applied in the second language once they have been learned in the home language.

This is consistent with the claim made by Biseth (2009) that the importance of developing skills both in the home language and the additional language in order to enhance cognitive, linguistic and academic growth is now widely recognised as well as the finding by Collier (1995) that academic and conceptual knowledge transfer from the first language to the second language.

Another view in favour of using the learners' home language seems to support the idea of doing so alongside the use of English as a language of teaching and learning. The main reason for this position seems to be based on the concern that the indigenous African languages (which are home languages for most

black learners) do not have enough linguistic capital to be used as sole media of instruction. However, allowing the use of the language where possible and needed would help stimulate the learners' interest in their home languages and make learners see that their languages are not in any way inferior to other languages. The low esteem in which African languages are held as well as the negative attitudes that allegedly prevail towards learning in an African language have been reported by Kamwendo (2006) and Barkhuizen (2002).

4.6.1.6 Themes related to strategies that can be used to promote the use of the learners' home language for learning and teaching in schools

All categories of respondents (educators, learners and higher education specialists) were asked to give their views on what they think needs to be done in order to promote the use of the learners' home languages as a language of teaching and learning. Responses to this question were transcribed and compared across all categories of respondents in order to determine strategies that featured predominantly in all categories of respondents. Responses that were given could be categorised as follows: legislation related, language related, material related, and educator related responses.

Legislation-related suggestions included the following; making the use of the home language official, empowering governing bodies to take the initiative, making the initiative a nation-wide effort and enforcing the promotion of

multilingualism as enshrined in the Language-in-Education Policy. Currently the South African Schools Act and the Language-in-Education Policy do provide for each of the factors highlighted by respondents in some way. The two pieces of legislation allow for the governing bodies of schools to determine the language of instruction for their school. As far as the language of learning and teaching is concerned, the language-in-education policy in particular does not specify which language should be used as a language of teaching and learning. Afrikaans-medium schools have used this provision in the policy to fight for the use of their language as a language of learning and teaching in their schools. What could be lacking then on the part of predominantly black schools is an understanding of the provisions made by the language-in-education policy and thus failure to apply the provisions of the policy for the benefit of their learners and their languages.

One issue that constantly came from respondents as well is concern with the fact that if learners are taught in their home language they will be disadvantaged in the sense that it will limit them to the province where their language is spoken. This study was conducted in the province of KwaZulu-Natal and respondents often had a concern that learning in isiZulu which predominates in the province will restrict them to the province hence the suggestion that any attempts to promote home languages be done as a nation-wide initiative. This

was interpreted as meaning that any attempts made should be made throughout the country for all indigenous African languages.

Another view that constantly came up was for dual medium instruction which was explained in different ways by educators and learners. Educators suggested that some subjects be offered in the home language and some in English to ensure that learners had access to both languages on a balanced or equal basis. Learners who participated in focus group discussions suggested a need for a curriculum that allowed for material provision in both the home language and English so that access to both languages is maintained.

The need to take into cognizance the prevailing realities in different geographic and economic situations when deciding on a model to provide education that is suited to the linguistic realities of learners has been pointed out as an important factor in existing research (Makalela, 2005 and Balfour 2007). Proficiency in an additional language if it happens to have hegemonic power like it is currently the case with English in South Africa cannot only be achieved by immersing learners in the language and imposing it as a medium of instruction. Proficiency in an additional language can be better achieved through mother-tongue based programmes, which either retain the learners' home language as a language of learning and teaching for a longer period (Collier, (1995) and Skutnabb-Kangas (2004) or through mother-tongue based bilingual education programmes (Heugh (2005) and Makalela (2005).

There is some awareness among higher education specialists of the fact that the need to promote multilingualism as enshrined in the language-in-education policy is not being enforced. Though the need to enforce this provision is mentioned but respondents do not state who should take the responsibility for enforcement. On the other hand, school-based educators constantly raised the idea that the governing bodies should take the initiative in bringing about the change. Since legislation that allows for multilingual education is already in place and since the legislation already delegates power to determine the language of learning and teaching to the governing bodies of schools, the onus is upon stakeholders in the schools to make use of this right.

A number of language-related suggestions were also identified from all categories of respondents and they centered around the need to develop the learners' home language so that it can be in a position to hold its own as a language of learning and teaching like it is the case with English and Afrikaans currently. A lot of issues were raised that need to be attended to in order to raise the standard of the learners' language so that it can be effective as a language of teaching and learning. All categories of respondents pointed out the need for terminology development for concepts used in the various subjects. Doing so would help address one of the concerns that was expressed both by learners and educators which is that the learners' home language lacked suitable terms for most concepts used in different subjects, in fact it did not have terms

whatsoever for concepts used in some subjects like *solve for x* and *simultaneous equations* in mathematics. Learners in one of the focus group interviews particularly suggested the need for discipline specialists in institutions of higher learning to collaborate with home language specialists in developing the terminology so that there can be consistency in term creation and the meanings of the created terms. This corresponds with another concern that was raised by some educators for a need to standardize isiZulu particularly which was used as a focus for this study. There was a concern with the fact that isiZulu itself as a language was too varied and a need to standardise the language to ensure uniformity in the language itself before it could be used for learning and teaching purposes was proposed.

Other factors that were raised by all categories of respondents that can help increase the visibility as well as the respectability of the home language is making its learning and teaching compulsory in institutions of higher learning and making it recognisable in the workplace. This suggestion relates with a concern that was raised as a reason for being reluctant to use the home language for learning and teaching purposes by some learners and educators who felt that the home language does not have any long term value beyond the confines of the classroom because it was not promoted both in institutions of higher learning as well as in the workplace.

All learners who participated in focus group interviews expressed the view that promoting the use of the learners' home language for learning and teaching would take long to realise. A similar perception also came from some of the responses received from educators who responded to the educator's questionnaire. As part of short-term strategies that can help in making the effectiveness of the home language valuable in the interim that were suggested by all categories of respondents included the following; providing for its teaching as a home language in ex-model C schools and including it in the setting of examination papers. The suggestion of teaching isiZulu particularly as a home language in ex-model C schools was raised by educators and specialists who felt that many ex-model C schools around KwaZulu-Natal were populated by learners who were first language speakers of the language and offering the language to them as an additional language contributed to the demise of the language and was not helping in its development in the way that it should.

