

**THE LINGUISTIC OBSTACLES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN  
A BILINGUAL CLASSROOM**

by

Freedom Nkanyiso Makhathini

(20051172)

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Arts, University of Zululand in Fulfilment of the  
requirements for the degree of

**Doctor of Philosophy (D. Phil) in Applied Linguistics**

Date of submission: 2019

Promoter: Dr E.M. Mncwango

Co-Promoter: Prof C.T. Moyo

---

---

## **DECLARATION**

I declare that ***THE LINGUISTIC OBSTACLES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN A BILINGUAL CLASSROOM*** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

This research report has not been previously submitted in part or in full for any other degree to another university.

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to the following people without whom the study would never have been a success.

- God Almighty.
- My family.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

My gratitude and appreciation go to the following people who contributed in different ways towards the completion of this study

- Dr Elliot Mthembeni Mncwango, for all the supervision, support, dedication, humour and constructive linguistic criticism in all aspects of this work, for without your suggestions and supervision, this thesis would never have been a success. Your supervision is sincerely acknowledged;
- Professor Cromwell Themba Moyo: your professional linguistic input in this work is much appreciated. Your moral support, encouragement and dedication made me realise my academic potential; and
- I acknowledge the role which was played by the isiZulu and English language teachers, HoDs, school principals and bilingual learners in the FET phase of the King Cetshwayo District schools for different roles which they played in the completion of this work.

## ABSTRACT

This thesis looks at language as an instrumental, linguistic tool which, if taught by qualified language teachers could yield better results in the analysis and interpretation of both literary and non-literary texts in academia and in social lives of language speakers. The everyday linguistic practices in a bilingual classroom require grammatical, syntactic and sociolinguistic aspects when engaged in teaching and learning. This study draws on research findings from a mixed-research approach through the use of both language teachers and language learners as participants in this study. The findings of this study are drawn from both the teachers' and the learners' experiences on grammar teaching and learning for academic and social purposes. The findings indicate the urgent need for a pure linguistic pedagogy for language teachers in the study of grammar in the rural classroom setting.

In the current teaching and learning of language, this study discovered that there is a lack of resources to teach and to learn grammar. Problems with the exposure to non-standard varieties of both English and isiZulu language which impact the study of language in structure, analysis and use, the teaching of language by non-language teachers, too much classroom focus on literature without knowledge of linguistic structure by both language teachers and bilingual learners of language leave language teaching and learning crippled. As a result of these problems, learners experience difficulties in using language for both academic and social purposes, problems with reading, writing and speaking at both secondary and tertiary level, in both their L1 and through their L2. As argued by de Klerk (1992), Rudwick (2004), Pretorius and Matjila (2004), Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004), Alimi (2011), Jawahar and Dempster (2013) and Palviainen and Mard-Miettinen (2015), there is a serious shortage of language specialists as opposed to literature specialists, as a result, language teaching and learning are negatively influenced. A questionnaire containing the qualitative data of the teachers and learners and open-ended questions were used during interviews to elicit the needed information. Themes are discussed focusing on the role of the language teacher and problems which arise during classroom language teaching and learning. This study looked at the linguistic obstacles to language teaching and learning in a bilingual classroom and recommended that language teaching should be objective and must focus on grammatical and communicative

forms of a language before literature is taught. This will help in the authentic linguistic analysis of any given text when knowledge of structure and discourse analysis is known by a learner.

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

In this study, the following linguistic terminology was used for the purpose of this study.

The term **language** is used to refer to the study of linguistic units that make up speech, both written and spoken. It refers to the structure of a language.

**Literature** refers to the literary texts such as the poetry, novels, short stories, etc.

**Language teacher** refers to the skilled personnel trained in the structure and grammar of a language.

**Language learners** refer to the learners of a language found within the school premises ready to learn a language.

**Bilingual learners** refer to the learners of a language who are skilled to listen, speak, read and write in two languages.

**Bilingual teacher** refers to the language teacher who has knowledge of more than one language and is in a position to teach those languages.

**Bilingual classroom** refers to the classroom full of learners who are bilingual, that is, are in a position to communicate using two or more languages.

**Bilingual rural classroom** is used to refer to the classroom situation where teaching and learning takes place in a rural setting with learners who are bilingual.

**Linguistic obstacles** refer to any language component which can hinder progress in the teaching and learning of language.

**Language teaching** refers to the formal and informal instruction of language to the learners.

**Language learning** refers to the formal and informal learning of language by the learners.

**Grammar** refers to the rules which govern the use of language for both social and academic purposes.

**IsiZulu/Zulu Language** is the language of the Zulu people which is studied as a subject in the FET phase in South African public/government schools.

**FET Phase** refers to the level of studying in the South African schools between Grades 10-12.

**LoLT** refers to the Language of Learning and Teaching.

## Table of Contents

Declaration.....	i
Dedication.....	ii
Aknowledgements.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Definition of Terms.....	v
<i>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND.....</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>1.1 Chapter Introduction .....</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>1.2 Theoretical Framework .....</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>1.3 Statement of the Problem .....</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>1.4 Research Questions and Objectives of the Study .....</i>	<i>8</i>
<i>1.5 Research Hypothesis.....</i>	<i>9</i>
<i>1.6 Intended Contribution to the Body of Knowledge .....</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>1.7 Chapter Summary.....</i>	<i>11</i>
<i>CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....</i>	<i>13</i>
<i>2.0 Chapter Introduction .....</i>	<i>13</i>
<i>2.1 The South African Language in Education Policy (LieP).....</i>	<i>19</i>
<i>2.2 The Teaching of Grammar to Bilingual Children .....</i>	<i>29</i>
<i>2.3 Bilingual Language Teaching and Learning Styles (methods) .....</i>	<i>43</i>
<i>2.4: Bilingual Education and Language Practices in South African Schools .....</i>	<i>49</i>
<i>2.5 Literacy Development through Bilingual Education .....</i>	<i>53</i>
<i>2.5.1 Play as a Teaching Strategy for Literacy Development .....</i>	<i>56</i>
<i>2.5.2 Grammar Teaching as a Method for Literacy Development .....</i>	<i>58</i>
<i>2.5.3 Bilingual Teaching and Learning of English Grammar in Schools.....</i>	<i>62</i>
<i>2.6 The Linguistic Obstacles to Bilingual Language Teaching and Learning .....</i>	<i>68</i>
<i>2.6.1 Teaching Materials.....</i>	<i>75</i>
<i>2.6.2 Linguistic Challenges to Bilingual Classrooms .....</i>	<i>79</i>
<i>2.6.3 The Teaching of Language by non-Language Teachers .....</i>	<i>83</i>
<i>2.6.4 Attitudes towards Grammar Teaching and Learning .....</i>	<i>86</i>
<i>2.6.5 Teachers' Attitudes towards Grammar Teaching.....</i>	<i>91</i>
<i>2.7 The Language Teaching and learning Situation in other African Countries .....</i>	<i>92</i>
<i>2.8 Analysis of Errors in the Teaching of Grammar.....</i>	<i>94</i>
<i>2.9 Chapter Summary.....</i>	<i>96</i>

<i>CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</i> .....	97
3.1 Chapter Introduction .....	97
3.2 Methods of Data Collection .....	98
3.2.1 Sampling of the Participants .....	99
3.2.2 The Use of Questionnaires in this Study .....	99
3.2.2.1 Advantages of using Questionnaires .....	100
3.2.2.2 Disadvantages of using Questionnaires .....	101
3.3 The use of Interviews in this Study .....	102
3.3.1 Advantages of using Interviews .....	102
3.3.2 Disadvantages of using Interviews .....	102
3.4 The Use of a Recording Device in the Study .....	103
3.5 Ethical Considerations .....	103
3.6 Chapter Summary .....	103
<i>CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION</i> .....	104
4.1 Chapter Introduction .....	104
4.2 The Presentation of Data .....	104
4.2.1 Questionnaires .....	105
4.2.2 Interviews .....	106
4.2.3 The Recording Device .....	106
4.3 General Findings of the Study .....	106
4.3.1 The Academic Gap and Socio-Economic Aspects .....	107
4.3.2 Teacher's Knowledge of Grammar .....	110
4.3.3 Teaching Media .....	112
4.3.4 School and Classroom Contexts .....	112
4.3.5 Parental Involvement .....	114
4.3.6 Teacher Challenges .....	115
4.3.7 Motivation to Learn Language .....	117
4.3.8 Reading and Writing Problems .....	119
4.3.9 Lack of Resources/Teaching Aids to teach and assess Language .....	120
4.3.10 Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) .....	121
4.3.11 Learner Challenges .....	122
4.4 The Interpretation of Data .....	123
4.4.1 The Academic Gap and Socioeconomic Status .....	125
4.4.2 Language Teacher's Knowledge of Grammar .....	126

4.4.3 Teaching Media .....	128
4.4.4 School and Classroom Contexts.....	129
4.4.5 Parental Involvement .....	130
4.4.6 Language Teaching and Learning Challenges .....	131
4.5 Discussion .....	132
4.6 Chapter Summary.....	134
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION and RECOMMENDATIONS .....	135
5.1 Chapter Introduction .....	135
5.2 Research Questions answered.....	135
5.3 Limitations of the Study.....	136
5.4 Research Conclusion .....	137
5.5 Recommendations for Further Research .....	140
5.6 Conclusion .....	141
REFERENCE LIST.....	143
APPENDIX A: LETTER FOR CONDUCTING RESEARCH .....	167
APPENDIX B: PROJECT REGISTRATION .....	167
APPENDIX C: RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	167

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND**

### **1.1 Chapter Introduction**

Harley (2010) defines language as the communication of thoughts and feelings through a system of arbitrary signs such as voice, sounds or gestures and asserts that the system includes rules for combining its components such as words. Language is primarily a system for communication. The main purpose of using language is to transfer information from one person to another. The study of language is of crucial importance to humanities, because it helps address issues of societal concern, issues such as the use and the misuse of languages in the public sector as well as in the education system. The focal point is the teaching of English in the education system and the impact it has on general education and training. The South African education system is characterised by learners who are unable to speak, read and write and by teachers who struggle to teach language (grammar).

The South African community is confronted with the disappointing Grade 12 examination results of learners annually, whose home language is an African language. These results reflect the inequalities in African society as far as language is concerned (Postma & Postma, 2011). Central to the debate of language teaching are pertinent issues related to the choice of using English as a Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) which contributes to the general difficulties experienced in most public schools by both teachers and learners, difficulty in using English as LoLT, (Rudwick, 2004).

The English language classrooms are dominated by the teaching of poetry, novels and short stories, moving away from basic grammar teaching. Webb (2002) is of the view that to many Black people, English is the language that symbolises civilisation and education. Speaking English is regarded as a sign of being educated. The role of English language is pivotal in academia. It is either a facilitator of academic work or a barrier to those who cannot comprehend information presented in English, both in academic development and in assessment of learners' work. De Klerk (1992) argues that knowledge of linguistics provides the necessary theoretical framework for the presentation of any language, and that contemporary linguistics, with its emphasis on

language in society and culture provide the teacher with important insights into the teaching of language. This assertion by the author implies that a teacher trained in linguistics is the best teacher to teach grammar of a language. The current situation in public schools today highlights the need for language-related research in order to present issues in a complex multi-lingual country, which are linguistic in nature, issues which impede the language learning in the classroom in various ways. This research presents the linguistic obstacles to language teaching and learning in schools and recommends an alternative for a language teaching and learning atmosphere conducive to learning.

The everyday language teaching in schools is overwhelmed by second language learning of English by first language speakers of isiZulu and these learners do not have intuitive mastery of the English, both grammatical and semantic systems, as a result, they are making errors. The academic role of a language teacher is to be in a position to detect these language errors, explain them, and try to remedy the problems. It is, however, noted that most teachers in the mainstream schools are unable to detect, explain how the errors ought to be corrected, remedy the situation which is why most learners who have passed their matriculation cannot read and write. This is seen through a number of first year students who are admitted in some universities who cannot speak, read and write correct grammatical sentences in both isiZulu and English. It is, therefore, an open secret that the current teaching and learning of English in public schools of the King Cetshwayo district is not helping the learners master the grammar of both English and isiZulu.

De Klerk (1992) highlights the classroom situation in the teaching of English as worse. She argues that when one looks at the type of language teaching which takes place in our schools, one becomes aware of how few teachers know anything about linguistic approaches to language teaching. Knowledge of linguistics to language teaching is very crucial for the teacher to understand the sociolinguistic background of the learners in the classroom and to have a complete idea of why learners make the language mistakes which they make. De Klerk (1992:84) postulates that:

A teacher trained in linguistics would recognise that errors of

concord, aspect and tense predominate here. The relative pronoun also poses problems. In order to provide a good explanation of such aspects of the language, the teacher needs a thorough understanding of the reasons for the errors. To write "meaningless" next to the errors or simply to underline them will not achieve much.

This research is important to language study, because it highlights the importance of grammatical analysis in the teaching of English to first language speakers of indigenous African languages and it highlights the need for language teachers to incorporate a linguistic component in their language expertise, so that they develop their skills in linguistic analysis of both literary and non-literary texts. This research helps language teachers to acquire awareness of the whole linguistic system so as to be in a position to provide linguistic or grammatical explanations of the language errors which learners make in both their written and spoken work. Knowledge of linguistics for a teacher teaching language helps in the identification of language varieties in both L1 and L2. This helps especially in a class with learners from different linguistic backgrounds. Most of these language teaching and learning problems are as a result of English teachers who have little or no grounding in English language studies (grammar), but on literature.

De Klerk (1992:93) argues that: "...in education there is a serious shortage of language specialists (as opposed to literature specialists)." It is then my belief that any language teacher/instructor should be aware and be in a position to analyse and explain language structures, meaning of a given phrase or sentence as well as the sound patterns of a language in order to easily transfer language skills to the learners. Learners' mastery of the communicative process, both speech and writing depends on the ability of an instructor or teacher to explain, analyse and interpret literary and non-literary texts with competence and focus, paying attention to the individual needs of the learners, such as culture, linguistic background, language barriers, ambiguities that may occur, because of L1 interference to L2, language teaching styles or strategies, language misuse inside the classroom such as the teaching of language by teachers who do not have qualifications to teach language, and many other factors that may cause disturbance to successful language teaching and learning in the classroom. This research addresses the significant need for language teachers to be

trained in linguistics and how the barriers or obstacles to language teaching and learning could be avoided or minimised with that approach. This study addresses how grammatical structures of a language ought to be facilitated accordingly in order to harvest better results in the teaching and learning of a language.

## **1.2 Theoretical Framework**

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is described by O'Donnell (2011) as an approach to language teaching and learning developed in the 1960s by Halliday. The author argues that Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) explores how language is used in social contexts to achieve communicative goals. In terms of data, it does not address how language is processed or represented within the human brain, but rather looks at the discourses we produce (whether spoken or written), and the contexts of the production of these texts. It is then on the basis of this theory that linguistics knowledge is crucial in language teaching and must be used as a crucial tool which language teachers ought to have in their language teaching.

The theoretical outline employed in this study is systemic functional linguistics as described by Halliday and Martin (1993), Eggins (2004) and Martin and Rose in 2007. In his model of the systemic functional linguistics perspective, Halliday and Martin highlight the idea that social context is realised by language and that it is stratified, with ideology being realised through genre which itself is realised through register. In their declaration, they (Halliday & Martin, 1993) posit that an elaborate model in which language, life, the universe and everything can be viewed in communicative terms, that is, learners must know all four English language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) before they reach matriculation. Knowledge of language is the major vehicle for the dissemination of the present century's knowledge; which is why a good foundation should be built in the teaching and learning of language. This could be realised if language is taught by qualified language teachers who have both linguistic and literature component in their language teacher training.

A systemic Functional approach helps one to focus on meaningful choices in language (e.g., active vs. passive, direct vs. indirect; formal vs. informal...) without needing to

think of the particular structure that realises It (provided that the structure was learnt and mastered) O'Donnell (2011:5). The author further argues that the theory (SFL) also stipulates that 'meaning implies choice' and if there is no alternative but to do something, then it is not meaningful. The reverse is also believed to be true: if there is a choice in any context, then that choice is meaningful. For an example, lexically we have a choice between a 'robot' and a 'traffic light', a 'cop' and a 'police officer' in a South African English context. The use of the first words is useful and it explains to the reader or listener that the conversation is informal and it may also say something about the socio-cultural background of the speaker. It is on the basis of this theory that language learning becomes an essential aspect in our education as it provides thoughtful insights and understandings of social phenomena. It is through proper understanding and conducive facilitation of language that other subjects in schools can be easily taught and mastered. It is on the basis of this theory that language teaching and learning be centralised in such that linguistic knowledge serves as a conducive vehicle in language teaching and learning.

### **1.3 Statement of the Problem**

About 80% of South African school children are underperforming and come from disadvantaged high poverty schools, where early literacy is taught in an African language (Grades 1-3) and where an African language is taught as a subject from Grade 4 to 12. The teaching of literacy skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing require a more advanced, academic knowledge of a language than basic interpersonal communicative competence in a language. This is the knowledge which language teachers should have, so that they will understand linguistic dilemmas which learners possess (Pretorius & Mokhwesana, 2009). Knowledge of linguistics may help in the identification, classification and with an ability to come-up with a correct remedy to the learners' language problems.

In the African continent the majority of African children start school using a foreign language. The language is foreign in a sense that it has no African roots and is used as a Second Language (L2) by learners, and in most schools it is an L2 to most teachers. Across Africa the notion continues that the global languages of wider

communication, which includes Arabic, English, French, Portuguese and Spanish, are the only means for upward economic mobility, as a result, learners are left with no option but to study them as subjects and use them as languages of instruction, teaching and learning in schools. Morrow, Jordaan and Fridjhon (2005) argue that in rural schools of Kwa Zulu-Natal, both English and the learners' home language are used for instructional purposes, possibly with greater use of the home language. Teachers are bilingual/multilingual and there are only L2 English learners in the classes. The learners have limited access to English outside school and schools are poorly resourced. Since bilingual education is a norm to these schools, I propose that the teaching of language should be done with consideration of the sociolinguistic backgrounds of the learners and the teachers are knowledgeable with the linguistic causes of poor language development to these learners. Poor socioeconomic conditions and under-resourcing of many public schools in KwaZulu-Natal are followed by an unsupported shift to English where learners are unable to comprehend both written and spoken English text, and teachers being poorly trained in language, both in English and in isiZulu, leaving the whole education system crippled.