In the focus group interviews conducted with learners, the benefit that additional explanations in the home language had for them repeatedly came up from respondents from all demographic representations namely; urban, peri-urban and rural settings. A need for home language explanation was also noted in all lessons that the researcher observed. Educators also predominantly mentioned the constant need to resort to using the learner's home language to ensure effective teaching and learning. However, the fact that promoting the use

of the home language is not something that can happen overnight, a suggestion to officially use it alongside English to set examination papers was made so that learners can in the interim reap benefits that the home language has to offer for their learning. Both educators and learners also repeatedly pointed out that learners struggled with the home language when taught as a subject. Educators particularly pointed out that the pass rate obtained in examinations was not very good for home language speakers. This was blamed on too much exposure to television programs and other forms of media that did not use the home language. Learners suggested the need to also offer extra lessons in their home language to help them improve their vocabulary and grammatical constructions in the home language.

The need to lay a good foundation for the development of the home language in the Foundation Phase of schooling was also suggested. This was pointed out mostly by educators who teach in the Intermediate Phase especially, who felt that though Foundation Phase learners are currently taught in the home language, the material used on one hand and the methods used by Foundation Phase educators on the other do not prepare learners sufficiently enough to have their home language well developed before the switch to English education which currently takes place in the Intermediate Phase. Learner's competence in the home language is not developed enough despite using it as a language of learning and teaching due to material of poor quality being used and lack of

sufficient training on the part of educators. Research findings particularly indicate that if learners are to make a switch to an additional language as a language of learning and teaching, they at least need to have instruction in their home language for a minimum of 7 years or longer before the switch to another language of instruction is made (Thomas and Collier, (2002) and Skutnabb-Kangas (2004).

The importance of material development and provision was also pointed out as an aspect that needed to be attended to in any effort to promote home language education by all categories of respondents. This, according to the responses received, can be done in different ways. Learners particularly suggested the idea of developing learning aids or reference guides or subject dictionaries that could be used alongside textbooks written in English for learners who are already in the system and have been using English as a medium of instruction. The learning aids or reference guides could contain explanations of major concepts used or taught in each subject. This would aid with revision, homework and preparation for assessments when they no longer had the benefit of the teacher to interpret into the home language for them. This corresponds with the suggestion for dual medium instruction which was mentioned as one of the strategies as well where the teacher would continue teaching in English but make the material taught accessible in the home language as well. Another issue that was suggested both by learners and educators is to set examination papers

both in English and in the home language and give learners the option to answer in a language in which they are most comfortable between the two languages. In relation to this, educators mentioned the need to use examiners and moderators who know the learners' home language. The South African education system already has a functional examinations quality assurance body (uMalusi) that can be used to help with the standardisation of examination papers to ensure uniformity in the examination papers. Furthermore, examinations are offered in Afrikaans for Afrikaans medium schools; the standardisation procedures used to ensure uniformity between English and Afrikaans examination papers can be extended to the use of indigenous African languages as well.

As part of material provision, educators further suggested the need to avail magazines, newspapers and computer programmes written in the home language to schools as well. This would help increase the visibility of the language and motivate learners to see the value of their home language beyond the bounds of the classroom. Finally the need to compile textbooks in the home language was also suggested, especially by educators and higher education specialists as part of the curriculum restructuring that needs to take place if the dream of home language education is to be realized. Lack of material in the indigenous African languages has been cited by Makalela (2005) as having been inherited from the apartheid era and is believed to be the reason behind parents opting to send their children to former model C schools. Developing learning

and teaching materials in the indigenous African languages could also help address the concern that some educators and learners had about the invisibility of African languages other than when they are offered as subjects.

4.6.1.7 Important deviations emanating from the findings of the study

This section is aimed at highlighting some deviations that came from the data that was collected from the different categories of respondents. These deviations did not directly relate to the questions posed as part of the research instruments; however the researcher feels they are worth noting as they can have some form of impact on the implementation of any strategy that could be devised to encourage and promote learning and teaching in the indigenous home languages.

Learners who participated in focus group interviews mentioned that the reason they together with their parents opted for and preferred English as a language of learning and teaching was because of the potential employment benefits it offered. The issue of the association of English with better social standing and economic upward mobility not only in South Africa but in most former English colonies in Africa has been cited by many scholars (Akinnaso 1991 and Posel and Castel 2010). To address this perception Posel and Castel (2010: 457) suggest a need to educate both educators and parents on ‘the benefits of mother-tongue instruction so that they can make informed decisions’ regarding the best

way for children to achieve both English language proficiency and a suitable level of cognitive development.

Another important deviation that came from focus group interviews was a need for awareness campaigns to make learners aware of the importance and the value of learning in their home language as well as the difficulties associated with using an additional language for teaching and learning. This suggestion is consistent with one of the recommendations made in the report that was issued by the Eastern Cape Department of Education (2005). This suggestion came in relation to the perception that the learners have, that high profile people do not hold indigenous languages in high esteem which, they claim, has resulted in them also losing interest in the languages. From the interviews the researcher could identify that most learners were not aware of initiatives that are being taken by the government to resuscitate indigenous African languages in institutions of higher learning and mostly felt that learning the indigenous African languages even as subjects was just an endeavor with a dead end as these languages seemed to have no appeal beyond the bounds of the classroom. The suggested need of awareness campaigns also corresponds with Posel's and Castel's (2010) suggestion to educate educators and parents about the value of home language education. Such campaigns would be beneficial if they targeted all three stakeholders- learners, parents and educators so that there can be

unanimity of understanding in order to ensure that endeavours to promote home language education are not sabotaged.

A number of important views were also given in relation to learning and teaching in the learners' home language. These included among others that developing learning and teaching materials in the home languages would be time-consuming and costly, learning in the home languages would promote racial division and advantage other racial groups over others and would not improve the pass rate. The issue of the economic viability of promoting the use of the indigenous languages for learning and teaching has been raised by other researchers. Heugh (1999) and Brock-Utne (2005) particularly argue that the question of the economic viability of producing learning and teaching materials in indigenous languages is caused by African countries' continued dependence on their former colonisers for the economic funding of their education programmes. Localising the development and provision of materials would need to be considered as it would not only cut the costs of developing material but also ensure an education that is more geared for South Africa's multilingual needs.