It is evident in many public schools that there is little or no school-parent links where parents have a significant role to the literacy of their learners, since most are uneducated and have no knowledge of classroom conduct. Teachers do not assess learners' language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), as a result they cannot monitor learners' progress in language learning and they cannot help and identify struggling learners. For a successful literacy development in schools there must be a collaboration amongst teachers within and across grades on issues related to language learning and teaching (Pretorius & Mokhwesana, 2009).

Freeborn (1993) as quoted by Mkhathshwa (2007: 2) argues that the way we learn a second language after we have already learned our first, will differ from the way we learned the first one, because knowledge of our first language is bound to affect our learning of the new language, in helpful ways (mastery of communication skill) and unhelpful ways (total dwindling of the learning outcomes). It is for this reason that I am of the view that learners of English need at least a basic idea of how language is structured and used, for example, certain grammatical or functional categories, the

ability to recognise formulaic expressions and some notions of register when learning about language.

Okombo (2000) as quoted by Mkhathshwa (2007:4) argues that:

ordinarily we tend to use a language we already know as a model for trying to understand the nature of an unfamiliar language; the building of linguistic constructions and the units used are not always readily obvious to the observer; we often need to make some effort to identify them; languages are different not only in the techniques they use for building constructions, but also in the kind of elemental units they use to build them.

In South African schools, mostly public schools, learners learn English in schools and they leave it in schools, and at homes they speak their first/home languages. This is also true to many language teachers whose first/home language is not English. This then creates a situation where the language of teaching and learning (English) is nobody's home language, while fluency is needed for the mastery of the content in other school subjects in order for the learner to progress to the next grade/phase. It could then be argued that in situations like these, mastery of English is not easy, especially if both teachers and learners are struggling with the use of English. This is supported by a study which was conducted by Rudwick (2004), where both teachers and learners showed difficulty with the use of English in schools. Language structures in most public schools are not taught, since most teachers are struggling with sentential and linguistic analysis and use of written language. Teachers need to teach language, because language is fundamental in the learning to mastery process. Language skills which include reading, writing, listening and speaking need to be in place and be taught appropriately so that learners learn and acquire linguistic skills which are essential in their academic journey.

Oder (2014:489) argues that there is a serious language teaching and learning problem in most public schools. The author postulates that:

although teachers are theoretically aware that they should encourage the students' awareness of their potential for successful EFL learning, they lack the competence to do so

and thus consider it safer to have a teacher-dominated classroom instead.

The problem with the current language teaching and learning in public schools today is that the focus of teaching is largely on literature, while the language part is ignored and the learners are left hopeless, without language skills, speechless, isolated and unattended. This is a positive sign that possibly indicates that traditional beliefs about the grammar-dominated classroom may have started to disappear. Grammar is not taught. Teachers believe that learners will acquire grammar along the way. This is not fruitful in language teaching, since learners will lack structure of a language. This kind of grammar teaching does not help the learners gain competency in language, but leaves them with more language problems which are not easy to solve especially at adult stage. This could be a result of teacher training which focused on literature teaching with little or no language (grammar) focus. This hampers the wider teaching and learning of other subjects which are taught through the medium of English. Learners do not know the structure of the LoLT, because they are not taught and there is no one to teach them of any structure. This is why there is a lack of linguistic competence among first-year students in tertiary institutions.

#### **1.4 Research Questions and Objectives of the Study**

Language is fundamental and central to the whole teaching and learning process. There seems to be an indication that language skills among first year students are problematic and cause limitations to the mastery of an academic text written in English. This is alarming particularly to those learners who graduated from public schools which are well-thought-out to be deep rural schools. The language mistakes, which these learners make, have a direct link to their First Language (L1); as a result, their communicative language use is problematic and need remedial consideration.

It is evident, through the matric pass rate where most public schools are doing worse in English language and through the inability for most first-year students to use language with competence. This is a clear indication that both teachers and learners are struggling with the teaching and learning of language in schools.

The main research question was:

- What are the linguistic obstacles to language teaching and learning in a bilingual classroom in Grades 10, 11 and 12 in the King Cetshwayo district in Kwazulu Natal?

The sub questions were:

- What are the teachers' beliefs about the teaching of English grammar in schools?
- What contributes to poor language use among learners in most public schools in the King Cetshwayo district?
- What are the ways that can be implemented to improve the teaching and learning of English in Grades 10, 11 and 12 in secondary schools in the King Cetshwayo district?
- What are the linguistic causes of grammatical incompetency to both learners and teachers which is evident in most public schools in the King Cetshwayo district;

For this reason, the objectives were:

- To identify the obstacles to teaching and learning of English in a bilingual Grade... classroom in King Cetshwayo district?
- To find the linguistic causes of grammatical incompetence to both learners and teachers which are evident in most public schools in the King Cetshwayo District; and
- To investigate the sociolinguistic barriers/causes of written and spoken language incompetency of second language learners and teachers of English in the King Cetshwayo district.
- To find ways to improve the teaching and learning of English in the King Cetshwayo district.

This study helped me understand the reasons why the English language (grammar) is not taught and neglected in most public schools. In order to arrive at the core of the problem, the following research questions were asked.

## **1.5 Research Hypothesis**

Litosseliti (2010:52) uses an example of acquisition onset debate in second language acquisition research as a good example to understand the concept hypothesis. In

second language acquisition (L2) one may develop a particular hypothesis, such as 'second language learning becomes more difficult the older a learner is'. In a qualitative approach, we use these hypotheses to develop a methodology that enable us to support – ideally to prove – their correctness or incorrectness.

It is my hypothesis that the teaching and learning of language in most public schools need transformation, a transformation that will help learners achieve or gain mastery of the language without any hardships. The needed transformation will assist the language teachers understand, explain, analyse and teach language with self-confidence, dedication and focus. The situation nowadays in public schools is worse. There are quite a number of role players to this unprincipled language teaching saga. This includes teacher unions, parents, teachers, school governing body (SGB), clueless principals, employment in terms of qualifications, unruly teachers and the ever-changing teaching policy documents every five years. But for the purpose of this study I highlight the linguistic factors that contribute to this language teaching debate. These linguistic factors include language teaching by any teacher without language teaching qualifications, language teaching by qualified literature teachers who do not have language expertise in their teaching qualifications, language teaching by teachers who have no understanding of English language as a subject in school, and mostly these teachers are put by the school management team (SMT) to teach in Grades 8 and 9. This action hampers language teaching and learning in the FET phase in public schools in its entirety.

The serious problem to language teaching and learning in most public schools is that of literal translation from isiZulu to English during English language teaching. Learners are not introduced to reading from the early stages; learners cannot speak and write grammatically correct sentences in both their academic and non-academic use of the language. Linguistic analysis of the academic text remains a challenge to both learners and teachers. This study addressed these issues and gave ways to remedy the current situation.

## 1.6 Intended Contribution to the Body of Knowledge

Language learning in schools is aimed at communication/addressing linguistic shortcomings of the learners and focuses on ways to remedy the situation, since it impedes total learning of a language and of other school subjects. The most essential thing in language studies is the skill of using the language proficiently. It is a general belief that learners will develop the correct use of the language through long-term practice. This is achieved when learners have developed competency in language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The language that is used at home helps in the mastery of content that is learned in schools. This is supported by the Department of Basic Education (2010) when they argue as follows:

In acquiring new knowledge, the pupil shall proceed from previously acquired knowledge and shall construct his or her knowledge on the basis of the new information. The acquired knowledge shall be implemented in new situations, for resolving problems, making choices, discussing the correctness of arguments, providing supporting evidence for his or her arguments and in the course of further studies. (National Curriculum for Basic Schools 2010: 4).

This study gave guidance and served as an eye opener to linguistic use of language in schools and how a situation where there is a complete absence of grammar teaching could be mended for quality language teaching and learning. This study gave guidance on how languages of schooling in South Africa could be developed in such a way that they shed light on the academic needs of the society and any other linguistic use of languages in education. This study helps in the identification of language use and misuse in public schools, and commend the best available remedy.

## 1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter introduced the study and gave insights to the ideologies on language teaching and learning in a bilingual context. Language being at the centre for knowledge production remains a crucial subject of research in the field. Therefore, in order to enable pure and moral academic practice in the field, any misuse of language in academia remains a researchable topic for the identification of linguistic obstacles

which are experienced during bilingual language teaching and learning. The next chapter presents literature based on the policies which underlie the teaching of language in a bilingual classroom. It addresses issues on language-in-education policy implementation in the bilingual language teaching and learning, and whether the language- in- education policy bears fruitful results during and after its implementation, and whether it is understood and correctly addressed to the teachers of language in secondary education.

## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.0 Chapter Introduction

Various academics are of the view that language misuse in the education system hampers the wider teaching and learning initiative. We refer to language as (i) text and system, (ii) sound, writing and wording, (iii) structure – configurations of parts and (iv) resource choice among alternatives. These are some of the different ways in which a language presents itself when we start to explore its grammar in functional terms: that is, from the standpoint of how it creates and expresses meaning (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2004:19). Rudwick and Parmegiani (2013) argue that multilingual education is not a reality in South Africa and overall little has changed in terms of language-in-education matters in the country. Kamwangamalu (2000) postulates that during the apartheid regime, South African society was divided into different ethnic groups which were according to two main factors, that is skin colour (race) and language. The language factor became marginalised by the English only curriculum, which even today is existing and is not helping most Black African learners as far as education is concerned. This is seen through a number of school drop-outs, who are Black Africans. This is a sign that the English-only policy favours those who are English and those who were lucky enough to master English.

IsiZulu is the first language (L1) of 23% of the South African population and is the most widely spoken African language in the country. The majority of Zulu speakers reside in Kwa Zulu Natal (KZN), where almost 80% of the residents are L1 speakers (Rudwick & Parmegiani, 2013). In a recent study conducted by Rudwick and Parmegiani (2013), it was found that isiZulu L1 speakers currently enrolling at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal (UKZN), who graduated from township and rural secondary schools (ex-Department of Education (DET) schools) often display weak literacy skills in both their mother tongue and English can be attributed to the poor quality of schooling. This is a clear indication that in most KZN government schools, the quality of teaching languages is very weak. This situation needs to be addressed as part of preventative measure to minimise the impact of inadequate language teaching. In most cases where teachers teach, they usually code-switch between English and isiZulu. This could be done for a number of reasons; one reason could be that code-switching is

probably the most natural pattern of speech in which fluent bilinguals conduct informal conversations. Simango (2011) argues that code-switching helps in the realisation and mastery of the lexical, morphological, syntactic, and pragmatic structures that underlie different linguistic systems. However, since each and every language is an integrated system with its own rules for word formation and phrase structure, I argue that sometimes code-switching, especially when it is done by someone not an expert in neither of the code-switched languages, may cause more harm to the psycholinguistic concept of a language being learned, since different languages have different linguistic structures, which is a case between disjunctive writing systems which includes languages like Afrikaans, English, sePedi, seSotho, seTswana, tshiVenda and xiTsonga and the conjunctive writing system, which includes the Nguni group (isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu and seSwati).

In the South African schools context, especially in schools where the learners' mother tongue is not English, reading and literacy problems tend to be masked by language proficiency issues. It is assumed that poor academic performance is caused by poor mother tongue proficiency. An assumption is that when learners have difficulty with using reading as a tool for learning then their comprehension problems are a product of limited language proficiency. This then leads to the idea that language proficiency and reading ability are closely interwoven (Pretorius, 2002:174). English in South African schools is used as a main language of teaching and learning in the FET phase with the exception of isiZulu as a subject. Learners are still struggling with literacy in most South African government schools. Poor academic literacy is a result of second language instruction where both teachers and learners are struggling with the use of English as an academic language for teaching and learning (Rudwick, 2004).

Words and sentence structures are combined in novel ways all the time through spoken and written language. Language is crucial in speech especially when we decode what other people say, when we listen and read, and extract the meaning and intended message apparently effortlessly. We study language in order to communicate. The most important part of knowing about language is knowing the written forms of the language; this includes the formation of words, which speakers of the language use when they communicate. It could, therefore, be argued that words

mean something; they are signs that stand for something. “Cat”, “chase”, “rat”, “truth”, “kick”, and “big” all refer to objects in the world, events, ideas, actions, or properties of things (Harley, 2010). This information is crucial to the study of language especially in the study of grammar. Teachers need to know about the formation of words and their meanings. This helps in the development of fluent speech by the learners and assist in the later stages of academic lives when learners are supposed to use language for various purposes in their lives, be it social or academic purposes.

One of the goals of sociolinguistics is to understand the correlation between social factors and linguistic variation and ordering of linguistic constraints with respect to variability of rules. While syntactic theory is concerned with the description of language as a property of the human brain and principles that can account for the grammatical constructions of a language in a homogeneous speech community (Bayley & Lucas, 2007). Teachers need to be able to support their learners’ learning and they themselves should be good models of the kind of teaching they are trying to promote. Smith (2001), for example, found that school mentors seem to have difficulty in describing their professional skills, no doubt, because their practical knowledge is part and parcel of their teaching.

Shohamy (2005) argues that teachers should not be considered servants of the system, but rather professionals and experts who are responsible and involved leaders in the education of the learners in schools. It is important that, in the teaching of the language, learners must be made the focus of teaching, which should involve the understanding of their needs and goals and acknowledging the diversity of learning styles. Language learning is not necessarily a direct consequence of good teaching, but depends on understanding different learning styles and motivations towards language teaching and learning.

Syntactic rules must be learned so that learners know why words should follow the pattern they follow. Learners need to be taught that grammar is used in a more general way to describe the complete set of rules that describe a language, primarily the syntax, how words can be made up, and even what sorts of sounds are permitted and how they are combined in a particular language. The linguistic structure of words and

sentences in different languages differs significantly. Consider the following example by Harley (2010:4) on how a simple sentence may be put to different structures on different languages.

The cat on the mat chased the giant rat. (English)  
Le chat qui était sur le tapis a couru après le rat géant.  
(French)  
Die Katze auf der Matte jagte die gigantische Ratte. (German)  
Il gatto sullo stoino inseguiva il topo gigante. (Italian)  
De kat op de mat joeg op de gigantische rat. (Dutch)  
Pisica de pe pres a sarit la sobolanul gigantic. (Romanian)  
Kot kto· ry był na macie, gonił ogromnego szczura. (Polish)  
A macska a szo"nyegen kergette az óriás patkányt.  
(Hungarian)  
Matto-no ue-no neko-ga ookina nezumi-o oikaketa.  
(Japanese)  
Ikati lihubhe igundane elikhulu kumata. (isiZulu) (my  
translation)  
Die kat op die mat het die groot muis gejag. (Afrikaans)(my  
translation).

It could then be argued that a language teacher must have knowledge of discourse analysis, knowledge of different structures within and across linguistic communities of the learners they teach, knowledge of psycholinguistics so that they understand how different structures of languages are comprehended and stored in the brain, knowledge of the varieties of language, in this case both English and isiZulu since the majority of learners in government schools in the King Cetshwayo District are isiZulu first language speakers. Teachers need to understand that languages which learners speak in the classroom, especially in a multilingual country like South Africa, differ in many ways. They differ in terms of the words they use (the vocabulary), the preferred order of words, the syntactic rules they use, the extent to and the way in which they inflect words to mark the grammatical role, the way grammatical units are combined, the sounds they use, and the ways in which they write words down.

Teachers need linguistic components in their study of language so that they will differentiate between linguistic structures of different languages and be in a position to highlight, explain and remedy errors, which are made by second language learners of English. Teachers are producers of knowledge. Cope and Kalantzis (2007) postulate that if education is to remain relevant to contemporary social needs and

personal dispositions, it needs to be flexible and forward thinking. It has to conceive schools as knowledge-producing communities and create in learners a sense that they themselves are knowledge producers. This helps in the development of self-esteem towards language learning in schools. Learners will develop the correct use of the language through long-term practice facilitated by a qualified language instructor. Communication competence is formed through the development of linguistic skills which are essential in the study of language. These embrace listening, reading, speaking and writing skills.

In the study of language, language teachers need to consider the use of games; songs and other interactive activities that are important in helping learners learn English. Language learning may be best facilitated through the use of role-plays help students to adjust their use of language to different social contexts and games that are real communicative events. Liao (2007) postulates that spoken language, with reading and writing being taught only after an oral base of lexical and grammatical forms has been established, with less attention being placed on grammatical rules in terms of their overt presentation. A study of this nature helps overcome the fear of language teaching by language teachers and give a clear guideline of the correct method to use when teaching language especially to a large numbers in the classrooms.

Issues of language teaching must be addressed in terms of accuracy, pronunciation, and the understanding of grammar rules must be well addressed in the classroom for a learning atmosphere conducive to learning. Language should be taught as a whole, and Perkins (2013:295) argues that the reading teacher needs to analyse, synthesise and evaluate these perspectives on reading and pitch them alongside the knowledge of teaching of children and of schools as an inseparable part of communities. This is because the same terms can be used to mean different ideas and to become a member of a discourse community means much more than learning the language, it also includes cultural aspects of a language. Further, Perkins (2013) argues that many teachers know nothing when it comes to the teaching of language (grammar). In addition, their experience (teachers) of reading and language teaching does not enable them to critique any model of reading given to them. This is a serious problem to the study of language. This raises concerns such as those highlighted by Rudwick

(2004) when she postulates the probability of the amount of language content which may be transferred from teacher to learner when both teachers and learners do not understand knowledge presented in English. If the linguistic analysis skill is missing from the teachers who teach language, there is very little or none that could be transferred to the learners. It is important that it is important that language teachers know the types of reading, writing and speaking experiences which their learners experience when learning a language. This helps the teacher understand the required knowledge, skills, resources and remedy which is relevant and effective in their journey towards language learning and academic excellence.

Most parents send their children to white schools with the hope that their children will receive good education in those schools. A study by de Klerk (2002:6) indicated that:

Most parents felt that English-medium schools offered their children more sport and cultural facilities, a 'more meaningful' education, free from the problems in Black schools, such as lack of discipline, high pupil numbers, poor facilities, 'toy-toying' and 'chaos'.

In simple language, they want to keep their children away from chaos in government schools, away from a high number of pupils in one class and they want their children to be disciplined. The quality of education in South African schools need a remedy, a remedy that will make sure that teaching competence is achieved and the quality of learning opportunities is provided for learners in order to practise linguistic skills which are essential in their other academic subjects. The education system needs quality education that will fulfil the learning outcomes for each subject and that will give the learning opportunities for learners in order to excel in their academic work.

The issue of policies in education tends to be both a linguistic and a political matter. This is in view of the fact that the ruling political party chooses the language for education. It is also a linguistic matter in the sense that the language that is used for educational policies and schooling is a linguistic concern to the general public and linguists as such. The concerns are that the prestigious language that is used as the language of teaching and learning is not the language of the majority of the learners and teachers in most of the government schools, and this leaves much concern when it comes to the actual implementation of the policy inside the classroom. It was

observed that the language policy is not implemented correctly neither in public nor state schools situated in rural communities.