The issue of learners having difficulties with the home language and hence the expectation that the failure rate would still be high even if instruction was in the learners' home language mostly came from respondents situated in urban and peri-urban settlements. This seems to be due to the concern raised by educators

that learners lack exposure to the home language outside the classroom or school situation. The same sentiment was expressed by learners in focus group interviews in almost all the schools where these interviews were conducted. This is partly due to insufficient use of the home language in the media and the workplace which is believed to cause learners to have problems with the language in the school setting as well. In one focus group interview learners particularly mentioned that their reason for reluctance to be taught in isiZulu is because it is not held in high esteem by the so-called high profile which to them creates the impression that their home language is of no value, a perception which is also perpetuated by the fact that it is also not recognized in the workplace-interviews and all official communication in the world of work takes place in English.

4.7 Summary

In this chapter the major themes that emerged from data collected from the different categories of respondents have been analysed and discussed. These included the effectiveness of the language of teaching and learning, language-related problems that were experienced in teaching and learning, strategies used to resolve language related problems, the resolution to use the learners' home language and strategies that can be used to promote the learners' home language as a language of teaching and learning. Deviations that are significant in relation to the purpose of the study have also been highlighted and discussed.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore educators' as well as learners' views of what needs to be done in order to promote indigenous African languages as languages of learning and teaching at school level (GET and FET phases of schooling). The need to conduct the study was motivated by a realisation of limitations in the provisions in the Language-in-Education Policy (1997) on one hand, and the observation of a growing trend to undermine the value of indigenous African languages in teaching and learning, on the other. The purpose of this section of the study is to draw conclusions from the findings of the study, make recommendations based on the findings of the study as well as report on the limitations of the study.

5.2 Conclusions of the study

Conclusions will be drawn in relation to the major themes that have emanated from the data collected from the various respondents that participated in this study; namely educators, learners and higher education specialists.

5.2.1 Conclusions related to the effectiveness English as a language of learning and teaching in schools

From the findings of the study, the language of learning and teaching has differing levels of impact in the urban, peri-urban and rural settings and goes a long way in impacting academic success at the post school level as well. What can be concluded from the findings is the following:

- The effectiveness of a language of learning and teaching would always be directly impacted by its status in the lives of both the educators and their learners. If a language is commonly shared by educators and learners it is likely to positively influence teaching and learning; if it is not commonly shared by the educators and their learners it is likely to have a lot of negative impact on teaching and learning.
- The setting (geographical location of the population) also impacts on the effectiveness of language in the learning and teaching situation. A single language in a multilingual country like South Africa cannot be expected to have a similar level of influence in the different geographical locations of the population.

5.2.2 Conclusions related to language problems experienced in learning and teaching

The findings of the study indicate that most learners who are not home language speakers of the language of learning and teaching do not develop a level of proficiency required for them to succeed when using English as a language of teaching and learning. The following conclusions can then be drawn:

- Lack of proficiency in the language of learning and teaching negatively impacts on learners' conceptual understanding. Inability to comprehend concepts is not an indicator of lack of intelligence but of lack of proficiency. Lack of proficiency in the language of learning and teaching negatively impacts on academic success.
- Learners, especially those in rural areas cannot be expected to attain high levels of proficiency in the language of learning and teaching as their exposure to the language is only limited to the bounds of the classroom. They thus need to spend longer time using their home language as a language of learning and teaching whilst learning an additional language as a subject before they can switch and use the additional language for teaching and learning.
- Lack of proficiency in the language of learning and teaching would always cause learners to directly or indirectly appeal for the use of the

home language in the learning and teaching situation. The learners' home language thus has to be recognised as a useful resource in the learning and teaching situation.

5.2.3 Conclusions related to strategies used to resolve language related problems during learning and teaching

The findings of the study indicate a presence of language related problems when teaching or learning, irrespective of the geographical setting of the school and the level of schooling of the learners. The following conclusions can be drawn:

- Language-related problems pose a barrier to effective teaching and learning. These problems are mainly caused by the fact that the language of learning and teaching is not shared as a language of general communication by the educators and learners.
- Language-related problems would only be eliminated if the educators and learners shared the language of learning and teaching as a language of general communication and everyday use as well.
- There is a need for continuity between the language of learning and teaching and the language of the home so that educators can be able to rely on parental assistance and so that parents can be able to play an effective role in their children's learning.

5.2.4 Conclusions related to the resolution to use the learners' home language when teaching

The findings related to the need to use the learners' home language when teaching indicate that a large number of educators (75, 9%) resort to using the learners' home language to teach. Fewer educators (24,1%) indicated that they do not resort to using the learners' home language for teaching. The following conclusions were drawn from this theme:

- The learners' home language is a helpful resource in a learning and teaching situation. Its value for learning and teaching should not be underestimated.
- The language of learning and teaching and the learners' home language should complement each other for learners to derive the benefits that each of the languages has to offer.
- Language differences between educators and learners pose a barrier to effective teaching and learning.
- For learning and teaching to take place effectively, educators and learners must have a language that they share in common.
- The language of learning and teaching cannot be effectively used if learners do not have well developed knowledge of their home language.

5.2.5 Conclusions related to strategies that can be used to promote the learners' home language for learning and teaching at school level

Findings related to this theme, which was the main focus of this study, indicate a need to devise strategies in four key areas (legislation, language development, materials development and teacher training) in order to create a feasible platform for the promotion of the learners' home languages as languages of teaching and learning. The following conclusions can be drawn:

- There is a need for campaigns to educate and empower school governing bodies about the language provisions in the Language-in-Education Policy and how they can make the provisions work to benefit their learners' home languages in the case of the marginalised indigenous African languages.
- Indigenous African languages are not yet well developed to cope with academic demands of teaching and learning. There is a need for standardisation and terminology creation to help develop these languages.
- There is a need to develop learning and teaching material in the indigenous African languages in order to increase their visibility and motivate parent and learner interest in these languages.
- Any effort to promote the use of indigenous home languages as languages of learning and teaching has to be done alongside quality

teacher training and retraining to allow educators to get conversant with both the learning and teaching materials and applicable pedagogic practices.