The policy in question here is the Language in Education Policy in terms of section 3(4)(m) of the National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act 27 of 1996), with its primary focus on building a non-racial South Africa in terms of the linguistic groups that reside within the borders of the Republic of South Africa. It is meant to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour, which I think has not yet been achieved; the barriers of language as a linguistic concern as far as schooling in South Africa is concerned are neglected as a focal point. The purpose of the policy is to create an environment in which there is respect for languages other than one's own, and the use of English is spreading in all academic roles. This is an indication that the policy is not well implemented in schools where authentic language practice should take place.

Eighteen years (1997-2017) after this policy was adopted and implemented in the education system, schools are still poorly resourced and are not functioning in line with this policy. This is seen through a number of public schools that offer English as a home language to isiZulu first language learners who experience a psycholinguistic or mental block. Schools do not cater for other linguistic groups in their school policies, yet they function under this umbrella policy (sociolinguistic acculturation) and we see schools where cultural diversity is not promoted at the expense of a certain linguistic group (linguistic prejudice). We see schools that do not accept a certain religion inside their premises yet the preamble of this policy under clause (3) states that it facilitates communication across barriers of religion. This chapter focuses on the Language in Education Policy, (1997) and it dwells much on its functionality inside the classroom and assesses whether it is aptly treated and implemented and whether it is conducive to equal, multi-cultural language teaching in the current education system. The aim of this chapter is to shed light on linguistic issues which are of societal concern when it comes to issues of language education, especially in public or state schools situated in rural communities.

## **2.1 The South African Language in Education Policy (LieP).**

The language question centres on power issues, involving the elite class and the masses. The argument for an overt, English-driven policy is often based on the ground

that learners can compete internationally through the medium of English and can succeed if the structure is adequately rooted as early as the Foundation Phase. The policy accommodates the use of English in schools as a language of trade, business and academic life. However, the idea persists that if English language is poorly taught in schools, learners become tourists in class and are unable to converse and produce good writing which is at their level of study. This is as a result of poorly-trained teachers who teach language in a bilingual classroom, as it is the case in the King Cetshwayo district, where learners are taught in English and in isiZulu.

The focus here is on linguistic challenges that give rise to problems in the education system as a whole. Language learning shapes the learners' identity in various ways. By identity I mean how language users relate to the world through language(s) they use for various purposes and how they construct social and academic relationships through the use of language. This is because language learning and use in schools is seen as a kind of an investment in the learners' long academic journey if language is not adequately developed and mastered. Academic investment is crippled in various ways in this regard. I use the term investment here to draw attention to the serious need of an adequate language policy conducive to language teaching and learning that should cater for and emancipate the linguistic needs of the learners and the society in terms of language use. In its current form, the linguistic policy and rights are so problematic to many public schools, since most of their subjects are studied in isiZulu. Even English is studied in isiZulu in many public or state schools due to this language policy and the good command of English which is totally lacked by many teachers and learners in the mainstream schools.

Language policy can play a central role in enabling citizens of a country to participate in the political, educational, social and economic life of that country if it is implemented in such a way that it caters for the educational needs of the learners before the political ones. The language policy should function with the aim to communicate between government and citizens in such a way that the chosen language is free from cultural and semantic bias. Plessis and Pretorius (1999) as quoted by Desai (2010) are of the view that the language policy should be developed in such a way that it serves the purpose for enriching the academic lives of the learners as it should make room for serving the dominant language group of the wider community. It should be the

language used for laws and regulations governing the nation as a whole. Given the very poor learning conditions at most public or state schools in South Africa and the non-existence of a language-across-the-curriculum approach, the chances of fruitful language development are crippled by the language policy itself, since the majority of learners studying in most public or state schools are from rural areas and they do not have access to language resources more specifically English sources, and consequently they are struggling with their learning, not only language learning but also in other subjects as well.

A study conducted by Desai in 2010 revealed that learners are struggling to express themselves in English in Grade 4. The author postulates that:

Although there is an improvement in Grade 7, the learners' proficiency is nowhere near the requirements for using it as sole medium of instruction. And this after seven years of formal exposure to English. Learners have a very little bearing on the pictures. The 'story' aspect is completely lost in the English version. Spelling and grammatical errors abound. Sentences are generally very short. Samples show learners' difficulty in forming sentences. (Desai, 2010:330)

The language structure and its use for various purposes should be accommodated in schools for the proper implementation of the policy in question. Teachers need to revise a traditional method which focuses mainly on the structure of language, which is the structural approach. This could be of great help considering that most learners are struggling to learn other subjects in English as well.

Even though the communicative approach could be praised for its verbal role in the study of English, it is, however, noted that learners are struggling with the use of language structures accordingly. The structure of a language is important for the learners to converse with pride and confidence in their use of language for various purposes. The South African Language Policy has problems when it comes to its implementation in the classroom, since both the teachers and the learners in question lack structural control of both English and isiZulu languages. Among other issues which hinder successful language teaching and learning inside the classroom is the issue of infrastructure. Webb et al. (2010:274) postulate that:

...the education of Black learners was characterised by inadequate funding, ineffective teacher training, poor facilities, over-crowded classes, un-imaginative learning materials in the Bantu languages...

Learners do not have a choice when it comes to language choice inside the classroom. Learners accept what they are given, and they accept it without any critique. A strong preference for English as a medium of instruction by Black learners for whom English is a second language and who in the majority of cases do not have the required academic proficiency in English, plays a major part in learners' poor performance. This is also the case for teachers who teach them without any language qualification, and some without even language study in their qualifications. The public or state schools of South Africa are overwhelmed by overcrowded classes, poorly-trained teachers and the lack of the necessary educational facilities. These conditions make it highly impossible for language learning and teaching to take place accordingly. Webb et al. (2010:275) further mention the differences in schooling in the South African education system. It could be noted that all these schools follow the same Language in Education Policy of 1997, and there are significant gaps when it comes to the actual language teaching inside the classrooms. The schools in question here are rural schools, township schools and the ex-model C schools. The common problem identified in these schools is that the majority of the learners are struggling with proper language use. The author postulates that:

These are schools attended by Black learners which in the past were controlled by the former Department of Education and Training (generally known as DET schools) and by education departments in the so-called Bantustans (also called 'independent or self-governing homelands'). Today, the learners in these schools typically have very little knowledge of English, partly because they very seldom experience meaningful interaction with English speakers. The teachers at these schools are also said to have limited proficiency in English. These schools, which include farm schools, have very little funding available, and thus also have extremely poor educational facilities (Webb *et al.*, 2010:275).

It could then be argued that in the South African townships and the rural areas where the land is owned by chiefs (amakhosi), there are lots of problems which contribute to the existence of the current linguistic problems experienced in our education system.

Some of the problems include teacher absenteeism due to health related matters, poor teacher-learner ratio, as manifested in the large numbers of learners in one classroom. Such incidents encumber teaching and learning even if the teacher is a good and qualified one. The other contributing factor is that of poor resources (libraries, electricity, and water) in the rural and township schools. This has a bad impact on the provision of sanitation in the affected schools, as this leaves learners in a neglected state which influences their concentration and overall performance. The LiEP (1997) stipulates that learners have the right to learn and be taught in any one of the 11 official languages of the country. It is, however, noted that, due to the linguistic problems mentioned above, learners are introduced to the English language by teachers who also need training as far as English language is concerned. A study conducted by Rudwick (2004) revealed that both teachers and learners are struggling with the use of English in schools. This postulation makes one wonder as to how much knowledge is transferred from the teacher to the learner if both the learners and the teachers are struggling with the language of teaching and learning.

Ngcobo (2012) is of the view that the language policy can, therefore, be viewed as an ideological and political artefact which has been constructed within a particular historical and political context. It could be argued here that the contexts are not just locations where language policy production happens, but they are intricately involved in the production process itself. This is evident in a South African context where language variety plays a key role in identifying social, economic and ethnic group membership as witnessed in schools where language policy is not understood and never implemented, because nobody understands what it entails.

Despite the realities of the above practices, it is noted that Black South African learners are assessed only in English in all their subjects in schools, with the exception of isiZulu, even though they are still struggling with the command of the English language. Such a practice does not only cause a mental block to the learner's mind, but it also causes confusion and loss of hope in their academic endeavours. Because of these hindrances, learners who study in state schools find it difficult to compete with those who study or studied at good private schools where there were qualified teachers, better resourced schools with good learner- teacher ratios. The use of English as a language of teaching and learning in state schools poses a serious

problem to the teaching and learning of English, since learners find it difficult to demonstrate their understanding of subjects, since both the teachers and learners dispose of inadequate English proficiency.

Learners and teachers in most public schools of South Africa have limited grammatical, textual, functional and sociolinguistic competence when it comes to their use of English for both academic and social purposes. This argument is supported by Webb *et al.* (2010:284) when they postulate that:

Cognitive, affective and social development is, as we know, mediated (*inter alia*) through language, from which it follows that the higher the development of learners' linguistic skills, the higher their ability to acquire, process and use information. The linguistic skills required for educational development are, furthermore, high-level skills, involving command not just of a wide vocabulary and complex grammatical structures, but also textual knowledge (e.g., the ability to understand and produce academic texts), functional knowledge (e.g., the ability to compare and explain phenomena, to define and to reason at abstract levels).

Advanced cognitive and language skills are a necessity for creativity through language. Learners need their English grammar to be developed to such an extent that they are in a position to negotiate meaning, analyse both literary and non-literary texts without any difficulties. Since schools in South Africa differ considerably in their educational and linguistic needs, some are largely monolingual, others multilingual; and some are located in areas where English is practically a foreign language. Moreover, others are in areas where learners are exposed to English on a daily basis (Webb *et al.*, 2010:275). There is an urgent need for a linguistic solution to these linguistic problems which cripple the teaching of English in public schools. One solution to the problem would be that language should be taught by teachers of language and not just by any teacher. This is because language skills could be adequately developed when a learner has an understanding of the meaning of any given text, when a learner can analyse text structure, select the essential ideas across paragraphs, and write the ideas into a summary when vocabulary has been developed. This could be achieved through the teaching of grammar by grammar teachers.

The South African LiEP of 1997 explicitly promotes an additive approach to bilingualism (i.e. developing the home language together with the additional language, which is the language of learning and teaching (LoLT). Given that literacy, specifically reading and writing literacy, forms the backbone of academic achievement, it follows that if the education system is tasked to promote bilingualism, then it is equally tasked to promote biliteracy (Pretorius & Matjila, 2004). The act stipulates that all learners will take at least one approved language as a subject in Grade 1 and 2. From Grade 3 onwards, all learners will take their language of learning and teaching (LoLT) and at least one additional approved language as subject which is English in this case. Assessment standards are designed to develop competence in English skills, which embrace listening, speaking, reading and writing. Despite the good attempt to teach these language skills, it remains a challenge to assess these skills in a normal classroom that is overwhelmed by problems mentioned above (teacher absenteeism, poor teacher-learner ratio, and large numbers of learners in one classroom).

It could be argued that the reason that so many learners do not understand the books they have to read in school is that they are not adequately proficient in their LoLT, which is English in most public or state schools. English, being the language of the textbook in schools, remains a key for upward mobility to the learners. Pretorius and Matjila (2004:2) are of the view that language ability is necessary for reading but not sufficient; reading is a unique ability that must be acquired and practised through extensive exposure to written language. Even though there are differences between oral and written language, this does not imply that the one is better than the other. Both are equally important and used in different contexts and for different functions. When both are used accordingly, creativity through language will be developed in the learners. Like Rudwick (2004), Pretorius and Matjila (2004) are also of the same view that teachers and learners are struggling, not only with English but also with literacy in general (Pretorius & Matjila, 2004:16). The problem that many learners in public schools have today is not simply a language problem but is a literacy problem. Once learners have learned to read (i.e. decode), they are progressing towards attaining mastery of a text. This will help the learners to master other subjects as well without difficulties.

The situation in public schools today is that teachers assume that if learners can decode then they are good readers. Many schools do not give learners the support they need to make an effective transition from oral to written language, and from 'learning to read' to 'reading to learn'. This is because teachers themselves are struggling with language teaching (Rudwick, 2004). The situation is worsened for learners who also make the cross-over from mother-tongue to English as LoLT, and who have not yet developed appropriate reading skills in their primary language (Pretorius & Matjila, 2004:17). This is because learners are still learning both English and isiZulu and they have not been adequately taught about the rules of either of the above-mentioned languages.

Language skills form the foundation for success at school and these skills develop over time until learners attain mastery of these skills through motivation and proper language teaching by qualified teachers. The fact that learners enter high school with poor language skills is a suggestion that language skills are not properly rooted in the primary schools which these learners attended. De Wet (2002) argues that there is a perception that English as the language of learning and teaching is essential for economic empowerment in South Africa. Therefore, in South Africa, English dominates the educational landscape, and is viewed as a language which Probyn (2006:391) describes as 'the language of access and power.' The author further argues that because of the poor English proficiency in the majority of learners in townships and rural schools, and the language demands of English as the language of learning and teaching, this has resulted in many teachers resorting to teaching strategies as code-switching (Probyn, 2006). Code-switching, on the other hand, is a problematic way of teaching the English language, since the structure of the home language and that of the second language differs, for example, the word *umfundisi* in isiZulu could mean a 'pastor' or a 'teacher' depending on the tone of the speaker, while in English there is a clear distinction between the latter and the former. This leaves learners in a state of cramming.

English is the language of learning and teaching for subjects in schools; it appears that in subjects like Mathematics and Physical Sciences the language impairment contributes to unequal access to scientific literacy and it ultimately culminates in unequal life chances. Despite this, there is no indication that English could be

substituted with any indigenous language as the main language of learning and teaching in South Africa. Under this current language policy, the Language in Education Policy in terms of section 3(4)(m) of the National Education Policy Act, 1996 (act 27 of 1996), places a huge responsibility on the teachers' shoulders considering that learners have to master the English language before they learn scientific concepts, while simultaneously a significant number of South African teachers are not sufficiently proficient in English for effective teaching and learning in this medium (Jawahar & Dempster, 2013, Rudwick, 2004, Pretorius & Matjila, 2004).

The problem of Language Policy is not a South African problem only, even our neighbouring countries have a similar problem. The language policy for Swazi schools is to some extent confusing. Some policy documents state that siSwati is the language of instruction in the first three or four years, while English is introduced later (Tungesvik, 1998:2). Chimhundu (1997) holds that Zimbabwe has no explicit or written language policy. He continues: "...the official neglect of language issues in post-independence Zimbabwe is deliberate and can be explained in term of elitist rulership and fear of the unknown" (Chimhundu, 1997:129). Chimhundu describes Zimbabwe as a country where English is the dominating language of business, administration, politics and media. A government White Paper in Uganda (Government of Uganda, 1992:16) states that: "The mother tongue should be used as a medium of instruction in all educational programs up to Grade 4, from Grade 5 onward, English should become the medium of instruction." Nyquist, (1999) as quoted by Brock-Utne, (2001:127) postulates the Ugandan language problems are worse. The author provides a scenario where in Uganda learners' textbooks had been prepared by an American firm which had won the competitive bidding round even though the Institute for Curriculum Development in Uganda also had delivered their bid. This is a clear indication that in African states, education is not considered a priority, especially when it comes to language policy implementation. The situation in the Ugandan language policy is, according to Nyquist, 1999: 20) as quoted by Brock-Utne (2001:127) as follows:

Observations in primary schools showed that most of the teaching was done in English. The learning materials for the teachers and the learners were all in English, including teacher guides for mother tongue teaching. The teachers I spoke to said that they were told that English should be the

medium of instruction from P. 1 ... A teacher said: 'In this sub-county only few know English. This makes teaching in English hard, but because of the final exams we have to use English a lot (Nyquist, 1999: 20).'

The teaching approach itself should focus on issues of intercultural communication. That is, the focus should be that of creating a relaxed and supportive environment for language learning where learners should feel free to engage in classroom activities.

Since language planning assumes that there are some language problems that have to be solved in one way or another, the complex linguistic situation in South Africa cannot be adequately handled by centralised language planning alone (Kamwendo, 2006). Language planning must come with proper training of language teachers such as that learners, especially in public or state schools, are not disadvantaged when it comes to competition in the outside world. Since English dominates domains such as the mass media, education, the legislature, the judiciary, the army, administration and health, learners are at a considerable disadvantage when they are not properly skilled in a language that has economic significance, which is English, in the context of this study.

Even though South Africa is struggling when it comes to the implementation of a resourceful language policy where learners will attain linguistic skills without difficulties, South Africa is travelling on a rather bumpy road towards the implementation of a language rights-oriented language policy, the country, backed by its enormous resources, still remains Africa's best model and leader in language planning (Kamwendo, 2006:67). The language problem in secondary schools has an impact even on tertiary institutions. This is evident in higher education (HE) where quite a number of first year learners are struggling with the use of the English language and cannot speak in any given language despite English. Kaschula and Maseko (2009:132) argue that it has become evident that in the present environment, the South African professionals trained at university are perceived to operate and communicate ineffectively in a multilingual context, which becomes a barrier to adequate provision of services. A higher position in the communication hierarchy should be established as such that there are no communication breakdowns which may emanate from the language policy which is not supportive to the language

teaching and learning needs of both teachers and learners, as Early and Norton (2014) argue that:

Language education policies and practices, both pedagogical and assessment, should be informed by perspectives from interactional sociolinguistics which challenge the concept of language/s, as having 'fixed' boundaries between them...Community organisations, parents, educators, politicians and policymakers need to be better informed about the evidence-based understanding of the length of time required for learners to achieve levels of advanced L2 language and literacy for successful achievement in content area classrooms and the value of long term, 'strong' bi/plurilingual education in attaining those ends.

One may argue that the current teaching of English in schools is an indication to the lack of qualified language teachers in the secondary education sector. Teachers should be supported to become more aware of how language works in their subject areas and to design units of work and tasks that scaffold learners' academic language and content learning simultaneously. This will help learners master the skill of language use for various purposes.

Because of the linguistic problems when it comes to the implementation of the policy, it could be argued that the South African use and recognition of indigenous languages as official on the national level is an ideal goal of the policy, but, to be pragmatic about its use, the linguistic use of African languages in domains of national significance remains weakening, while English language dominates all academic and economic landscapes in the society. Even the speakers of African languages do not see any economic value in their African languages. This brings us to the hypothesis that language teachers need to be adequately trained in order to address the economic needs of the learners through English language. English grammar in particular needs to be taught in a more fruitful manner where English language (grammar) teachers are produced and trained to be effective in linguistics.

## **2.2 The Teaching of Grammar to Bilingual Children**

Due to urbanisation, industrialisation and migration brought about by the economy, the concept of mother tongue education in a South African classroom is becoming unclear.

It then becomes crucial for the learners to learn in a language that brings about economic change in their lives. It is for this reason that English language teaching, grammar in particular, needs to be precisely taught by teachers who have sound knowledge of linguistics. A focus on strategies and processes for a conducive language teaching is needed in order for bilingual learners to learn without any linguistic shortcomings since the learning text is presented in a language that is neither the teachers nor the learners mother tongue.

Bilingualism can be defined as the ability to speak two (or more) languages; this ability may range along a scale from native-like proficiency to basic communication skills in one or both languages (Bialystok 2001:7). Bilingual literacy narrates to the ability to communicate in two or more languages in or around written material (Hornberger 2008:173). Baker (2001:166) argues that there could be cognitive advantages to bilingualism. He postulates that bilingualism could lead to greater mental flexibility and the ability to think more abstractly, provided that language learning takes place in an enriched bilingual and bicultural environment.

According to Cummins (1981:21), successful acquisition and use of L2 in the school depends on the child's achievement of two sets of language skills: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS refer to informal colloquial language used by the child in everyday interaction and CALP refers to the formal, sophisticated command of language required for academic achievement. Cummins' thinking is very crucial in the South African classroom context where learners are bilingual and they learn classroom content in more than one language (through code-mixing and code-switching). A problem may result if the learner has not acquired conceptual knowledge in L1, which will put concept formation in L2 at risk. This is why the argument here is that learners must be taught a structure of a language before they are introduced to concepts. If the linguistic structure is mastered, it will become easier for the learner to master concepts of any subject without difficulties. It could, therefore, be argued that the use of books, magazines and newspapers, educational radio and television in the home, as well as school may increase chances for a successful L2 language learning, provided that there is enough support for a learner to use them.

Teachers who are proficient in the LoLT have been trained in language pedagogy; positive teacher-learner ratios and who have knowledge of the structure of English language and the learner's language are more likely to excel in their teaching. This is likely to be fruitful, because there will be limited barriers to language teaching. Manyike (2013:201) argues that:

A language enriched home environment in which L1 is developed, respected and maintained irrespective of parental school choice and the LoLT is fundamental. General daily exposure to L1 and L2 in context demanding situations is necessary to continue to support bilingualism.

The teaching of English to learners who possess two or more language systems is crucial for the development of grammar and for communication purposes in English, since the world of work requires one to be proficient in English. In a mainstream school, learners learn language, English in particular, for various purposes; one of them is to attain structural control of a language so that they are in a position to use language accordingly. In bilingual education contexts learners are presented with lessons and study material in more than one language.

Considering the role of language proficiency in general, the role of language proficiency in academic literacy can be obtained by shifting investigations to learners, who use the various languages at their disposal to mediate complicated academic content. This could be done by realising the status of English in academia, as van der Walt and Dornbrack (2011:90) argue that:

One of the first changes made after democratic rule in South Africa was the transformation of the language policy to recognise all 11 languages as official. However, this does not mean that they have equal status or that they have been equally implemented in all spheres of public life. What has happened in South Africa, as in many countries in the world, is that English has become more powerful and entrenched.

If learners are to achieve academically, socially and professionally, the linguistic and cultural capital they bring with them needs to be recognised and valued. This could be easily done through the training of grammar teachers to teach both the learners' first language and English. By so doing, learners will be more likely to have the competence to engage in the academic society and use language accordingly for

various purposes in life. Both literary and non-literary language used in aesthetic, imaginative and engaging ways have considerable potential to extend the learning of bilingual learners in schools.

Teachers of the English language need to understand the cultural, linguistic and cognitive dimensions involved in the study of English by bilingual learners in order to design pedagogies that effectively support language learning for bilingual learners. This could be conducive enough if language teachers are introduced to linguistics before they study teaching methods. Such action could help language teachers understand why learners make the errors which they do, and it can cast light on where those errors come from. The study of a linguistic structure provides learners with the opportunity to question rules, play with language and start to understand the complexity and nuance of deeper word knowledge.

In the study of language, the language of literature could be of great help if it is used in such a way that it provides learners with the opportunity to question rules, play with language and start to understand the complexity and nuance of deeper word knowledge. Stories, images, rhymes and melodies are at the core of our cultural identity and a child can form a deep connection with the wealth of linguistic appreciation and jargon. It is important because it actively promotes a process of interpretation which encourages a pleasurable interaction with and negotiation of its meaning (van der Walt & Dornbrack, 2011).

The ability of bilingual learners to understand demanding literary texts requires different forms of instruction than the forms that are successful in teaching isolated language skills (Cummins, 2001:65). It is through structural language teaching that learners could understand the roles of different varieties of language and understand both the local and global language use. Learning the structure of a language encourages bilingual learners to understand the productivity of a language, as they energetically make meaning and enter dialogues in that particular language, English in this case. Palviainen and Mard-Miettinen (2015) are of the view that teachers have an agentive role as they interpret, evaluate and develop language policies and practices. As they do so, they help the learners understand and interpret any given text, provided that the structure of the language has been developed. Teachers' reflections on second language teaching are regarded as being a critical element in

their professional conduct. They must teach. It is sometimes not clear even to themselves as to what and how they should teach language structure if they were not even taught in their training about language structure.

Since language is culturally linked, the teacher's own personal experiences may be crucial to their family and childhood, pedagogical training, other work experiences, language skills, emotional and philosophical orientations, attitudes to bilingualism, and cultural identity issues, for instance. And these have an impact on the study of grammar in schools. The impact is severely seen at matric when learners' results prove that they have no clear understanding of the LoLT.

De Klerk (2006:126) postulates the problems of English language teaching in a bilingual environment as confusing. She argues that:

Under-trained teachers were now mostly second language English speakers, products of an inadequate 'Bantu' education themselves. As a result of this appallingly inadequate provision, low levels of proficiency in English and high drop-out rates led to the virtual collapse of Black education between 1984 and 1994.

Among those whose views and linguistic practices are highly influential in determining the course of English in the country are South African linguists, policy-makers and, of course, English language teachers, with the language teacher group usually viewed as extremely conservative and not as experts. Because much of the English discourse that non-English speakers are exposed to is classroom-talk, and for many, this is their only opportunity to hear and use it. Most of the learning taking place in classrooms takes place through verbal discourse, with learners following the model provided by teachers, who act, effectively, as gatekeepers and role models for access to the accepted variety (de Klerk, 2006).

Bilingualism generally arises as a result of a deliberate and conscious strategy devised by both teachers and parents in order to ensure fruitful bilingual language teaching through teacher-talk in the classroom and through parental involvement in the learners' work at home. Both languages get established in the home, usually for sociological and educational reasons. Such cases are conscious attempts to engineer bilingualism deliberately by taking advantage of the ripe language acquisition phase

of children and the expertise of each parent in a different language (isiZulu vs English). It then becomes easier for a child, both of whose parents speak the minority language, to achieve a high degree of proficiency in this language and the child who has only one parent who does. This is due to the greater exposure to the minority language which the child receives, as well as the higher motivation to use the minority language when it is the only family language (Arnberg, 1991:32).

Linguistics is essentially a social science and an applied science, which prefers to study attested, authentic instances of language in use (preferably whole texts), rather than invented, isolated sentences (de Klerk 2003:4). It is this science, which I think, should be introduced to the study of teaching language teachers in order to avoid gaps of language teaching in schools. Differences between bilinguals and their respective monolinguals have been shown in different studies and for different linguistic phenomena, especially regarding syntactic language development (Fuertes & Liceras, 2010).

Bilingual education in South African classrooms remains pivotal in the teaching of grammar in schools. Grammatical structures that are taught in English remain crucial in linguistics since the language teacher is duty-bound to have knowledge of the learners' first language. It has been noted that the standard form of African languages is under threat from urban varieties. Yet there remains pressure, particularly from Black learners and parents, for the English medium of instruction (Banda, 2000). It is for this argument that language study be equated to the linguistics sentience of language teachers teaching grammar in schools. This will help both the learners and teachers in the analysis and interpretation of grammatical structure of the language.

African learners in an African classroom need to study English grammar for economic emancipation in the country of their birth. Learning in an African language would make little sense in the South African classroom given the prevailing situation where there is little or no educational material in African languages, and also when employers in South Africa use either English or Afrikaans. In this regard, given the current situation, Black learners who trained in their mother tongues only would be both prejudiced against and disempowered economically and educationally (Banda, 2000).

The mother-tongue concept and its use and acceptance in a bilingual language policy appear to be taken for granted when they are to be implemented in schools, resulting in English becoming an unequal partner enjoying all the privileges and status. Because of English on the lead, it is better to develop and produce teachers who are trained in linguistics, teachers who will find it easy to teach grammar to schools which are not performing well. Attitudes towards English are identified as a stumbling block to the implementation of bilingual Education (Banda, 2000:63). The significant cause to this is the classroom situation where both teachers' and learners' are struggling with the use of English, teachers and learners attitudes towards how English is taught to their classes as compared to the teaching of isiZulu. Teacher knowledge of the language is vital in the development of attitudes towards English as a subject in schools. For this argument, it would be so discouraging to encourage Black learners in a township or rural school to learn through their mother tongue, because it is the language of their ancestors and it is the language of their culture. Such an argument is becoming a less attractive prospect in this global economy than the need for status and socioeconomic mobility that is perceived to be offered by the English language (Banda, 2000). The introduction of linguistics in teacher training programmes in universities will help in the mastery of grammatical structures by learners without any hardship.

Given the socioeconomic, cultural and geo-political situation prevailing in South Africa, English is set to be the language and preferred medium of education in South African schools and tertiary institutions for some time to come. Due to the use of the English language in high functions in the society by kings, politicians, celebrities and business men, it then remains crucial for the development of a teacher who has been trained in linguistics, especially if the teacher will teach in a rural or township school in South African classrooms. Once learners have mastered the English language structure and its use, it would be easy for them to participate in their social and academic lives easily. They will find it easy to express themselves in different contexts, such as in using language for cultural conventions, slang vs jargons, the language of everyday speech versus the language of books, different language varieties, idiomatic use of language, sayings, etc.

Language teachers in the mainstream schools work in under-resourced schools with undernourished learners. They are expected to teach beginning literacy in the mother

tongue, communicative language skills in the exogenous (ex-colonial) language, and curricular content in both, requiring that they be as bilingual and bi-literate as possible (Benson, 2004). Teachers bring their formal training to the classroom environment and some have received pre-service teacher training, which can last for four years in a South African university after they have undergone primary and secondary education. Sometimes teachers have various levels of formal schooling, but lack pedagogical training. Having little or no training means that teachers often lack opportunities to gain competence in the dominant language. The majority of teachers in South Africa, especially those who work in rural schools, are not mother-tongue speakers of English, and are therefore, subject to making mistakes and errors when they teach English since they themselves are still learning to teach in English.

In addition, they must bridge the linguistic and cultural gap between home and school through the provision of authentic language lessons under challenging working conditions. Bilingual teachers who work in developing countries, where a combination of factors related to poverty and complicated by former colonial languages still make language teaching and learning in the classroom a subtle goal if teachers are struggling with the use of English in their teaching of English.

Language must be used to strengthen learners' scholarly, visual, and social identities. This could be seen and used as the collaborative creation of linguistic power for the learners to use language accordingly. Cummins (2001:66) argues that language must become an object of fascination and excitement, and learners must be given ample opportunities to use their languages for authentic communication, collective knowledge generation, and affirmation of personal identities. In rural areas, the children's L1 would be used in the home and for the development of literacy skills in lower elementary classes.

Transference from one speaker's use of language to another speaker's use of language can be viewed as a contamination factor in the use of the L2. Where teachers' own L2 knowledge is not on an acceptable standard for the use of English as the LoLT, their poor usage and knowledge of the language are transferred to the learners (Stander, 2001:108-110). Marinova-Todd (2003) found that the sooner learners are exposed to the L2 in an environment rich with L2 interaction and input,

the more time learners spend on a task and the longer the learners are resident in a L2-dominated environment the more proficient they will be. These above-mentioned aspects are better predictors of L2 acquisition than age. Appropriate circumstances and quality instruction lead to native-like competence in L2 in younger and older learners if learners are taught by teachers of language who have linguistic components in their training. The linguistic components help the teacher in the identification of linguistic gaps between L1 and L2. For an example, in the isiZulu language there are no equivalent gender-words for 'she' or 'he' and this leads to confusion with regard to gender such as 'he' which is used instead of 'she'.

According to Kapp (2004:260-261), Black African learners are often labelled as at risk or disadvantaged as a result of the linguistic, cognitive and social transition they have to make when entering HE where most teaching staff are white and proficient in English only. It could be argued that, even though the teaching there might be changes to the teaching personnel at HEIs, the language of teaching and learning remains the same. The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) of 2011 is an international study of reading literacy which is conducted every five years and forty countries participated, including South Africa. South African learners, lamentably, performed worse when compared to other countries. PIRLS assessments included a set of questions asking parents how well their children could do the following early literacy activities when first entering primary school namely: recognise most of the alphabet, write letters of the alphabet, read some words, write some words, and read sentences.

Benson (2004:208) is of with the view that language teaching in bilingual classroom needs to be improved. He argues that:

....bilingual teachers tend to bring little formal training to the task, though they have years of work as well as their own experience as learners in L2 submersion-type schooling, where use of the mother tongue has traditionally been prohibited or considered shameful, and where learners have to 'sink or swim' through repetition and memorisation.

This signals a need for teacher training that includes language learning theory as well as demonstrating language teaching methods so that effective practices are modelled and experienced teachers who do not have linguistic component in their training do

not have models to imitate in terms of teaching L1 literacy or helping learners gain communicative competence in the L2 so that L1 literacy skills can be transferred. This also implies that teacher trainers (lecturers) and curriculum developers need to be better prepared as well for the grammar teaching and learning curriculum, since they cannot be expected to teach or write about bilingual methods they have never experienced themselves.

A study conducted by Nel and Muller (2013) at the University of South Africa (UNISA) discovered that both student teachers and their learners were struggling with grammatical use of English inside the classroom. The problems encountered include phonological and pronunciation errors, spelling errors, syntactic errors, over-generalisation, the use of the prepositions, confusion of gender and problems with tenses. Looking at these problems which were done by level four students, it could be argued that these problems would continue and have very bad consequences to the learners whom they would produce. Grammar teaching should be implemented in teacher training programmes in universities and by language teachers who are already in schools who are without grammatical awareness or the necessary training.

The causes of grammatical errors from teachers, according to the study by Nel and Muller (2013: 639-640), are addressed as follows:

Phonological errors occur when L2 learners are taught by L2 teachers, in the sense that incorrect sound, stress and intonation patterns as well as faulty pronunciation are transferred to the L1 (English language). Spelling errors are modelled by L2 teachers and L2 learners learn the incorrect spelling. L1 transfer takes place on a syntactic level (modelled by the teacher), for example, verb tenses in English such as the overuse of the progressive verb tense.

Over generalisation as a result of intra lingual transfer (modelled by the teacher) where a rule is applied in L2 where it is unnecessary. Grammatical error (omission error), such as the omission of the infinitive form, occur. For a Sepedi speaker, for example, the use of prepositions is a problem. (In the Sepedi language prepositions do not exist). In the isiZulu language there are no equivalent gender-words for “she” or “he” and this leads to confusion with regard to gender such as ‘he’ is used in place of ‘she’. The teacher does not know the past participle which should be used with the past perfect and present perfect tense and uses the past tense form of the verb instead. For example:

‘One of them has went home’. Because the action has taken place, the past tense is used – a typical error made by someone who has not mastered the third person singular that is used for the past; the person could also be confusing the subject of the sentence as being ‘them’ and not ‘one’.

The results presented above state that student teachers’ perceptions of their English proficiency should be revisited. These results show that there is evidence of poor English language proficiency and language error transfer from teacher to learner in most rural schools of South Africa.

Teachers of bilingual classes must be bilingual; they must be reasonably proficient in two languages, English and isiZulu in the case of King Cetshwayo District which is the focus of this study. A study conducted by Benson (2004) signals that in the developing countries like South Africa, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Namibia, Zambia, in the north, south, central, west and east of Africa, language teachers are still struggling to master English, whether by lack of effective schooling or by lack of schooling itself, and bilingual teachers are themselves subject to these limitations. This is a clear indication that the study of English language needs to be introduced in universities for English language teacher training and for the benefit of the learning communities.

The PIRLS of 2011 has consistently shown a positive relationship between early reading skills and average reading achievement at the fourth grade (PIRLS, 2011:130), while McLaughlin et al. (2005) are of the view that children with greater self-efficacy or high self-esteem about themselves as readers typically are better readers. Because motivation to learn to read includes the feeling that you can succeed, it is important for learners to have a strong self-concept about their reading ability in order to continue building on current levels of learning to move to higher levels of learning.

Linguistic and non-linguistic factors contributing to poor L2 acquisition and academic achievement in township schools and rural areas include lack of access to newspapers, magazines, TV and radio; lack of opportunity to hear or to speak English; lack of English reading material at home and at school; and poor language teaching by teachers whose own English proficiency is limited (Pretorius, 2002). The author further argues that poor matriculation pass rates in South Africa suggest a reading-to-

learn barrier to academic performance which results in poorly equipped learners entering HEIs. Learners in HEIs are expected to access information from print independently, to construct meaning and to reconstruct new knowledge.

The current situation is that in most government schools in the King Cetshwayo District, most, if not all language teachers come from the same ethnolinguistic group as their learners, and many are literally from the same communities. This means that teachers and learners automatically share a set of understandings upon which they can build in negotiating between home and school cultures. If this is the case, they (teachers) are the best immediate people to teach these learners the best English language as compared to anybody else. This could be done easily if the teachers themselves are introduced, as part of their language training, to linguistics. This could be fruitful, because linguistic awareness helps one to be knowledgeable to the meaning of a language; language learning encompasses so much more than mere memorisation and pronunciation. Fatchulkip (2008) argues that linguistics is important for language teaching, because linguistics and language teaching can be likened to the relationship of knowledge about the engine and the skill of driving a car. It will be better for the driver to be supported with some knowledge about the car or the engine so that they can drive it well and know how to overcome some engine trouble in case they have to face it. In the same way it will be better if language teachers have some knowledge about, for instance, the characteristics of language in general and the specific language they are teaching in particular. In this relation, they should know how language works and expressed meaning, and what structures are used in the particular language they are teaching. They should get familiar, for instance, with the theory about the general mechanism of producing speech sounds, so that they will be able to tackle any pronunciation problem the learners may encounter.