5.3 Recommendations

5.3.1 Recommendations related to the effectiveness of the language of teaching and learning

Findings of the study indicated varied ratings for the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the language of teaching and learning. What is apparent from the findings is that the geographical locations of the population namely, rural, peri-urban or urban, does impact on the extent of the effectiveness of the language of learning and teaching with urban based responses indicating more effective ratings compared to peri-urban and rural settings. The recommendation that can be made regarding this finding is for a language in education policy that takes the different geographical and linguistic differences of learner populations into cognizance and allows for the use of language in learning and teaching in such a way that these differences are recognised and not undermined. In short the language of learning and teaching should relate to the type of linguistic exposure that learners have. Balfour (2007: 2) has noted that socio-geographic variables would constrain any model of mother-tongue based education in South Africa. Makalela (2005:164) has noted the fact that English is not necessarily a second

language for all South African learners. These variables also would need to be considered in determining the duration of mother-tongue instruction for learners in various socio-geographic dispensations- some learners would need longer mother-tongue instruction before they can switch to another language as a language of learning and teaching while some would cope with a shorter period of mother-tongue instruction and yet others would need dual medium instruction throughout their schooling careers wherein the home language and the other dominant language are used on an equal basis in providing learning and teaching. This would imply offering all subjects in both languages and allowing learners to choose the language in which they would like a certain subject to be offered.

5.3.2 Recommendations related to how language-related problems are resolved

Findings related to linguistic problems experienced in the learning and teaching situation indicate that learning is negatively affected by lack of proficiency in the language of learning and teaching both on the part of learners and in some cases on the part of educators as well. In spite of problems with using a second or foreign language for teaching and learning, learners and educators cannot opt for the use of the learners' home language due to lack of learning and teaching materials in the learners' home language. Currently the South African education system is facing a challenge

of demotivated educators and a large number of whom resort to exiting the teaching profession early. An interim plan that officially allows for the use of the learners' home language for assessment purposes is recommended whilst long term plans to avail materials in the indigenous African languages are devised and implemented.

5.3.3 Recommendations related strategies used to resolve language problems in the classroom

The findings of the study indicate a prevalence of language problems irrespective of the socio-geographical location of the school. The findings further indicate that the most predominant strategies used to resolve problems tend to show dependence on the learners' home language to resolve the problems in different ways- from code switching and mixing to interpreting information into the home language. It is recommended that dual language learning aids (that present information both in English and in the learners' home language) be developed for learners to have access to both languages during teaching and learning.

5.3.4 Recommendations related to attitudes towards using the learners' home language for learning and teaching

The findings of the study indicate a predominance of a positive attitude towards using the learners' home language for teaching and learning. Where

negative views are expressed, they are mostly related to the circumstances that surround the home language currently which implies that should the circumstances of the language be improved, the negative attitudes could also be expected to change. On the basis of these findings, the following recommendations can be made: stakeholders in learning and teaching namely; educators, learners and parents need to be educated on the benefits that a learners' home language has in the learning and teaching situation. The factors that are responsible for the low esteem in which indigenous African languages are held in relation to learning and teaching need to be eliminated.

5.4 A recommended model of strategies that can be used to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching in schools

The findings of the study show a need to pay attention to four areas in order to make the goal of promoting indigenous African languages as languages of learning and teaching feasible. These include policy revision and implementation, language development, educator training and development as well as materials development. Some of the strategies suggested in the different categories take priority over others, some are short-term, some long-term, while some are dependent on developments in other categories for their realisation. For instance, policy related strategies take priority over all other strategies as policy needs to guide activities done to realise some of the strategies suggested

for other categories. Materials can take very long to develop; short term strategies in this regard could include the development of study guides that define key concepts in each subject in both the language of learning and teaching and in the learners' home language. Teacher training is dependent on material availability whilst material development on the other hand is dependent on language development.

5.4.1 Recommended policy revisions

Policy revisions are central to any initiative to realise the promotion of indigenous home languages in learning and teaching and thus a priority factor for the strategy. Currently, there are two policies that have been developed in South Africa in relation to language in education; namely the Language-in-Education Policy of 1997 issued in terms of the National Education Policy of 1996 and the Norms and Standards regarding Language Policy published in terms of the South African Schools Act of 1996. Both policies have the promotion of multilingualism through education as their goal. The Language-in-Education Policy particularly states the need to foster additive bilingualism. In additive bilingualism learning takes place through the home language and other languages are added as subjects. Though the principle of additive bilingualism is stated as underpinning the policy, however, the promotion requirements that the policy provides for do not foster additive bilingualism as stated in the policy which, as some commentators have

observed creates conditions that are more conducive to unilingualism instead. The main revisions that need to be made in the policy have to be on promotion requirements to ensure that they do not create conditions that favour any language at the expense of others. Furthermore, the policy needs to specify guidelines on how the different languages can be promoted as languages of learning and teaching in the socio-geographic locations where they predominate. In other words, the policy should clearly recognise the different languages and provide for their promotion as languages of learning and teaching in their locations. Making policy imperatives to recognise all languages equally as languages of learning and teaching will have a number of benefits for the other areas of focus of strategy development (language development, materials development and teacher training). There is a need for explicitness in the way the provisions of the policy are stated and none of its provisions should be left to private interpretation.

- Recognition of and legalising the need for the promotion of the indigenous African languages as languages of learning and teaching will give impetus to the development of each of these languages as well as to materials development.
- Recognition of and legalising the need for the promotion of indigenous African languages as languages of learning and teaching

would help take away the stigma associated with learning and teaching in an African language.

- It would also help improve the quality of teacher training and subsequently better their teaching endeavours by removing the linguistic barrier that the current provisions of the policy place on teaching and learning.