Bridging the gap may not always come naturally to teachers since, as mentioned above, they themselves have gone through an alienating school system which has not prepared them to tailor schooling to their learners' needs. However, it could be argued that in the bilingual language teaching journey, learners learn best if they will receive the content in both their L1 and their L2. This could be best achieved if teachers of English language have undergone a linguistics course as part of their training. Speaking a language that learners and their parents understand, develops a closer

understanding and minimises learning barriers. Teachers are civil servants and representatives of the prestige language and culture. It is for this reason that I argue for the grammatical approach to English language teaching and learning so that the teaching of English language and the matriculation pass rate improves, as such improvement could result in a better learned society.

In his study, Benson (2004: 215) suggests the following elements for an effective bilingual teacher training curriculum:

- First and second language learning theory;
- Modelling of first and second language teaching methods (oral and written);
- Modelling of methods for intercultural instruction;
- L2 verbal and literacy skills;
- L1 verbal and literacy skills, including pedagogical vocabulary;
- Language and programme assessment, including international studies of bilingual schooling, models and evaluations;
- Study visits and/or practical internships at functioning bilingual schools; and
- Collaboration with parents and community members.

The teacher should teach on a learner's level of understanding, that is, the learner should be able to understand what the teacher is saying without any barriers that might rise because of the teachers' use of a language. Teachers with this kind of training will know how to advocate for relevant and effective schooling programmes, and will know how to talk to parents about their children's skills and experiences. They will see children's languages and cultures as resources in the classroom, and will know how to develop these resources to their full potential.

Bilingual teachers are especially challenged in developing contexts; they are often undertrained and underpaid, and must function in under-resourced schools with undernourished students. Meanwhile, they are expected to teach beginning literacy in the mother tongue, communicative language skills in the exogenous (ex-colonial) language, and curricular content in both, requiring that they be as bilingual and bi-literate as possible (Benson, 2004). In addition to this, language teachers must bridge the linguistic and cultural gap between home and school languages, become respected members of the community, and manage any opposition to educational use

of the English language inside the classroom. In a school situation, children initially receive most of their academic learning in the first language first, which continues across many periods of child maturation and higher cognitive development, and which for many of these children is their dominant/home language. After the mastering of first language, children are slowly introduced to English language in most bilingual schools of South Africa.

Teachers are responsible for an inadequate language input due to their own limited English proficiency (Nel & Muller, 2010). Learners' first language should be used for actual instruction during a significant portion of the training to promote pedagogical vocabulary and concept development. It is also clear that teacher trainers, curriculum developers and other professionals need to receive adequate orientation with regard to grammatical language teaching and learning inside the classroom, which will improve the standard of language use among L2 learners and L2 teachers. Burley and Pomphrey (2003) are of the view that teachers of English and of modern languages need to share some common aims and practices in order to view themselves as language educators as well as teachers of the first and target language. In their study (Burley & Pomphrey, 2003) about English language grammar, it was found that there is a lack of confidence by a number of English student teachers when explaining the structure of their first language in an abstract way.

Despite the poor situations in which teachers find themselves, non-English first language learners and parents prefer to be taught in English in schools, yet most teachers are inadequately trained to teach English using English. A comprehensive language teacher education programme needs to be developed in order to cater for the teachers who are already in schools teaching English language without any language structure awareness or knowledge. Learners are introduced to English at an early age and receive poor teaching. They develop basic interpersonal communication skills in English while cognitive and academic linguistic skills are not yet developed. These skills are required in academic settings where they need to deal with difficult concepts and literacy (Nel & Muller, 2010). It appears that there seems to be a mismatch between the language of the school and the language used at the home. It is logical to assume that if developing education systems are to reach entire populations with relevance, English language teaching needs to be utilised to a greater

extent. The ideal goal in a situation like this would be to develop inclusive basic education systems that serve entire school-aged populations with high-quality basic education. This could be easily done if institutions of higher learning train language teachers with linguistically focused modules. Such action would help both the teachers and learners to use language for wider purposes.

The poor matric results and the general lack of academic skills and intellectual growth among Blacks at high school and tertiary levels have most often been attributed to the use of English as a second-language medium of instruction in South Africa (PIRLS, 2011). This alone is an indication that the masses of learners learning English as a second language are not receiving education they ought to receive, since they are still struggling with the academic use of English in their subjects.

### **2.3 Bilingual Language Teaching and Learning Styles (methods)**

English language teachers are responsible for an inadequate language input due to their own limited English proficiency. The idea of how to teach a foreign language affects not just teaching development, but also its results, as seen yearly through the national matric results. Teachers need to study/introduce the different trends and to draw valid conclusions about an effective English language teaching methodology. It is not enough to know the language, but to combine that knowledge with a conscious reflection on how to carry out a successful teaching experience.

If language teachers are trained/introduced to linguistics, they will be familiar with linguistic studies and theories that support a language teaching method within a broader perspective. Those linguistic studies which affect other domains, such as First and Second Language Acquisition, First Language teaching, Language for Specific Purposes (Needs Analysis), Sociolinguistics and Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Psycholinguistics, Corpus and Computational Linguistics, Lexicology and Lexicography, and Translation in the event of Paraphrasing all belong to this realm.. These terms/subtopics within the field of linguistics, when mastered accordingly, may help the language teacher find language teaching very interesting and easy, instead of seeing language teaching as a difficult mountain to climb. In most cases of bilingual language teaching, one language is more frequently used for certain purposes and,

thus, individuals are likely to have more exposure and develop a higher level of proficiency in certain domains in only one of the two languages (Lee *et.al.* 2008).

The theoretical principles which have traditionally inspired the diverse methods come from different linguistic and psychological conceptions. Language and learning are the two foundation stones on which language teaching methods are based.

A long tradition in teaching the First Language according to academic and formal trends is present in the Grammar-translation method. The knowledge of grammar constitutes the core, and translation is the most important type of exercise. The study of written texts of classical languages exerts a great influence. Language is reduced to the grammatical system. The sentence is the main unit of reference, and its morphological elements must be organised according to a series of prescriptive rules. Logico-semantic criteria are used to describe the linguistic model. Learning is understood as a result of a great intellectual effort where the memorisation of rules and vocabulary is necessary. This mental discipline is taken to a general social conduct. Dual immersion programmes, bilingual language teaching, provide an ideal context for learners to engage in interactions using both languages across an array of social spaces (Lee *et al.*, 2008). The author is of with the view that research in second language learning has shown that language skills are developed through social interactions which provide access to comprehensible input as well as opportunities to produce comprehensible output and negotiate meanings accordingly. It is my view that we need to better understand how language is taught in the classroom within the context of the local language policy, the kinds of language instruments which are needed for learners to learn in such conditions, the type of teachers who are needed to teach in such environments and the attitude of both teachers, parents and learners towards English language teaching in schools.

It could be argued that, the ways in which the school's language policy has shaped the interactional language practices in schools seem to have also limited the spaces for children to work on their productive skills in the second language. Language elements such as debates, prepared and unprepared speech, etc. are now not included in the current language curriculum of the country. It is these linguistic elements that help learners attain discourse control over the language. The absence

of these in the curriculum disadvantages the learners in language skills mastery. Thomas and Roberts (2011: 92) are of the view that in the classroom, children who revert to the use of their first language (L1) may be using their L1 to feed into their second language (L2) academic activity. Intuitively, this seems to be a good strategy, and researchers have demonstrated that children learn their L2 better if they can draw on their existing knowledge of L1.

We would argue that these early experiences benefit from the usual tenets of the language acquisition process, including the essential qualities of child-directed speech. Given the richness of this early experience, it is not surprising that children for whom this early linguistic experience involves English revert to the comfort of English when in a novel linguistic situation such as the bilingual classroom in the South African environment. However, with increased proficiency in the new language (English in this case), the argument is that such children will gain confidence in their use of L2, since they will be motivated to learn and use the language for various academic and non-academic purposes.

Thomas and Roberts (2011) postulate that it is in the child's social use of language that widespread societal and individual bilingualism becomes a reality, and it is in this domain of language use that we are currently failing. Since interacting with peers dominates the day, and children often opt to do this in their stronger L1, a teacher trained in linguistics, I think, may be well equipped to develop the learners' linguistic skills in such a way that they attain mastery of the language without any difficulties. The teacher during language (grammar) teaching and learning should ask questions that require cognitive development. If teachers' questions are regarded as part of comprehensible input, the real test of teachers' ability to provide such comprehensible input lies in how they pose cognitively challenging questions.

In the teaching of language, similarly, Cummins (2001:65) argues that the interpretation of the construct of comprehensible input must go beyond just literal comprehension.

Depth of understanding of concepts and vocabulary as well as critical literacy is intrinsic to the notion of comprehensible input when we are talking about the development of academic language proficiency. This implies a process

whereby learners relate textual and instructional meanings to their own experience and prior knowledge (i.e. activate their cognitive schemata), critically analyse the information in the text (e.g. evaluate the validity of various arguments or propositions), and use the results of their discussions and analyses in some concrete, intrinsically motivating activity or project (e.g. making a video or writing a poem or essay on a particular topic).

If active and authentic language use for these purposes is promoted in the classroom, learners are more likely to achieve academic and conversational aspects of the target language. In the course of class discussion the teacher should introduce to the learners themes that build moral reasoning and learner cognitive development through active participation of the learners.

The texts that are the focus of the interaction can derive from any curricular area or from newspapers, popular songs, or current events. The process is equally applicable to learners at any grade level and the phases can be intertwined rather than follow a strict sequence. By so doing, language teaching and learning becomes effective and there will be a smooth flow of the lesson since language will be equated to real-life situations.

In order to motivate language use there should preferably be an authentic audience that encourages two-way communication in both oral and written modes. A focus on formal features of the target language should be integrated with critical inquiry into issues of language and power. A focus on language must be linked to extensive input in the target language, which is through reading and writing, listening and speaking, a significant goal being to reinforce learners' understanding that their language is legitimate and powerful in its context of use, but that other forms of English are necessary in different contexts of use, like economic, academic and social well-being. Language needs to be taught in its entirety, which comprises the structure of language systems (e.g. relationships between sounds and spelling, regional and class-based accents, grammar, vocabulary, etc.).

It is well established that, in general, learners with high socioeconomic status (SES) outperform low-SES learners in school. There is evidence that higher development of literacy in the primary language is causally related to literacy development in the

second language. The evidence for this includes consistent positive correlations between first- and second language literacy development in younger learners as well as the success of bilingual education programmes that include the development of literacy in the primary language (Nguyen, Shin & Krashen, 2001). The linguistic issues which are faced by the South African schooling system are that the literate parents are more likely to participate meaningfully in their children's schooling, while the illiterate seem to be oblivious and ignorant of what is happening inside the classroom and are happy with any result, which their children will bring home, as long as the school report does not reflect the word 'fail'. It could also be argued that even those who care about their children's work are also at a disadvantage, because they cannot assist their learners in all school subjects due to lack of knowledge.

Cummins (2001) observes issues such as the role of appropriate time and ways to teach L2 grammar. The development of language awareness would include not just a focus on formal aspects of the language, but also the development of critical language awareness which encompasses exploring the relationships between language and power. Many indigenous languages do not have a well-developed written tradition or extensive literature that would make the development of literacy in the indigenous language a meaningful goal. Fluency in English should not be assumed to be synonymous with a good quality education but as a sign that the learner is making good progress to L2 learning. A study by Hendricks (2003) shows the inability of teachers to choose correct teaching methods, as a result, learners are becoming at risk. In her study she observed the following inside the classroom:

Mr Z teaching three successive lessons to the same Grade 5 class. On Monday he revised the simple present and past tenses. The next day he added future tense and the class did oral drills and written practice in changing sentences from one tense to the other. On Wednesday the class read a comprehension passage, identified the tense of the passage and made lists of the verbs. The 48 learners sat at tables in eight groups of about six. Because Mr Z had little time to prepare for our presence, his lessons were not 'rehearsed', and were probably representative of his usual practice.

Mr N, on the other hand, had considerably more time to plan the lessons we observed. In both lessons it seemed that the

teacher questioned learners about work previously done because many learners raised their hands to volunteer answers. Mr N seemed to select learners at random from all over the classroom, and they responded without looking in their books. In fact, the teacher used the only textbook in the class to guide his questions. Especially the experiment, to show that there is air in soil (in the second lesson) seemed familiar to learners.

School systems in poor countries are plagued by inequalities between urban and rural areas, between elite and subordinate social groups, and between boys and girls, which is an indication of poor language teaching in many rural schools. Some of the roots of inequality lie in ethnolinguistic heritage, meaning the ethnic and speech community into which residents are born. It is this heritage which needs to be presented and made available in the learner's language of learning as well i.e. English. Such action requires a teacher to be well established with language study, which includes knowledge of pragmatics and semantics.

Teachers face challenging teaching situations ranging from poorly attended, one-room multi-grade schoolhouses to overloaded grade-level classrooms. Under these challenging situations, there would be very little teaching and learning, since there are many barriers to the learner's teaching and learning. Berens *et al.* (2013) are of the view that children who come from families whose home languages have profound orthography may actually have bilingual reading and language processing advantages.

Learners need to be introduced to phonological awareness. The phonological awareness tasks tap into children's ability to manipulate the sounds of language, which is known to precede and predict reading acquisition and to critical reading skills which are reading decoding, children's ability to know the relationship between the sounds of their language and the letters of their alphabet, or sound-to-letter correspondence, their ability to recognise entire word forms and to understand connected text needs to be developed by qualified language teachers and not by any teacher (Berens *et al.*, 2013). The availability and the access to good English input and instruction produce the best outcomes in English language and ensure native-like proficiency (Nel & Muller, 2013).

## 2.4: Bilingual Education and Language Practices in South African Schools

The majority of South Africans want their children to be educated in English, although this is not their mother tongue, and schools are under pressure to effect an early transition to English (Broom, 2004), as Cummins (2001) argues that teacher instruction must focus extensively on the processing of comprehensible input (meaning). This will entail encouraging students to read extensively in the target language in an increasing range of genres. Bilingual education in Southern Africa remains a challenging issue, especially when it comes to the use of English for both social and academic purposes. English language has “deep orthography” that requires deeper grammatical/structural word-specific knowledge for successful reading (Berens, Kovelman & Petitto, 2013). Children learning English as a second language (L2), suggest that communicative competence can be achieved in an L2 in as little as two years of immersion schooling, whilst academic competence can take up to nine years to master (Thomas & Roberts, 2011). Children will gain confidence and proficiency in their use of L2. This could mean that learners entering education in a multilingual society have different understandings of English language proficiency. Those whose home language is also the national language may or may not be required to become acquainted with another language, but those whose home language is not the national language need to acquire proficiency in this during their education (Broom, 2004). It could then be argued that the language practices of teachers inside the classroom play a big role in terms of language skills development and understanding of other subjects as well. A qualified grammar teacher will help the child acquire cognitive skills through linguistics.

Another bilingual language practice in South African rural schools is that of the issue of the necessity for language planners to make decisions about languages being taught as subjects, and the language(s) being used as the media of instruction or languages of learning (Broom, 2004). The confusion is created inside the classroom, where learners are told not to express themselves in their first language yet they have little or no knowledge of English language, and even teachers themselves are still struggling with the use of English language, both spoken and written form (Rudwick, 2004, Pretorius & Matjila, 2004). If one could experience this situation, it would be

accurate to say language teachers need linguistic component in their training. This will help in language skills development and cognitive development.

The author further stipulates that there is strong evidence that there is a high demand for education in English by the majority of the population, even though their home language may not be English. As a consequence of this, learners have moved away from the ex-DET schools into schools, where the LoLT is English, and the majority of schools have adopted English as their medium of instruction and assessment from Grade 4 (Broom, 2004). The language practices of language teachers inside the classrooms need to be modified such that there is a development of the teachers' English-language proficiency and formal competence, especially second language teachers since the schooling of English in rural schools is largely available through second language users/teachers of English. This requires the development of a well-structured reading textbook for teaching English and support for the teaching of content subjects through the medium of English. This chapter presents bilingual education and language practices inside the classrooms in South African rural/state schools. It could be argued that the main issue that continues to rise in the world of bilingual education is the severe lack of qualified teachers who are able to handle the subject. Quality bilingual education requires firm, patient, expert teachers who have the time on their hands to take care of all the issues that arise. A study conducted by Sookrajh and Joshua (2009: 332) highlight the importance of English to the lives of African learners as follows:

I don't support the policy because my Zulu for example is not there in America, it's not there in France. If I learn everything in isiZulu, I'll have a problem in linking with the standard of the world.

This utterance shows a strong determination towards English. It entails that the only vehicle towards a better life is the competent use of the English language, in order for one to move away from the perceived low socio-economic status and the ethnic prejudices and stereotypes associated with the use of other languages for education, English remains the chosen language by the majority of South Africans.

The inadequate use of English in schools by teachers of English signals poor performance in school in all subject areas studied in rural schools of King Cetshwayo District with the exception of isiZulu, as learners do not possess the advanced

language and literacy requisite to use English as the medium for their education. This poor use of English in African rural schools has been noted by Williams and Cooke (2002); Dutcher (2004); Probyn (2006); Alidou and Brock-Utne (2006) and Early and Norton (2014) when they report that language teachers do not possess the advanced language proficiency in English required to make their subject matter clear to the learners they teach. In a South African context being educated means being proficient in English, as it is perceived as a prerequisite for upward mobility and global citizenship; teachers should lead by example to their learners. As Early and Norton, (2014) argue that teachers need to be trained in action research skills which will empower them to work as curriculum leaders who not only understand the varied needs of their learners, but also to respond to them creatively and satisfactorily. The teaching of academic language across the curriculum, particularly in secondary settings, should be a contemporary focus of research in schools as far as the teaching of English grammar is concerned. This idea will help the teachers understand how to teach English grammar to second language speakers of English.

Early and Norton (2014:683) highlight the classroom practices of English language teachers in rural schools as follows:

All [teachers] reported that they had had no training to do this and so the focus was mostly on vocabulary/concepts rather than explicit teaching of genres. To support the learners and navigate language and content teaching, 'It is via experimentation and hands-on as often as possible'. Mathew explains that he tries to 'offer as many home-related substitutes for examples as possible' to make concrete the content abstractions and teach the language.

As a result of this practice, one would argue that code-switching occurred between teachers and learners and learners amongst themselves. The level of code-switching one would think of is code-mixing, since there are difficulties with both spoken and written language to both learners and teachers. Using the full range of linguistic and semiotic systems that the students have available to them may help them with group communication practices and language use awareness. Another example made by Early and Norton (2014:684) in their findings is that of an experienced head of department (HoD) with twenty five years of teaching English who still struggles to teach grammar. In their study it was found that:

The Head English Teacher with 25 years' experience. The room is equally sparse and poorly resourced, and Penina has used her own small earnings to pay for photocopying so that her students might have some materials to read and share. There are 80 students in her English class, organised into discussion groups. The students are very shy and reluctant to speak in English...teaches grammar points and corrects students' usage to 'standard English', as students will be heavily penalised if they use vernacular in the national English examinations. However, while Penina holds strong to the use of 'standard English'.

Considering this language practice, one may think that the number of years in the field may give one experience to do the job accordingly; in this case what the teacher needs is knowledge of English grammar and how to teach English grammar in conjunction with the learners' needs. The teacher needs to identify the learners' needs of a language before introducing them to a language. It is in situations like these that learners' use of English in school is influenced by their inability to use it elsewhere except in the classroom, English being a school subject in which there is a focus on 'correct' usage, is never used at home except in class. For instance, this example mentioned by Early and Norton (2014: 685) that the words 'uncle' and 'aunt' are interpreted differently as some students regard these as referring to anyone older related or not. This diverse interpretation of words is a clear indication that grammar studies in rural setting need speedy attention; both teachers and learners need help. On the other hand, given the length of time to develop academic language proficiency by the learners of English language, learners should be rewarded for what they can do with language/s and their content knowledge rather than being penalised, because of perceived 'deficits' in 'standard' English (Early & Norton, 2014).

Teachers' language training lacks focus and grammaticality of English language. Debates on English as a *lingua franca* or World English have not been part of their training, most likely because the examination system is structured on knowledge of standard English (Early & Norton, 2014). This is an indication that teachers lack training in language awareness or in teaching through a foreign language. Moyo (2001) highlights the seriousness of English language use in rural or government schools as follows:

The usage of English is confined to the classroom and English does not enjoy the same level of ethno linguistic vitality as the majority language of isiZulu, with the same fluency, automaticity and sociolinguistic richness, it becomes extremely difficult for them to perform well academically, as they do not have the same linguistic fluency and versatility in English.

The current linguistic use of English in most rural schools is caused by many factors which include the lack of material resources, since teachers need books to teach. There are large numbers of learners per single class, which remains the barrier to adequate teaching and learning in schools. Problems with the inflexible language education policy includes the difficulties secondary schools teachers find when they have to shift to English in Grade 4; the different mother tongues in a single classroom, even in rural areas, and the time and skill it takes when code-switching effectively (Early & Norton, 2014). These problems make teaching and learning in class so difficult, especially these problems are experienced by an inadequately qualified teacher. Early and Norton, (2014) further postulate that teacher education programmes should include providing teachers with opportunities to understand and explore language as a social practice and meaning making system, with great variation across sociolinguistic situations. Teachers should be supported to become more aware of how language works in their subject areas and to design units of work and tasks that scaffold students' academic language and content learning simultaneously.

## **2.5 Literacy Development through Bilingual Education**

In South Africa the number of children entering school who speak a language other than English at home is increasing more rapidly than the overall school-aged population (census, 2011). Research on bilingualism has shown that bilingual children have numerous cognitive, metacognitive, metalinguistic, and sociolinguistic advantages compared to monolinguals (Cohen et al., 2014) mention all surnames here. This suggests a need for further research on English language instruction and methods that will measure what is happening in the English language classroom regarding English grammar teaching and learning in terms of language skills development and acquisition of the literacy and social skills necessary for success in their (learners) academic journey.

Story retelling is a linguistic skill which can improve learners' oral language production and development. The basic assumption among researchers is that retelling is a strategy for evaluating the extent of student text comprehension based on their attempts to retell or recall what they have read (Cohen, Kurstedt, & May, 2009:106). Oral retelling of narrative stories provides a purposeful context for supporting the development of the learners' oral language and cognitive development.

The LiEP stipulates that children should start learning at school in their home language until Grade 3. In most schools, the language of instruction for all subjects changes in Grade 4 from an indigenous African language, isiZulu in King Cetshwayo District, to English instruction until tertiary level. Considering the fact that the language of instruction for the majority of children changes at Grade 4 in South African government schools and that isiZulu is taught as a subject from Grade 4 onwards, a strong instruction on grammar is needed in order to root the English language use and practice until tertiary level. Such an idea will be of great help in the development of literacy in rural schools, especially.

Linnakyla, Malin and Taube (2004), as cited by Howie et al. (2008:554), argue that literacy is an important means of functioning effectively in education and of developing as an individual, within and outside school, today and in later life, in further education, at work, and in leisure activities. It could then be argued that the development of literacy remains crucial to the study of English language in schools, because it will help learners in the academic and non-academic lives. Howie et al. (2008) are of the view that children who become successful readers have exposure to adults who involve them in purposeful literacy experiences during the early childhood years. Successful readers are likely to attend schools that provide pupils with frequent and intensive opportunities to read and write, while building upon early childhood experiences with opportunities for pupils to learn the nature of the alphabetic system. Successful readers experience overall progress that is steady and sure, despite periodic difficulties, and in line with this have the ability to build on informal experiences with literacy from early years as they encounter more formal and complex tasks.

A study conducted by Strickland et al. (2002) maintain that children who are particularly at risk of encountering reading difficulties typically have a history of preschool language impairment, limited proficiency in English, or come from homes,

where a non-standard dialect of English is spoken. Howie et al. (2008) postulate that learners who are at risk often have parents who had difficulty learning to read, and they may come from poor neighbourhoods; they are likely to attend schools in which classroom practices are deemed ineffective. However, none of these factors is an automatic barrier to literacy, and none of them functions in isolation as a single causal factor of reading difficulties.

Verhoeven (1990), as cited by Howie et al. (2008) argue that second language learners face two types of difficulties, namely inter-lingual learning problems caused by mother tongue interference, and intra-lingual learning problems, caused by the structure of the second language. Children acquiring reading in a second language may experience difficulty with phonemic mapping, recognition of orthographic patterns, and direction recognition of words already represented in memory. It could then be argued that the relationship between the South African learners' performance in reading literacy in the language of teaching and learning (English) remains a challenge, especially in schools where there are no resources and with unqualified language teachers. The authors (Howie et al., 2008) further argue that the existence of poor language use among learners in rural communities maybe a result of under-resourcing, poor teaching practices, inadequate training in reading practices and lack of available resources for the indigenous languages, a lack of motivation to modify the situation, the oral tradition of the indigenous languages, the general role and influence of television, and a function of the time we live in, where instant fulfilment in so many aspects of life is proliferated.

One would then argue that poor communities, in particular those of rural Africans bear the effect of the past imbalances, because of these above-mentioned named language barriers in most government schools, and these literacy problems continue to be reflected in the national results of the final year examinations in Grade 12. Access to English grammar knowledge is denied through grammar teaching by non-language orientated teachers, by incorporating any teachers to teach language regardless of teacher qualifications, through inadequate use of communication and comprehension skills. Poor conceptual understanding is inevitable and leads to disastrous consequences in the learners' life at a later stage.

Bamgbose (2000), as quoted by Perry (2008:63), argues that language policies serve a powerful gatekeeping function in Africa; that is, language policies have the power to create two separate classes: the included (those who are able to operate easily in the official language, which provides access to economic and political power), and the excluded (those who do not enjoy these advantages because they do not have access to the language of power). African schools represent powerful linguistic gatekeepers, due to their authority to exclude through high dropout rates, high percentages of repeaters, and high failure rates in examinations.

Simango (2000:491) is of the view that the English language is so crucial in the affirmation of prestige and status and economic mobility in African linguistic society when he postulates that:

English is the medium of instruction at virtually all levels of education; in fact English it is the single most important subject for anyone wishing to advance in the field of education. This is supported by the following: (1) a pass in English is a necessary condition for a candidate to be awarded a Junior Certificate of Education which enables one to advance from junior to senior secondary school; (2) a pass in English is required for a candidate to be awarded the Malawi School Certificate of Education...

This is an indication that there is an academic need for the English language to be taught accordingly by qualified teachers of English grammar. This will help the learners of English, especially second language speakers of English to have good command and use of English language for various purposes in life. It has been noted (Moyo, 2001) that South Africa is not alone in this crisis. English has enjoyed very solid and consistent central government support in the neighbouring countries as well; this includes Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi, Lesotho and Kenya. This is an indication that Africans need English for economic emancipation, since English in these countries is used as the language of government and administration, education, diplomacy and international business transactions.

### **2.5.1 Play as a Teaching Strategy for Literacy Development**

A primary function of language is for humans to convey information to each other or request services of some kind in a variety of situations. This utterance means that

language learners must be in a position to relate events that happen to them, giving someone directions, asking for services such as in a shopping or other service encounter (Armstrong & Ferguson, 2010). A comprehensive language teacher education programme needs to be developed in order to cater for the teachers who are already in schools teaching English language without any language structure awareness/knowledge.

Bilingual children need to be able to convey their knowledge, needs and desires, and likes and dislikes in their home language long before they acquire verbal competence in English. They can do this through gesture, expression, and use of objects and puppets in interactive play with peers (Cohen et al., 2014). Play can support academic skills and concepts to further children's language and literacy abilities through a language teaching atmosphere conducive to learning the language.

Teachers trained in providing strategies and skills and who use concrete objects will be able to help children transfer English knowledge back into their home language. It is important that teachers scaffold children's language so that the students realise that there are links between the two languages (L1 and L2). It is also important that teachers continue to provide learners with opportunities to play and use related language each day so as to practice their language skills in a comfortable setting (Cohen et al. 2014). This is an indication that during language teaching, teachers need to teach the learners in such a way that is exploring language's role in the learners' social life rather than language as a set of syntactic/semantic constructs that exist outside of the communicator's everyday environment. Language in this sense is seen as functional in that it performs multiple purposes and is used across contexts (Armstrong & Ferguson, 2010). Given the very poor learning conditions existing at most public schools in South Africa and the non-existence of a language across the curriculum approach, the chances of fruitful language development are crippled by the education system that provides learners with teachers who are not adequately trained to teach in English.

The use of play props and story drama provided children with the opportunity to link real objects to the text to motivate them to label and learn the props' names and uses to organise story elements and offer concrete tools for story retelling and links with

world experiences (Cohen et al., 2014). Play improves English comprehension intake when fairy tales are read in English and used in English for a variety of purposes such as role plays, debates, prepared and unprepared speeches.

These skills are the foundation for additional learning that occurs in elementary school. Without a rich lexis, the ability to retell a story and opportunities to learn language through play, language learners are likely to be at a disadvantage for learning interactions if their English language grammar and implementation are not developed to the level of mastery. Armstrong and Ferguson (2010) point out that language is purposefully employed to engage others as well as simply convey certain types of information. Speakers can understand their own identity and authority and choose to align or disalign themselves with potential conversation partners through their choice of words and particular grammatical constructions. It could then be argued that language skills form the foundation for success at school and these skills develop over time until learners attain mastery of these skills through motivation and proper language teaching by qualified teachers. There is, therefore, an undeniable need for them (learners) to use English in more authentic and diverse communicative and academic situations, as Perry (2008) argues that part of the reason for the high status of English may be due to Southern Africans' belief that English provides them with better access to jobs and the global economy.

### **2.5.2 Grammar Teaching as a Method for Literacy Development**

It is argued that during speech production some morphemes are more relevant at the conceptual level whereas others are more relevant at the grammatical level of the speech event. Morphemes that relate to grammatical structure, rather than conceptual structure, are only activated much later in the production process (Simango, 2011). On the other hand Moyo (2001) argues that there is need for educationists and language planners to have a clear and realistic understanding of the educational outcomes of instruction in a second language, such as English, as such knowledge is important where realistic expectations can inform language planners in educational contexts. Looking at the way language is taught in the rural schools of South Africa, where there is a total lack of trained teachers in mother-tongues and in the powerful second language, English; lack of curriculum materials, poor infrastructure from books

to buildings, and the total lack of the political will to effectively implement the promulgated LiEP (1997), it could be argued that there is a serious need to train English language (grammar) teachers so that the ongoing crisis can be reduced. Since a considerable number of teachers are not trained and little effort has been made, to have them trained or to attend in-service training programmes, the better way to solve this crisis would be to train those who are already in schools through the introduction of grammatical units of a language (word classes). If this is not taken into consideration, we are likely to stagnate and remain in the situation, where rural/government school learners are not adequately prepared for the sudden transition from mother-tongue instruction/education to English in Grade 5 which is concurrent with the South African language in education policy. This could be rewarding, since most of the teachers in the schooling system are currently experiencing difficulties when they are supposed to explain abstract concepts in English, both as a language and as LoLT.

English happens to be the language which the majority of the learners in South Africa use at school and never at home. Even if this is the case, using local languages for instruction is extremely difficult when so many languages are spoken in such a relatively small area, for an example, in a province like Gauteng it would be difficult to choose one indigenous language to be used as language of learning and teaching since, in fact, all official languages of South Africa are represented. For this incongruity, the teaching of language needs reworking, because their usage of English is confined to the classroom and English does not enjoy the same level of ethno linguistic vitality like isiZulu in the King Cetshwayo District, in order for the learners to receive/acquire fluency, automaticity and sociolinguistic richness in their studies and further to their social life. It would be proper that they are taught English language by qualified English language teachers. This will help the learners to master the skills of language for both language competence and language performance in their quest to use language in the social and academic lives, since English is the major language of instruction, examination and further education.

Moyo (2001:101) postulates the benefits of a language classroom conducive to teaching incorporating qualified teachers as beneficial in the attainment of good results in other subjects as well. He argues that:

At a pedagogical level the use of a first language as a medium of instruction also facilitates the acquisition of linguistic skills, concepts, vocabulary and content in various disciplines encountered for the first time, as the language of learning is familiar to the learner. The learner has thus the necessary language skills to read content subjects with comprehension. When the learner shifts from the L1 to the L2 as a medium of instruction in the latter part at primary school level, the notion of transfer is considerably well facilitated from one language to the other.

If one is to be pragmatic about the everyday teaching of language in rural or government schools of South Africa, especially the product that enters university or tertiary education at a first-year level, is a linguistic semilingualism. This is a situation where a learner speaks two languages (English and isiZulu in the case of King Cetshwayo District) but both of these languages are at a lower level than monolingual counterparts. This is a linguistic concern, because the learner is linguistically challenged in both the L1 and the L2. Learners need to be taught and sufficiently grounded in their own language system before they are assessed in their cognitive excellence. There is an urgent need for a sound literacy path in both the mother tongue and a second language of international learning and communication, which is English language.

Since there is lack of speakers of English in schools and home communities where learners who attend in rural schools live, the lack of trained teachers along with the absence of infrastructures, ranging from books to appropriate teaching and learning facilities, a good transition between mother tongue and English language, in the case of King Cetshwayo District schools, will help in the pass rate of other subjects as well, since learners will have acquired the necessary skills of the English language. At the moment, the teachers who are teaching language in schools are inadequately trained to teach language, both isiZulu and English.

The unavailability of resources is a serious concern for African language policy, since many African countries do not have enough infrastructure and resources to source either the teachers or the materials that are necessary for a teaching and learning atmosphere that facilitates language teaching in schools. This postulation is supported by Moyo (2001) when he postulates that:

For the learners' development of cognitive and conceptual skills there is obviously a need for the training of teachers in the language system of the mother-tongue and in a second language (Moyo, 2001:106).

The argument here is that native speakership is not synonymous with expertise and competence in teaching the target language. Language teachers must be trained in linguistics. Given the dominant power position of English language, both as a medium of instruction in higher learning in content subjects up to matric level, and as an economic language, it could be a good start to improve the teaching and learning of grammar in schools. Since Development, education and literacy, therefore, have all been interpreted through a western, colonial European lens in Africa (Perry, 2008). Moyo (2001) is of the view that language teaching and learning is a societal concern and it needs to be well catered for in the curriculum agenda for the proper implementation of the linguistic policy that will be productive for classroom language teaching and learning in South African schooling system. He postulates the following:

With the bulk of teachers being untrained these ill-formed structures became accepted as grammatically accurate forms and were thus taught to learners. Little has changed. The textbooks in the learners' L2 were not designed to develop their cognitive skills. It is therefore inconceivable that learners would be placed on a path to transfer sound conceptual skills from their mother-tongues to a medium of instruction such English in higher learning in the absence of meaningful textbooks and qualified teachers in both languages, L1 and L2.

South African languages, other than English, have declined in education, national life and in interpersonal communication. This is as a result of a huge imperial esteem that is enjoyed by English language, which in many ways has come to twist educational opportunities and diluted the esteem in which African languages were held. Since illiteracy among adults has been seen as a major impediment to national progress in developing nations in Africa (Perry, 2008), solutions to African problems in literacy development and instruction need to be addressed and solved before our learners experience linguistic deficit in their studies and in their sociolinguistic lives.

Ferguson (2000), as quoted by Perry (2008: 63), argues that learning in English in a classroom seems to increase in African states because of the fear that moving away

from English will isolate the country from the international community, obstruct access to science and technology, and limit investment and aid from western countries. This may be true considering that many parents and communities likewise feel that English-medium instruction is essential for entry into the job market or into HE.

Poor language use by learners may be as a result of inadequate training of teachers to teach grammar in schools. This, at a later stage has negative consequences. Motala (1995), as quoted by Perry (2008), postulates that one of the consequences of the poor quality of schooling in Southern Africa is that children are much more likely to leave school illiterate due to lack of resources in school, teacher-learner ratio in class, teaching of language by non-language teachers, etc.

### **2.5.3 Bilingual Teaching and Learning of English Grammar in Schools**

English seems to be the leading choice for many parents/caregivers as the language of learning and teaching for their children from the foundation phase until tertiary education. It is argued that English is the dominant language of communication, academia, commerce and technology globally (Cele, 2001:184; Vermeulen, 2001: 134; Joubert, 2004: 17, as quoted by Theron & Nel, 2005). For this reason, parents believe that English is the best choice for the LoLT for their children. Learners who are truly bilingual do not experience barriers to learning when learning in English (Lerner 2003, 370). Since not all learners who attend school understand English language instruction, such learners will experience difficulties with the understanding and use of English, because of their limited English proficiency and this forms a barrier to learning. A structural approach to language teaching and learning could help if well introduced, and if language teachers are trained in linguistics.

The majority of South African learners go to state schools. These are schools whose main resources, human or physical, are supplied by the state. Schools in Black African townships, however, remain entirely Black African in terms of learner profile. Teachers often teach multi-grade classes, in which learners in different grades are taught by the same teacher, at the same place, at the same time (Lubisi & Murphy, 2002). As a result of this practice by teachers in schools, many English second-language learners experience barriers to learning, and this is because of their limited English proficiency.