5.4.2 Language development and materials development

The success of any effort to promote home language or mother-tongue based education is totally dependent on the availability of learning and teaching materials in the languages in question. The development of material on the other hand largely depends on the level of development of the language. The two factors are thus interdependent; advances in language development will have positive spin-offs for materials development and advances in materials development will benefit language growth; thus language development and materials development need to be considered concurrently in any strategy development. From the findings of the study, it is apparent that the level of development of indigenous African languages, which are home languages for the majority of learners as well as lack of materials in these languages are the key factors that contribute to their lack of appeal both to educators (to some extent) and parents as languages of teaching and learning. It is thus imperative that judicious

and meticulous attention be given to both to ensure the success of any strategy to promote indigenous home languages as languages of teaching and learning. More than three decades have passed since these languages were used for teaching and learning. Obviously it cannot be expected that success in their development and resuscitation take place overnight.

Interim, continuous, and long-term activities need to be identified for any endeavour to develop the languages as well as materials needed for effective teaching and learning. The findings of the study show that there is a need for learning aids that contain definitions of key concepts in each subject written in both the language of teaching and the learners' home language. This implies a need for a strategy that can be introduced as an interim measure to address linguistic deficiencies for learners who are already in the pipeline before full textbooks are developed and would help ensure that learners who are already in the system do access their home language for content subject learning purposes. This measure will work effectively if accompanied by a similar dual language use in the setting of examination papers to give learners an opportunity to get questions translated into their home language.

The use of the learner's home language cannot be implemented for all grades and in all subjects all at once. There would be a need to pilot with a few subjects per phase on a gradual basis. Any piloting done will have

to be accompanied by relevant training for educators and strict monitoring procedures in order to ensure effective implementation and early detection of problems should there be any.

One problem that was cited by educators as hampering learning and teaching efforts was the inability of parents and guardians to help learners with their school work due to that they themselves are not proficient in the language of teaching and learning. Any effort to develop and promote African home languages should involve parents as role players so that they can also realise their importance in making the education system function effectively. A study conducted in Cameroon suggests positive language development that took place through the involvement of parents in the language development initiatives that were taken to boost the development and use of local languages for education in that country. Parents are involved in the design and development of curricula as part of PROPELCA; a mother-tongue based educational initiative aimed at preserving the Cameroonian linguistic heritage and affording primary school learners an opportunity to learn in their home languages (Trudell, 2005: 242). Such involvements would help preserve the indigenous African language heritage stored in the undocumented repository of the elderly people especially in rural areas.

One factor that has continuously posed a challenge to the development of indigenous African languages is the fact that the languages and their orthographies are not standardised. Lack of standardisation goes a long way in hampering advances in materials development. The need to standardise the indigenous African languages has to be treated as a matter of urgency if any strides are to be seen in materials development. One other factor that has thwarted most attempts to develop indigenous African languages is inadequate development in the fields of translation and interpreting which are disciplines that are central to any language development and growth endeavour. Considering making translation and interpreting activities part of the learning outcomes in the field of language learning can play a significant role in speeding up the growth of the indigenous African languages as well as in creating language repositories from the indigenous knowledge that learners, especially in rural areas come to school with.

5.4.3 Teacher Training and Development

Any efforts to improve policies related to language in education, to develop the indigenous African languages as well as the necessary materials cannot work effectively if attention is not given to teacher training and development. Teacher training and development programmes would have to take a number of factors into consideration; the linguistic needs of both

learners and educators already in the education system, the developmental needs of the languages in question as well as the issue of shortages of African language educators. This means that, in order to be effective teacher training initiatives have to take place continuously and be aligned to the specific needs of each language as well as the needs of educators themselves. There is, furthermore, a need for ongoing training, retraining and development if any teacher-related efforts are to be effective. As indicated in some responses, there is a prevailing situation especially in peri-urban and urban areas where educators who cannot speak any indigenous African language have to teach learners who are home language speakers of some or other indigenous African language. In such instances, there is a need for in-service training programmes to teach these educators the indigenous African language that predominates in the area where the school is situated. Such programmes, for high school educators specifically, can be used to help with the translation of material that can be used as part of the dual medium effort that research findings suggest for learners already in the pipeline.

Currently, there are initiatives that have been taken by the government to make it compulsory for all prospective educators to have passed an African language by the time they graduate from training. Such efforts seem not to be effective in some cases because they are not coupled with

the pedagogical knowledge needed to teach in an African language medium. This means that these initiatives need to be developed and extended to include the pedagogical knowledge needed to teach in an indigenous African language.

Linking teacher development to materials development would also help advance and speed up language development as well. So, there is a need to tie teacher development, material development and language development to one another as the three aspects are, in a lot of ways, dependent on another to develop effectively.

5.5 Limitations of the study

This section reports on limitations that were experienced whilst conducting the study and makes suggestions on avenues for future research in order to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon researched and reported in this study.

- The numbers of respondents that were forecasted for each category of respondents (learners, educators and higher education specialists) was not obtained as some institutions were not willing to allow the researcher to collect data from their subjects.
- Most high schools in urban areas which still have a predominance of educators who cannot speak or teach in indigenous African languages did not allow the researcher access to their premises. The findings of the

study then lack data that reports on the views of this category of respondents. Only primary schools in these so called ex-Model C schools agreed to participate in the study.

- The data collection sample was restricted to schools in only three districts out of the twelve into which the province is divided due to financial and time constraints.
- Views of parents as important role-players and stakeholders were not elicited.

In spite of these constraints however, the fact that three categories of respondents were used allowed the researcher to collect data that was sufficient for the exploratory qualitative analytic approach used in the study.

5.6 Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore educators' as well as learners' views of what needs to be done in order to promote indigenous African languages as languages of learning and teaching at school level (GET and FET phases of schooling). This exploratory study of strategies that can be used to promote indigenous African languages as languages of learning and teaching has highlighted factors that need to be taken into consideration when devising a strategy to promote these languages. A model of components of such a strategy has been developed on the basis of the findings of the study and has been discussed in this report.

To further validate the findings of the study and to gain a deeper understanding of the impact that language has on teaching and learning, there is a need to conduct quantitative studies that will cover all the districts in the KwaZulu-Natal province. There is also a need to obtain parental views on the issue of the language of learning and teaching since policy provisions allow them to make the final decision on the matter.

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ANNEXURE A (Letters of permission)

9 Draaibos Street

Mayberry Park

1448

cmpanza@uj.ac.za

16 April 2013

The Coordinator

Research and Innovation Office

University of Zululand

P/Bag x 1001

KWADLANGEZWA

3886

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FROM ACADEMIC STAFF

Dear Sir

I am registered for a Doctoral degree with the Department of Linguistics in the Faculty of Arts. The topic of my thesis is: Strategies to promote the use of indigenous African languages for teaching and learning in schools: An exploratory study of isiZulu.

In order to complete my study I need to collect data from academic staff in the University of Zululand and hereby request that you grant me permission to distribute questionnaires and conduct interviews.

Thank you

Mrs CD Mpanza

0828746845

9 Draaibos Street
Mayberry Park
Alberton
1448
choicemp@gmail.com
23 January 2013

KZN Department of Education
145 David Alexander House
Church Street
Pietermaritzburg
3200

Dear Sir/Madam

Request: Permission to conduct Research

I hereby request permission to conduct research in schools situated in the Umgungundlovu, Empangeni and Ilembe districts for my doctoral study entitled: Strategies to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching purposes in schools.

The research will involve conducting interviews with educators in primary and secondary schools as well as group discussions with learners in Grades 11 and 12.

The information gathered will be used solely to complete this thesis and will be kept confidential at all times. Names of schools as well as those of educators and learners who participate shall not be disclosed in any way.

Thank you

Mrs CD Mpanza

0828746845

choicemp@gmail.com

9 Draaibos Street

Mayberry Park

1448

cmpanza@uj.ac.za

11 March 2013

The Coordinator

Directorate for Research and Postgraduate Support

Durban University of Technology

PO Box 1334

Durban

4000

RE: Request for permission to conduct research at the Durban University of Technology

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a doctoral student at the University of Zululand and the topic for my thesis is: *Strategies to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching at school level: An exploratory case study of isiZulu*

As part of the study, I need to collect data from education and language experts in institutions of higher learning.

I kindly request permission to either distribute a questionnaire or conduct interviews with education and language experts within your institution.

I have attached hereto a copy of the ethical clearance certificate, a copy of the questionnaire as well as a copy of my research proposal for your consideration.

Your assistance in this regard will be appreciated.

Mrs CD Mpanza

cmpanza@uj.ac.za

+27 82 8746845

+27 11 559 4354

**DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR,
RESEARCH AND INNOVATION**



UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

Website: <http://www.uzi.ac.za>

Private Bag X1001
KwaDlangezwa 3886

Tel: 035 902 6634

Fax: 035 902 6222

Email: MsowoyaT@uizulu.ac.za

Ms C D Mpanza
UNIZULU

Per email: cmpanza@uiz.ac.za

14 May 2013

Dear Ms Mpanza

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT UNIZULU: "STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE THE USE OF INDIGENOUS AFRICAN LANGUAGES FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING IN SCHOOLS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF isiZULU"

Your letter dated 16 April 2013 refers.

I hereby grant approval for you to conduct your research at UNIZULU, as per the methodologies stated in your project description document and the application for ethical clearance.

I note that you have obtained the required ethical clearance certificate (certificate number- UZREC 171130-030 PGD 2013/19).

I wish you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Rob Midgley'.

Professor Rob Midgley
Deputy Vice-Chancellor, Research and Innovation

**PROF. JR MIDGLEY
DEPUTY VICE-CHANCELLOR
RESEARCH & INNOVATION**

14 MAY 2013

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND
PRIVATE BAG X1001
KWADLANGEZWA, 3886**

cc Prof CT Moyo

Restructured for Relevance



education

Department:
Education
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

Enquiries: Sibusiso Alwar

Tel: 033 341 8610

Ref.:2/4/8/346

Mrs C Mpanza
9 Draaibos Street
MAYBERRY PARK
1448

Dear Mrs Mpanza

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE KZN DoE INSTITUTIONS

Your application to conduct research entitled: **STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE THE USE OF INDIGENOUS AFRICAN LANGUAGES FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING IN SCHOOLS. AN EXPLORATORY CASE STUDY OF ISIZULU**, in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education Institutions has been approved. The conditions of the approval are as follows:

1. The researcher will make all the arrangements concerning the research and interviews.
2. The researcher must ensure that Educator and learning programmes are not interrupted.
3. Interviews are not conducted during the time of writing examinations in schools.
4. Learners, Educators, Schools and Institutions are not identifiable in any way from the results of the research.
5. A copy of this letter is submitted to District Managers, Principals and Heads of Institutions where the intended research and interviews are to be conducted.
6. The period of investigation is limited to the period from 01 May to 31 October 2013.
7. Your research and interviews will be limited to the schools you have proposed and approved by the Head of Department. Please note that Principals, Educators, Departmental Officials and Learners are under no obligation to participate or assist you in your investigation.
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey at the school(s), please contact Mr. Alwar at the contact numbers below.
9. Upon completion of the research, a brief summary of the findings, recommendations or a full report / dissertation / thesis must be submitted to the research office of the Department. Please address it to The Director-Resources Planning, Private Bag X9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200.

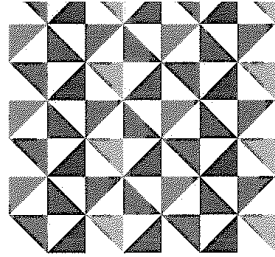
KWAZULU-NATAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

POSTAL: Private Bag X 9137, Pietermaritzburg, 3200, KwaZulu-Natal, Republic of South Africa ...dedicated to service and performance beyond the call of duty

PHYSICAL: 247 Burger Street, Anton Lembede House, Pietermaritzburg, 3201. Tel. 033 392 1004 Fax : 033 392 1203

EMAIL ADDRESS: kehlogile.connie@kzndoe.gov.za; CALL CENTRE: 0860 596 363;

WEBSITE: [WWW.kzneducation.gov.za](http://www.kzneducation.gov.za)



*Directorate for Research and Postgraduate Support
Durban University of Technology
Tromso Annexe, Steve Biko Campus
P.O. Box 1334, Durban 4000
Tel.: 031-3732576/7
Fax: 031-3732946
E-mail: moyos@dut.ac.za*

16TH May 2013

Ms C.D. Mpanza
c/o Department of General Linguistics and Modern Languages
University of Zululand

Dear Ms Mpanza

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE DUT

Your email correspondence in respect of the above refers. I am pleased to inform you that the Institutional Research Committee (IRC) will grant permission to you to conduct your research at the Durban University of Technology.