Grammarians/syntacticians of English grammar, from Ferdinand de Saussure's diachronic and synchronic approach to the study of linguistics, to Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG) and Generative Grammar (GG) to Transformational Grammar (TG) to Halliday's Functional Grammar (FG), the aim of the English language teacher remain pivotal, which is to assist in the development of language which will be adequate to the learners' needs for academic success. Hudson and Walmsley (2005, 3) as quoted by Paterson (2010: 474), postulate that the history of grammar teaching in schools is as challenging as ever before, because of the unavailability of qualified language teachers in the education system. They claim that:

.... the current trends in grammar teaching are influenced by 'the complex web of relations' between 'linguistic practice' (presumably referring to different theories on grammar) and external social factors such as politics, 'institutional shifts' and popular public opinions about grammar.

There is a general concern in the study of English language in schools recently, which is being how to represent the relationship between form and function most appropriately at all constituent levels in the study of English language. As far as the medium of education is concerned there has been a widespread move towards English, with home languages being relegated mainly to domestic and community functions. Therefore, there is a need to improve the development of literacy both in the first and in the second language. The first language of the learner should be used in the early grades. This will help the learner in the establishment of linguistic connections of what is familiar and known to the child during discussion before reading and writing in English.

Makoea and McKinney (2014) argue that without an understanding of the language ideologies informing policy and practices, language practices in South African classrooms will not be adequately implemented in such a way that learners' full multilingual repertoires can be legitimately used as resources for learning, which is an atmosphere conducive to teach grammar in schools. Gibbons (2013) postulates that in the early years of primary it is suggested that the approach to the teaching of reading should be almost exclusively dominated by systematic synthetic phonics strategies. Spelling, punctuation and grammar as in nouns, adjectives and the passive voice need to be adequately taught in schools if language learning, structural control of English

language, is to be attained. Specialist English teachers need to be resourced and trained so that a linguistic gap in schooling is eradicated.

In a normal classroom situation where English is used as a language of teaching and learning, learners who learn through a second language are often trying to do three things concurrently in the classroom. They are learning the basic language system of the L2; they are building on it a knowledge of the general academic variety of the L2 and of its specific use within curricular subjects, and they are using this academic variety to acquire curricular subject-matter knowledge (Burkett, Clegg, Landon, Reilly & Verster: 2001). Teachers choose an aspect of subject/language pedagogy which suggests itself as something in which either teachers or learners within a subject need help. This makes the teaching and learning in the classroom not a desired practice, to both teachers and learners.

The 2014 National Benchmark Test (NBT) revealed that about 33% of applicants are ready to cope with the academic literacy demands which they will face in tertiary courses; more than 50% need extended or additional forms of academic support and provision if they are to succeed in HE; and between 10% and 15% will struggle to cope with the demands of academic literacy if they do not get ongoing, intensive and specific forms of academic support and provision. Burkett et al. (2001) and Rudwick (2004) argue that it is difficult to teach and learn through a second language when neither teacher nor learners speak it well enough. The consequences of this can be seen on the personal level, in that it can severely depress the educational achievement of school pupils. This is noted when the whole education system relies on the teaching and learning activities which are taking place through an inadequately mastered second language environment. This signals inefficiency in the academic and economic progress of the country as a whole. English is chosen by many parents/caregivers as language of learning and teaching for their children. However, the quality of English language use in the classroom by both language teachers and by subject teachers impact the learners' lack of proficiency in the use of English for academic and social purposes, as the authors (Burkett et al., 2001:150) argue that:

Many teachers, themselves uncertain of their English, retreat into a heavily talk-based, teacher-fronted way of working. The gap between children's knowledge of English at the switch of medium and the language demands of the

curriculum is large, but it tends to get larger as the curriculum expands into the secondary phase, where teaching styles are, if anything, less rich in context and less sensitive to language.

Added to this is the inadequate supply of schoolbooks which reflects negatively on the South African education system. Since learners come from different backgrounds, they do not have the same linguistic knowledge of the language of the classroom; there are those who are from rural areas and those from urban environments, among those with high and low exposure to English, or among those with educated and uneducated parents. Many children grow up in communities in which they are not exposed to English as both the communication language and as a language of learning and teaching (LoLT). When these children start school, they may not get a solid enough grounding on English language, since there is a shortage of English language teachers in most rural public schools in Southern Africa. One way of removing this gap could be to train language teachers with linguistic knowledge. This will help both the teachers and learners with knowledge of the structure, function and use of English language and with the varieties of English language.

According to Theron and Nel, (2005:228), language barriers can be aggravated by a language of learning and teaching in which the learner are not proficient, by poor educator communication skills and inadequate classroom communication. The rural and urban Black schools who have the least exposure to English in their daily lives, and who, therefore, have the widest gap to make up as they learn through the medium of English at school, must be well catered for in the literacy programmes which should be developed in each poorly resourced school. Since there are very few schools which deliver the curriculum bilingually (Burkett, 2001), most learners who are learning in English are likely to be seriously disadvantaged and to underperform in other subjects as well.

One interpretation of teachers' roles within this period is to see them as judges of 'children's deficient language use' (Paterson, 2010). Quite a number of learners in schools are underperforming due to a lack of English language knowledge, by both teachers and learners; when this happens, the academic future of these learners is going to drain. At this stage I think that the language question is fundamental to the principle of access to social, political, educational and economic emancipation.

In official discourses, English continues to be regarded as the most significant commodity and its position in the academic world is unquestionable. Multilingual and plurilingual practices are not equally acknowledged as resources and are rendered inadequate, poor and ineffective for communication purposes, and for teaching and learning in the South African education system (Makoe & McKinney, 2014). English in the South African classroom serves to perpetuate, maintain and reinforce relations of power by privileging language practices, knowledge, register and style to the learners if taught accordingly.

English is so important to the learners as a language of wider communication and a gateway to international markets. Van der Walt (1997) argues that in countries where English is used as a language of wider communication, the users of English increasingly infuse that language with the accent, lexical items and value systems of their first language, particularly when English is also taught by non-native speakers. English-at-all-costs approach is being documented in the South African education system which suggests that language policy change within rural settings is dynamic, demanding further research.

Theron and Nel (2005) highlight the academic problems faced by the majority of the learners in state schools when trying to learn English. These linguistic problems compound the task of educators teaching English in state schools mainly in rural environments. They argue that learners in rural communities have inadequate English literary culture which occurs when there is a lack of childhood heritage of fables, nursery rhymes, proverbs, metaphors, songs and games which form part of the English-speaking child's cultural world. The second is a case of an inadequate mastery of mother tongue which is a result of the lack of maturity of the first language as foundation of the second language during academic exposure. The third is a delayed English acquisition which is a result of acquiring/learning English at an older age and in different circumstances when compared with English first language speakers of English. The fourth one is the lack of English resources to teach and learn the grammar and the culture of the language in question. The fifth is an exposure to a non-standard variety of English language. This has an impact in the study of English language, because different varieties have different orthography and phonics. The sixth embraces the linguistic problems such as poor literacy skills that result during the

learning of English in the Language Learning Area; reading, speaking, writing of, and listening to, English in all content areas across the curriculum, which is itself presented in English (Theron & Nel, 2005:223). This postulation reveals that many learners experience barriers to learning as a result of limited English proficiency, thus causing a mismatch between second language learners of English and the teacher mother tongue, causing further communication problems between teachers and learners. This is an indication that educators need empowerment. One would be to create a structured classroom support programme to be used by mainstream educators in support of second language learners of English with limited English proficiency. A programme that will provide practical, interactive material aimed at improving limited English proficiency to both teachers and learners in rural state schools in King Cetshwayo District. Burkett et al. (2001) postulate that the quality of English language use in the pedagogy of subject teachers and the learners lack proficiency in both academic and social use.

The term literacy means an individual's ability to read, write, and speak in English (Liddicoat, 2004). Language planning for literacy programmes is, therefore, a fundamentally social, political and academic activity which must be adhered to. A provision of print-based literacy programmes in order to develop widespread literate capabilities in reading and writing. Murriss (2014) argues that teachers in the mainstream school not only just will not, but also cannot teach literacy, especially grammar of English language. In the recent study by Murriss (2014), it was found that poor literacy performance suggests that there is an early literacy education crisis in South Africa.

English language teaching is a specialised field just like history, geography, physics and mathematics. It is thus unreasonable and sometimes insulting to teachers of English when it is assumed that teachers of all subjects can assist in the teaching of English (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004). While the teaching of English in most rural/state schools is done by underqualified teachers, learners are expected to use English for all the writing that is done in their subjects, with the exception of isiZulu. Most of the talk time in the classrooms is with some English code-mixing and code-switching. Because of these everyday teacher practices in most state schools of South Africa, the concept "education for all" becomes a completely empty concept if the

linguistic environment of the basic learners is not taken into account (Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004). It could then be argued that learning opportunities are not designed to meet the basic learning needs of the learners if the language of instruction becomes a barrier to knowledge. Likewise, education cannot possibly be equitable and non-discriminatory when the medium of instruction is a language that neither the teachers nor the learners can use sufficiently (Rudwick, 2004, Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004). The significant goal of a literate society is to transform the society in significant ways through the achievement of extra-linguistic goals for economic development, academic and social improvement. The current linguistic use of language in schools needs to be altered in such a way that it addresses the educational/academic needs of the learners.

There is an urgent need for the African curriculum designers to train and produce teachers of grammar who are keen to teach both literature and language without difficulties, teachers who are esteemed to teach in a bilingual African classroom without any difficulties. The teacher-education course in Africa must, therefore, be a teaching which is closely standardised to the settings of an African bilingual learner. This will not only help the learners in the acquisition and learning of grammar, but will assist teachers themselves in an effort to support their learners learning in two languages.

## **2.6 The Linguistic Obstacles to Bilingual Language Teaching and Learning**

Luchini and Crivos (2012) are of the view that grammar teaching is still the best tool available to minimise learning hardships in the education system. They define grammar as a device for constructing and conveying meaning without which, effective communication would be impossible. It is on this light that one may argue that teaching language without linguistic knowledge may produce learners who are not linguistically competent. Richards & Reppen (2014) argue that pedagogical developments in recent years on grammar teaching area have not been sufficient to answer the needs of language teachers to enable learners to gain grammatical knowledge, and as a result, language teaching in the mainstream schools remain a challenge to both teachers and learners. Literature suggests that one of the obstacles to English grammar teaching is first language (L1) interference which remains one of the most common barriers to

learning the structures of language for isiZulu learners in the King Cetshwayo District schools. It could therefore be argued that inadequate or absent knowledge of linguistic to teachers of language remains an obstacle to language teaching and learning.

Çelik and Kocaman (2016) argue that grammar is regarded as difficult by many international students due to the differences between their first languages and English and their experience on grammar-based instruction in previous classroom practices that result in thinking in L1 during speaking and writing; thus focusing on grammar structures impedes successful interaction. If grammar remains problematic in learners' studies, knowledge of vocabulary which is essential for learners to develop their speaking, listening, reading and writing skills will not be easily developed and this will cause what Mkhathshwa (2007) calls language deficit. Language teaching and learning, in the absence of linguistic knowledge from language teachers, is plagued by a number of linguistic barriers affecting learning such as individual differences, the affective issues (motivation, attitudes towards language learning, fear of failure) or the language learning aptitude. Kocaman & Cumaoglu (2014) cited in Çelik and Kocaman (2015) argue that the pronunciation or spelling of words can be another barrier for language learners and the most prevalent factor hindering vocabulary acquisition is that learners are not conscious or good at using effective vocabulary since both teachers and learners are struggling with the use of language/grammar. Pronunciation of standard language remains a linguistic obstacle to language teaching and learning. Pronunciation is one of the most important sub-skills of speaking and, regardless of accuracy or poor pronunciation, can make language teaching and learning difficult if it is not taught accordingly.

Liviero (2017) argue that teachers typically enter the teaching profession with idiosyncratic theories of how languages are best taught and mostly are not prepared in linguistics; as a result, are likely to base their personal experiences of second language learning on how they were taught while they were learners themselves without taking into consideration the changes in curricula. A study by Çelik and Kocaman (2015) postulate the teaching practices and ignorance of pronunciation practice in classroom activities as the most common barriers to language teaching. Some of the linguistic obstacles/ barriers to language teaching and learning include the L1-L2 differences or lack of emphasis in teaching pronunciation at primary and

secondary education which significantly cause barriers in language learning, attitudes and motivation are other affective factors in determining the success of foreign language learning. It is argued that both learners' and teachers' attitudes towards grammar teaching and learning has an effect in improvement of language teaching and learning.

Accordingly, the constant failures are most likely to lead learners to develop more negative attitudes towards the language learning. Gardner (2006) claims that motivation and attitude are so important factors that complement each other to enhance language learning. Teachers as individuals and their choice of methods and materials as well as coursebooks can affect the success of learners' improvement in second language learning, especially if the rules of language use are not taught. The learners who participated in Çelik and Kocaman (2015) study argued that teachers in their classroom interactions should be fair, enthusiastic, friendly, loving and be creative and and most importantly, they must know how to teach language, they must not guess, they must lead by example, they must know the pronunciation and four language skills adequately and explain grammar rules well. Çelik and Kocaman (2015:42) argue that:

The findings revealed that linguistic (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, speaking and reading skills), instructional (classroom management, teaching skills and methodology, tests, homework, coursebook, teacher as an individual, technology and background), affective factors (attitude, motivation, anxiety and self-confidence) and lack of assistance and resource (EFL context, lack of technology, internet and dictionary) constitute major difficulties in the learning English process.

According to the above analysis, barriers to learning English have been found as due to some features of English vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. Accordingly, the inefficiency of instructional factors such as teaching skills, techniques (e.g. grammar-based), classroom management and lack of consciousness on the learners' needs, proficiency and skills pose barriers to the English learning process. The author further argues that the affective factors such as negative attitudes towards English due to cultural (resistance to power of English) or instructional issues, anxiety, demotivation and lack of confidence may cause resistance to learn and improve English. Learners

should be trained for language learning strategies especially on vocabulary and grammar.

Beckerman (2017) is of the view that school performance seems to be most affected in subjects that require higher levels of concentration, such as grammar. It is for this linguistic fact that teachers of language must be qualified teachers so that language does not become an obstacle to academic and social development of a child. The author argues that any interruption in education and not having any education contribute to pre-literacy or significant low-literacy levels and other academic challenges when learning English grammar. Reeves (2009:112) as quoted in Beckerman (2017: 5) argue that 'Linguistic knowledge for teaching in the new sociocultural frame is teachers' ability to use and teach language in ways that grant learners a full range of expression'. Language knowledge is important in the school environment. It is vital for the learners to know how to comprehend, analyse and to punctuate speech without any linguistic difficulties. If language skills are not well structured to the learners' academic and social journey, the learner is more likely to struggle with progression well in both academic and in social life. Literacy includes the knowledge and skills which learners need in order to access, understand, analyse and evaluate any given information, make meaning from it, express thoughts and emotions through linguistic exposure to signs (grammatical structures), present ideas and opinions through language, interact with others and participate in activities at school and in their lives beyond school (Harris, Davidson & Aprile, 2015). The knowledge of a linguistic structure will help the learners to learn to be independent; working harmoniously with others; being open to ideas, opinions and about diverse linguistic cultures, which surround them in their daily lives.

Safford (2016) argues that secure subject knowledge is essential to teach pupils skilfully and confidently, and the statutory test has produced new expectations for teachers' grammar knowledge. It was found in the study that giving feedback to pupils on specific elements of word and sentence grammar, teaching the 'nuts and bolts' craft of writing, he is giving pupils tools to manipulate language. A question of attitude is always there in language studies. A study conducted by Borg (2003) found that 80% of the students believed that the formal study of grammar is vital to the ultimate mastery of the language and in his study, only 64% of the teachers shared this view.

This signals the impact of attitudes in the education landscape with learners believing that they can still master linguistic competence while their teachers hardly believe so. This is an example on how an attitude becomes an obstacle to language teaching and learning.

Borg (2003:105) compared both learners and teachers responses about the study of grammar and discovered that those comparisons highlighted discrepancies between these, particularly in relation to students' positive attitudes to formal instruction and regular, explicit error correction, compared to teachers' less favourable attitudes towards these aspects of language teaching. In the teaching of both English and isiZulu grammar in schools, the grammatical structures remain not only problematic to the learners, but also to the teachers who are supposed to teach them (Borg, 2003, Rudwick, 2004; Pretorius & Matjila, 2004, Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004, Frans, 2016, Safford, 2016 and Sibomana, 2017).

The teaching of lexis (including proper names, forms of address, loanwords, and cultural items) and idiomatic expressions remain a linguistic problem to both teachers and learners in the mainstream schools (Borg, 2003, Rudwick, 2004; Pretorius & Matjila, 2004, Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004, Frans, 2016, Safford, 2016 and Sibomana, 2017). This is seen through a number of English L2 learners who cannot read and write in both English and in their first language, isiZulu, and this is seen through poor matriculation results yearly. The use of loan words is a powerful means of foregrounding cultural orientation to the learners who are studying language as both a subject and as a language of learning since it denotes culture in a very explicit way. The proper use of loan words from isiZulu could be a significant strategy to teach language, both English and isiZulu, this would position the text in particular cultural directions which the L2 learners need to know before they master the structure of English language, which is foreign in the case of state or rural schools situated in the King Cetshwayo district. It is this grammaticalisation process which I think, if not introduced properly during English language teaching and learning in schools, may cause linguistic barriers to the study of language in general. It could also be argued that the role of the parents' attitudes and their beliefs about language, bilingualism and language learning is so crucial in their learners' success to language learning and teaching.

A study conducted by Lukhele in 2011 highlights absence of linguistic knowledge from a language teacher as an obstacle itself since the teacher will not be in a position to explain, analyse and give relevant feedback on issues of language in a classroom if knowledge of linguistics is absent. In her language study, it was found that the course that was failed by most participants was Academic Communication Skills, which involves among other skills, report and composition writing, reading comprehension, summary writing, grammar and literature. The findings of the study conducted by Çelik and Kocaman (2015) revealed that middle school students have difficulty in linguistic areas of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation respectively. The instructional factors such as teachers' choice of methodology, teaching and management skills, teacher knowledge of the field and affective factors adversely affect the language learning and development in the school system. It could then be argued that teacher training in universities need a strong focus on linguistics in order to minimise the linguistic gaps raised in literature.