We would be grateful if a summary of your key research findings can be submitted to the IRC on completion of your project.

Kindest regards.
Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'S. Moyo', written over a horizontal line.

PROF. S. MOYO
DIRECTOR: RESEARCH AND POSTGRADUATE SUPPORT

ANNEXURE B (LETTERS OF CONSENT)

9 Draaibos Street

Mayberry Park

ALBERTON

1448

choicemp@gmail.com

15 July 2013

TO: The Principal

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL

Dear Sir/Madam

I kindly request permission to make use of learners and teachers in your school to conduct research for my study. I need to conduct the research as part of my doctoral study entitled: *Strategies to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching in schools*.

To conduct the research, I need to distribute questionnaires to members of your staff, have discussions with some of your learners in order to get their views on what they think needs to be done to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching in different subjects/learning areas and also observe one teaching session in any subject offered in the school except isiZulu.

All the information shared will be treated with the strictest confidence and used solely for the purposes of this study.

Thank you

Mrs CD Mpanza

choicemp@gmail.com

0828746845

9 Draaibos Street

Mayberry Park

ALBERTON

1448

choicemp@gmail.com

21 January 2013

TO: The Principal

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN YOUR SCHOOL

Dear Sir/Madam

I kindly request permission to make use of teachers in your school to conduct research for my study. I need to conduct the research as part of my doctoral study entitled: *Strategies to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching in schools*.

To conduct the research, I need to distribute questionnaires to members of your staff in order to get their views on what they think needs to be done to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching in different learning areas.

All the information shared will be treated with the strictest confidence and used solely for the purposes of this study.

Thank you

Mrs CD Mpanza

choicemp@gmail.com

0828746845

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

Dear Respondent

You are being asked to participate in a study that seeks to investigate strategies that can be used to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching purposes in schools. A need for research into this issue was sparked by a realization (through secondary research) that initiatives to address language gaps that students manifest at tertiary level cannot work successfully if the students' do not have a well developed home language knowledge.

I would like to find out, with your help, ways in which we can encourage and promote the use of isiZulu specifically for learning and teaching different subjects in both primary and secondary phases of schooling. You are specifically requested to respond to a questionnaire which basically requires you to share your views as an academic on what you think can be done to help use isiZulu officially for learning and teaching in schools.

The ideas that you agree to share will be used for the purposes of this study only. Your name and the name of your institution are not going to be publicized in any way. All the information you share will be treated with the strictest confidence.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You are not obliged to carry on with the study, if at any point you do not wish to do so.

If you have any questions before/after responding to the questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me.

AUTHORIZATION: I have read and fully understand the above contents which explain the nature of the study. I agree to participate in this study and am aware that I can withdraw my participation at any time without prejudice. I also consent for the views that I am going to share to be used by the researcher to finalize the study and understand that any reporting of the results will not disclose my name or the name of my institution.

Participant's signature: _____

Date: _____

Researcher's signature: _____

Date: _____

CONSENT FORM FOR PARENTS/GUARDIANS

Dear Parent/Guardian

Your daughter/son is being asked to participate in a study that seeks to investigate strategies that can be used to promote the use of indigenous African languages for learning and teaching purposes in schools.

I would like to find out, with his/her help, ways in which we can encourage and promote the use of isiZulu specifically for learning and teaching different subjects in both primary and secondary phases of schooling. S/he will be expected to participate in a group discussion which will include other learners as well in which they will share their views on what they think can be done to help use isiZulu officially for learning and teaching in schools.

The ideas that they shall agree to share will be used for the purposes of this study only. His/her name and the name of his/her school are not going to be publicized in any way. All the information s/he shares will be treated with the strictest confidence.

His/her participation in this study is completely voluntary. S/he is not obliged to carry on with the study, if at any point s/he does not wish to do so.

If you have any questions in connection with this request please do not hesitate to contact me. My contact details appear below.

AUTHORIZATION: I have read and fully understand the above contents which explain the nature of the study. I agree to participate in this study and am aware that I can withdraw my participation at any time without prejudice. I also consent for the views that I am going to share to be used by the researcher to finalize the study and understand that any reporting of the results will not disclose my name or the name of my school.

Participant's signature: _____

Date: _____

Researcher's signature: _____

Date: _____

Mrs CD Mpanza

choicemp@gmail.com

0828746845

ANNEXURE C (RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS)

Observation schedule of classroom interaction

1. The frequency of the use of the learner's home language by the teacher when giving explanations	
2. The frequency of the use of the home language by the teacher when asking questions	
3. The frequency of the use of the learner's home language by the learners when asking questions	
4. The frequency of the use of the learner's home language by the learners when responding to questions	
5. Level of learner participation/response when only the official language of learning and teaching is used by the teacher to explain or ask questions	
6. Level of learner participation/response when the home language is used by the teacher to explain or ask questions	
7. Instances of code mixing and code switching	
8. Frequency of home language use in learner-to-learner or group interaction.	
9. Frequency of the use of the language of learning and teaching in learner-to-learner or group interaction.	

UHLAMIBUZO

1. Lolu hlamibuzo luhlose ukuthola imibono noma imicabango yakho mayelana nokuthi yini engenziwa ukuphakamisa ukusetshenziswa kwesiZulu njengolimi lokufunda nokufundisa olusemthethweni ezikoleni.
2. Ngicela ukuba uphendule yonke imibuzo ekulolu hlamibuzo.
3. Imiyalelo mayelana nendlela yokuphendula umbuzo ngamunye iyatholakala maqondana nalowo mbuzo.
4. Lonke ulwazi olunikeziwe luzophathwa njengemfihlo ngayo yonke indlela, ngakho-ke ungalibhali igama lakho noma lesikole sakho kulolu hlamibuzo.

IMIBUZO

1. Yiziphi izilimi ozaziyo kulezi ezilandelayo (okwazi ukuzifunda, uzibhale futhi uzikhulume) Beka isiphambano (X) ebhokisini elinegama lolimi olwaziyo

IsiNgis i	IsiBhun u	isiZul u	IsiSuth u	IsiPed i	IsiVend a	IsiNdebel e	isiXhos a	XiTsong a
--------------	--------------	-------------	--------------	-------------	--------------	----------------	--------------	--------------

2. Ungalulinganisa kanjani izinga lolwazi lwakho lolimi ngalunye kulezo ozibalule ngenhla? Bhala igama lolimi ebhokisini elisekuqaleni bese ubeka uphawu (X) ngaphansi kwesilinganiso esifanele.

Ulimi (Bhala igama lolimi esikhaleni esinikeziwe ngezansi)	Ngilwazi kakhulu	Ngilwazi ngokulingene nje	Ngiyalwazi	Anginalo ulwazi oluphelele

3. Ngabe isikole sakho sisendaweni enjani? (Faka uphawu (X) ebhokisini elifanele.

Edolobheni	Emaphethelweni edolobha	Emaphandleni
------------	-------------------------	--------------

4. Ngabe ufundisa ziphi izifundo?

.....

5. Yiluphi ulimi olusemthethweni lokufunda kanye nokufundisa esikoleni osebenza kuso?

.....

6. Ungakulinganisa kanjani ukusebenza ngempumelelo kolimi olubalule ngenhla ekufundiseni?

Impumelelo enkulu	Impumelelo encanyana	Impumelelo	Alunayo impumelelo	Alunayo impumelelo nhlobo
-------------------	----------------------	------------	--------------------	---------------------------

7. Chaza kafushane izizathu zakho zesilinganiso esingenhla.

.....

8. Ngabe kuke kwenzeke ukuba uhlangabezane nezinkinga ezihlobene nolimi lokufunda uma ufundisa? Faka uphawu (X) ebhokisini elifanele

Yebo		Cha	
-------------	--	------------	--

9. Uma uphendule wathi Yebo embuzweni we-8 ngenhla, chaza kafushane ukuthi hlobo luni lwezinkinga ohlangabezana nazo.

10. Uzixazulula kanjani uma kwenzeka ziba khona?

11. Ngabe kuke kwenzeka ukuba uzithole uphoqelekile ukusebenzisa ulimi lwabafundi lwasekhaya uma ufundisa? **Faka uphawu eduze kwempendulo oyikhethile.**

Yebo		Cha	
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12. Ungabafundisa abafundi bakho ngolimi lwabo lwasekhaya uma kungemukeleka ukwenzenjalo? Kungani ucabanga kanjalo?

13. Ucabanga ukuthi yini engenziwa ukuze kuthuthukiswe ukusetshenziswa kolimi lwabafundi lwasekhaya ekufundeni kanye nasekufundiseni isifundo osifundisayo?

1. This questionnaire is intended to get your views on what needs to be done in order to promote isiZulu as a language of learning and teaching in schools.
2. Please answer all the questions in this questionnaire.
3. Instructions on how to answer each question are given along with the question.
4. All information given will be treated with the strictest confidence, so do not write your name or the name of your school in this questionnaire.

QUESTIONS

1. Which of the following languages do you know (can read, write and speak)

Englis h	Afrikaan s	isiZul u	SeSoth o	Seped i	TshiVend a	Ndebel e	isiXhos a	XiTsong a
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2. How would you rate your proficiency in each of the languages you have ticked above? (Write the name of the language in the space provided below and put a tick (X) in the column which you think represents your level of proficiency)

Language	Highly proficient	Very proficient	proficient	Less proficient

3. In what type of area is your school situated?

Urban	Peri-urban	rural
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4. Which subject/s or learning area/s do you teach?

.....

5. Which language is the official language of learning and teaching in your school?

.....

6. How would you rate the effectiveness of the language you mentioned in 5 above in mediating learning

Very effective	Slightly effective	effective	ineffective	Very ineffective
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7. Briefly explain your reasons for the rating in 6 above.

8. Do you ever encounter language-related difficulties when you teach?

Yes		No	
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9. If you answered yes in 8 above, briefly explain what type of problems you encounter.

10. How do you resolve problems that are related to language if they occur?

Thank you for taking time to respond to this questionnaire.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

5. This questionnaire is intended to get your views on what needs to be done in order to promote indigenous African languages as languages of learning and teaching in schools.
6. Please answer all the questions in this questionnaire.
7. Instructions on how to answer each question are given along with the question.
8. All information given will be treated with the strictest confidence, so do not write your name or the name of your institution in this questionnaire.

QUESTIONS

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

The following set of questions requires biographical information from you. Kindly put a tick in the appropriate box.

Field of expertise	Teacher Education	Language/Linguistics
	Other (please specify)	

Teaching Experience	0-9years	10-19years	20-29years	30+
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The following questions require your views related to the impact of language on learning and teaching

1. Do you ever experience language related challenges when mediating learning?

Yes		No	
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2. If you ticked yes in no. 1 above, briefly describe the type of challenges you encounter?

3. What, in your opinion, do you regard as the cause/s of these challenges?

4. What do you think needs to be done in the schooling system to ensure that these challenges are addressed before learners reach post-school education?

5. In your view, can promoting the use of the learners' home language for learning and teaching in schools help in alleviating these challenges? Kindly give a brief reason for your view.

6. What do you think needs to be done in order to promote the learners' home language into a language of learning and teaching in schools?

Thank you for taking time to respond to this questionnaire.

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QUESTIONS USED TO GUIDE THE FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS

1. Briefly explain your experiences you have had in learning the subjects in your field of study.
2. Are there any challenges which you have experienced with any of subjects in your field of study?
3. To what extent, do you think the challenges you have mentioned are related to the language of teaching and learning?
4. Would you appreciate it if your home language was used for teaching and learning?
5. What do you think needs to be done to promote using the home language for teaching and learning?