As a result of colonisation, migration and the international business environment, most countries in the world have been transformed by the status quo of the English language, into bilingual or multilingual, multicultural societies, and South Africa is a good example, of such a country. This makes a study on bilingual education more relevant in today's business world. Language use and misuse in schools remains, not only an educational matter, but also an economic matter in today's linguistic society. In a South African rural school, teachers are faced with the dilemma of meeting the educational needs of diverse learners in their classrooms. It becomes very hard for them (teachers) to meet the linguistic demands of the learners when they themselves are struggling with the language of teaching and learning, which is English (Rudwick, 2004, Pretorius & Matjila, 2004).

It appears that there is a significant contradiction between what the teachers are supposed to teach in terms of language skills and how they should teach English grammar in their schools. It could be argued that the teachers who teach language are not sure whether to use the communicative approach or to focus on a structural approach. It could, however, be noted that most teachers in the mainstream schools do not have an understanding of both communicative and structural approaches to language teaching and learning. This is seen through a number of learners who are

struggling to read, write and speak in both secondary and tertiary education, in both their L1 and through their L2. As a result, teachers in the mainstream school tend to focus on fluency and grammatical accuracy, which they themselves have limited understanding of (Alimi, 2011). Linguistic skills, (listening, speaking, reading and writing) enable the learners to express themselves across cultural and language boundaries. They are pivotal in the study of any language and they must be taught by a qualified language teacher who has complete understanding of both the learners' L1 grammar and English grammar.

Language teaching in schools should be done by qualified language teachers. This is crucial, because it foregrounds grammatical analysis since the interpretation of a given passage depends crucially on grammatical analysis, which both learners and the language teacher should possess. Linguistic obstacles in this study refer to the barriers, that is, anything that prevents or makes it difficult for the learner to learn effectively or to participate fully in the curriculum.

The linguistic barriers/obstacles to language teaching and learning may be caused by the incorrectly applied language teaching styles/strategies, language misuse inside the classroom and through grammar teaching by non-language teachers. This implies that the ultimate goal of grammar teaching in most, if not all, rural state schools, is the focus on communicative competence and not discrete grammar. This hinders the learners' progress in terms of linguistic skills development and the use for various purposes in life; it is through grammar that learners master both literary and non-literary text without any shortcomings. Both academic and social life has increasingly become multilingual and multicultural, allowing the motivated language learner to practise the language with native speakers of the target language (English). It could be argued that cultural distance between the learners' L1 and their L2 is an important obstacle in mastery of grammar of the target language (English in this case), since the grammatical structures of both the learners' L1 and L2 are not the same and could not be interpreted the same way. Therefore, the teaching of language should be made by a qualified language teacher.

Learners who are successful writers in the early years tend to continue to be good writers in the later years, while those who do not successfully learn to write in the early

years of school often continue to struggle in the later years (Puranik & Lonigan, 2014). This is an indication that literacy skills become obstacles to language teaching and learning if they are not adequately rooted or mastered during the early years of schooling. Spelling and handwriting remain the necessary tools for the production of written language in the primary years, across early and later primary grades until secondary and tertiary education. Writing plays a significant role in young children's learning. It is very important that a clear understanding of the dimensions of writing are mastered for the learners' language development. This could be of great help to the L2 learners of English in the academic journey later in life.

Sentence structure, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation remain pivotal in the study of language. Teachers in most state schools consider language learning as instrumental when they organise ideas and structure texts as important aspects of writing (McCarthy & Mkhize). This tendency is well practised in most state schools situated in rural areas. The emphasis should be the focus on the explicit teaching of forms, organisational structures and linguistic features of different types of writing for the development of a linguistic skill in the English language. The teaching that supports students to move beyond tacit understandings of sentence structure is critical and should be encouraged so that learners will learn linguistic skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in a more fruitful way.

McKenzie et al. (2015) are of the view that text structure, sentence structure and vocabulary work together to assist the writer to compose their writing. It could then be argued that learners need to be skilled in the grammatical elements of text creation so that they are fluent language users in their grade and beyond. The teaching methodology advocated in schools, teachers' preparedness and how these factors affect English language teaching and assessment are a major concern in the linguistic society as a whole. It could be argued that in order for one to be proficient in the English language, one must be in a position to effectively communicate or understand thoughts or ideas through the language's grammatical system. These grammatical elements remain crucial in the mastery of English grammar.

### **2.6.1 Teaching Materials**

One of the linguistic obstacles to the study of language in schools includes the text, which is used by the teachers when they teach language. The bulk of language teaching materials, which are brought in class have assumed that all learners are the same. There has been something of a mismatch between the actual learner variation in real classrooms, and the homogeneity implied by most course books, a mismatch which has been the teacher's lot to cope with, as best she or he can (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003). The materials which teachers use in class for the teaching of language include the newspapers, language books, teacher prepared handouts, magazines and others. The concern then is whether the learners in high schools in the King Cetshwayo district are sufficiently proficient to effectively communicate their ideas and thoughts in English, after they have been taught through these linguistic texts.

Kamwendo (2008) is of the view that teachers in public schools are perceived as not being competent, because they codeswitch extensively between English and isiZulu, which happens both inside and outside the classroom. This is because both the teachers and the learners are still learning to communicate in English. This language practice could be seen as disadvantageous to the L2 learners of English, since most learners have very few opportunities outside the school environment to use English language, simply because they come from homes where English is not used at all.

The linguistic text that is used by the teachers in the teaching of English is not linguistically 'pure'. That is, it is culturally biased, making learners to commit linguistic errors which are culturally linked. These errors are predominantly from L1 interference and that it is the fossilisation of these errors which produces errors in their speech. A move that will affirm the global nature of English as a language of communication is a positive move towards mastery of linguistic skills to the learners of English language. Alimi (2011) postulates that English is one of the linguistic repertoires of the learners, many of whom are not aiming to integrate into a native English environment due to the methodology in which English is presented or taught to them, and because of the variety which their teachers use when they teach them, the indigenised variety of English language, in the case of schools in rural areas. Further, Alimi (2011) argues that many educated Africans, including teachers of English, have been unable to take ownership of the African varieties of English primarily for lack of confidence, and due to the lack of grammatical competence on their side.

What could be argued as the basis for linguistic barriers to language teaching and learning is that schools are the contradictions between policy and practice, and this has shown that the facts on the ground suggest that teaching and assessment are guided more by the indigenised variety of English, which neither the learners nor the teachers are proficient in. While some parents are in no way opposed towards the indigenised variety, the teachers who speak and use the variety do not accept it as the norm for teaching and assessment (Alimi, 2011). As a result of this contradiction, the LiEP (1997) should recognise the way English reflects the language ecology of the country and must accommodate the structural approach towards linguistic skills development to the learners of English language. This could mean that, the country needs to invest in locally produced teaching materials which will reflect how English in South Africa represents the cultural and socio-economic realities of the country at large. By so doing, it would be easy for the teachers and the learners to communicate through the everyday dialogue.

Because of learners' low English proficiency, Pile and Smythe (1999), as quoted by Parkinson and Crouch (2011), found that teachers fail to use textbooks, so learners have restricted models for writing. Learners' homes are largely oral as a result; literacy in any language suffers in terms of vocabulary and grammar development. Because of this linguistic situation and because of societal bilingualism which occurs when in a given society two or more languages are spoken, code-switching becomes the only available option in the classroom during teaching and learning. It could be postulated that the pragmatic analysis of code-switching inside the classroom is heavily influenced by the context in which it appears. Redinger (2010) is of the view that learners and teachers code-switch in order to achieve various context-bound goals such as that of clarifying curriculum content and/or managing classroom discourse and interpersonal relationships. It is through this context that any teaching of grammar by a non-language teacher will create confusion and fruitless outcomes. This will be as a result of the lack of grammar teaching skills, grammar knowledge and lack of language content knowledge.

The Department of Basic Education, (DoBE, 2003) postulates that these various forms or types of assessment could be used by the teachers to assess learners' achievement in the subject content they are being assessed in. These forms of assessments include

tests, performance-based assessments, interviews, questionnaires, assignments, case studies, practical exercises, demonstrations, projects, role-plays, simulations, observations and self-report assessment. Contrary to the DoBE's mandate, the languages which children use at homes are seen as obstacles inside the classroom and sources of interference in the learning of English, whilst the teachers are also struggling with the use of English inside the classroom (Rudwick, 2004; Pretorius & Matjila, 2004).

Govender (2009) argues that in the normal classroom situation, when different subjects are taught, they are predominantly associated with a specific language (English) and, in the language class itself, the use of any other language except the target language (English) is generally forbidden. This signals a high rate of linguistic misuse during normal language teaching and learning inside the classroom, which is where learners are expected to master the subject content without adequate linguistic skills being developed by them. This could be an indication that language teachers need linguistic components in their training so that they will be aware of the role of the learners' first language in the communicative and academic processes. Learners are required to negotiate difficult transitions between home and school yet at schools they are not allowed to use their L1 for communication. This practice could cause a mental block to the learner's mind (Mkhatshwa, 2007). This is because, as learners progress through the grades, they are increasingly required to manipulate language in cognitively-demanding and context-reduced situations that differ significantly from everyday conversational interactions in the language which they have not attained mastery of.

Barriers can be caused by, among other factors, inappropriate language and communication (DoBE, 2005:10). One of the three main barriers associated with language and communication is that learners are often forced to communicate and learn in a language which they do not usually use at home and are not competent to learn effectively (DoBE, 2005:11). Teaching and learning for many learners may take place through their second language, which is English in this case. Such a practice inhibits communication in class. Most second language teaching and learning obstacles often emanate from the ideologically and politically-driven policies. It then becomes difficult for the learner to acquire linguistic skills if support from policy makers

is not granted to the child. Academic proficiency, the ability not only to use language for reading and writing, but also to acquire information in content subjects as well, becomes a dream deferred.

### **2.6.2 Linguistic Challenges to Bilingual Classrooms**

One of the linguistic obstacles to the study of language in schools includes the linguistic challenges of teaching a language, which are cultural, cognitive and psychological in nature. English L2 learners are faced with the challenges in learning a new culture and they exhibit a wide diversity in learning styles as well (Govender, 2009). Smith (2004:46) contends that acculturation and assimilation also play a role in creating diversity among learners. Native speakers of a given language utilise not only its grammar and vocabulary, but also its distinctive customs, patterns of thought, and styles of learning. Sheets (2002:46). argues that a child from a culture in which personal emotions and opinions are considered inappropriate for public display may withdraw from class participation. Looking at anxiety from a language perspective, the essence of English language anxiety can be viewed as a threat to an individual's self-concept caused by the inherent limitations of communicating in an imperfectly mastered L2, which is the English language.

L2 anxiety is a distinct complex set of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviour related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process (Govender, 2009). When anxiety relates to the use of an L2, it often arises in speaking and listening, which reflects learner's apprehension at having to communicate spontaneously in the L2 (Huimin, 2008). The author also notes that the causes of speaking anxiety mainly arose from a fear of making errors, of being laughed at, of poor evaluation, poor, unsuitable teaching materials and tasks, and low English proficiency. This linguistic phenomenon could be linked to Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis (2003) which emphasises that low motivation, low self-esteem, and very high anxiety can combine to raise the affective filter and result in a mental block that prevents input from being used for language acquisition, and when such blockage occurs, it often obstructs instrumental language learning by the learner. This is because the fear of making errors raises the affective filter high, in such a way that they are unwilling to take the risks involved in real communication, and they (learners)

cease participation in language teaching and learning. Teachers need to motivate their learners that a mistake in language learning is just the next positive step towards achieving mastery of a language, grammar in particular. This is because, the more anxious the learner is, the worse his or her performance becomes in language learning.

Govender (2009) is of the view that linguistic isolation can make learners feel unsafe, insignificant, and friendless, which affects participation in classroom activities. This is because these learners experience great cognitive demands as they are required to speedily learn both language and content in order to participate fully in the school curriculum, which is a problem in the rural environments where both the teacher and the learner are struggling with the use of English language for academic purposes and for social conduct.

L2 learners of English often exhibit the problems associated with learning a new language, problems such as comprehension and articulation difficulties, limited vocabulary, and grammatical errors in their writing and speaking. If a learner who is learning English as an L2 finds it difficult to achieve a particular level of language acquisition and proficiency, then transmission of knowledge and information becomes difficult and, in turn, teaching and learning of English becomes challenging for both the teacher and the learner (Sheppard, 2001). Learners who are not fluent with the English language encounter difficulties in their academic journey and this makes them seen as lacking proficiency in their studies, just because of a language barrier. As a result, they are required to read assigned readings to them and they face difficulties understanding class discussions, and difficulties in communicating concerns and viewpoints since the language of teaching and learning are a barrier to them.

The inability of L2 learners of English to converse fluently in the English language prevents them from becoming socially involved in the academic processes which are presented in English. This inability to communicate often leads to miscommunication and the unpleasant experience which is as a result of lack of structural and communicative skills required in order to communicate in the academic society. Improper language mastery often leads to feelings of disappointment and discontent, and it could be argued that these feelings may give rise to social isolation. It is,

therefore, imperative that teachers of English understand the development aspects that learners undergo as they learn English language in a bilingual environment.

Another linguistic obstacle is that which is postulated by Sheets (2002:47) when the author argues that learners in the mainstream classroom might understand incoming language, but may not be able to produce language that expresses their understanding. This could be as a result of mother tongue interference where the rules of L1 interfere with the rules of L2. For example, in the English language, the use of idiomatic expressions differs in sentence structure with those of the isiZulu language, i.e. isiZulu: **Ukubona kanye ukubona kabili**. The English version is: **Once beaten, twice shy**. A direct translation from mother tongue to English is a major linguistic obstacle to the study of language. Teachers of English grammar need to be skilled in linguistics so that it would be easy for them to identify these linguistic problems faced by learners whom they teach, and offer speedy remedy to the identified linguistic problems. The difference in the study of English in a bilingual environment is also in vocabulary where one word for the English language could be used in the isiZulu language to mean different things, and vice versa, as in: **umfundisi** in isiZulu could mean both a **pastor** and a **teacher** in English, depending on the tone of the isiZulu speaker. A word like **law** in English could be interpreted by an isiZulu speaker to mean **legislation, rules, regulation, act, statute, bill, guidelines** and **instructions**, while in isiZulu all these words could be replaced by one word, that is, **umthetho**. One could imagine the difficulties learners go through when they study language in a bilingual classroom where both the teacher and the learners are not knowledgeable with these linguistic uses of a language.

Another problem is that of the use of prepositions in English, where in isiZulu a sentence is complete and meaningful without a preposition for example: **Ubaba uya emsebenzini**. In this sentence, a preposition is attached to a noun (emsebenzini) and is hidden to a non-isiZulu language grammar teacher. In English this sentence could be translated as: **My father is going to work**. Even if these two sentences were to be put in a tree diagram of the English grammar, the structure would totally differ. This may be a contributing factor to the learners' difficulties in the mastery of grammar in a bilingual classroom situation.

The assumption that learners do not speak out does not necessarily mean that they do not comprehend the discussion or they do not have something to contribute, in fact they do. It is just that they are overcome by the linguistic problems indicated above, problems with bilingual grammar. Because learning in English is still faced with multiple challenges to the L2 learners in a bilingual classroom, learning through the medium of L2 will imply that IsiZulu-speaking learners will experience cognitive deficits (Mkhatshwa, 2007). One of the reasons for this could be that isiZulu speaking learners have very little or no exposure to the English language at home, as a result, they do not have enough opportunities to use the English language in their conversations at home. English to them is the language of the classroom.

It could be argued that, because of the above highlighted linguistic obstacles to the study of English grammar in a bilingual classroom, learners experience problems which include difficulties with the choice of words in the construction of sentences and the general knowledge of grammatical units in their speech. Some other factors which could be identified as contributing factors towards teaching and learning journey include the distance which the learners travel when they go to and from schools. Many learners travel long distances to and from school and these distances are travelled on foot. This impacts negatively on their learning. During the course of teaching and learning, learners might show signs of fatigue, which manifest as poor concentration in the classroom. These problems may not be linguistic in nature but they negatively contribute to the normal teaching and learning of language inside the classroom.

L2 learners of English studying in a bilingual classroom experience great cognitive and social demands as they are required to master both language and content as well as to develop social relationships in order to participate fully in the school curriculum. The linguistic difficulties which are experienced by L2 learners of English include grammar, expression, and figurative language (Govender, 2009). Considering the role of language in the learners' academic career, it could be argued that teachers need to identify, assess and provide support to L2 learners of English. An early identification of the learners who experience language barriers may lead to early intervention of those linguistic barriers to learning. Because of grammar hardships among teachers and learners in most state schools situated in rural areas, it seems that there is an urgent need for schools to elicit the services of language professionals to conduct

English grammar workshops in schools which are not doing well in their academic activities. Such an idea will help both the teachers and learners in their use of the English language, both socially and academically. Due to the demands of a competent linguistic society, inclusive in-service and pre-service training of English language teachers should be done to ensure that they are well equipped to teach English grammar to the bilingual society.

### **2.6.3 The Teaching of Language by non-Language Teachers**

Comprehension is fundamental in the reading process for a learner to read appropriately. The learner's understanding of words that are used, linking words or cohesive devices, is above all, of key importance as this aids understanding of a linguistic text. If a reader does not pay attention to language cues, the reading might only be superficial and thus affect comprehensibility of texts (Mkhatshwa, 2007). The same applies to a language teacher, if language is taught by any teacher who does not have any linguistic understanding of a language, as the end product will be disastrous.

Mkhatshwa (2005) established from the students' work that it cannot be presumed that non-native speakers would have knowledge of the structure of a given language and working of the English language without explicit instruction. This grammatical knowledge of sentential structure, as argued by Mkhatshwa also applies to native speakers in order for them to fully appreciate and negotiate meaning, in terms of what they mean to say exactly. It could then be argued that learners' lack of sentential structure restricts their ability to access information in the form of thoughts and ideas. This is largely worse if both the teacher and the learner do not have knowledge of grammatical structure, and even worst if language is taught by a non-language teacher.

English language, or any other language, if it is taught by any teacher who is not a language teacher, a teacher who, in his/her training does not have grammatical knowledge, both the learners and the teacher will be unable to identify, interpret and analyse the main idea in any given sentence in English. Learners in the mainstream school need to be competent in the use of language structures such as words, phrases and clauses, the structural elements of communication, in order for them to be

competent readers. In order to achieve these linguistic skills among the learners, a competent language (grammar) teacher is needed for the realisation of this objective. Mkhathshwa (2007) postulates that in the non-realisation of these skills (language skills) among the second language learners during their language learning, a mental deficit may occur in the case of bilingual language learners. He argues that learners of English language, especially in a bilingual environment, need to be taught and acquire a broad and deep knowledge of the use of the English and isiZulu language structures that are put to use in both speech and in writing.

Since most learners' cognitive abilities are impaired by syntactic impediments due to lack of structural knowledge of the English language, it could be argued that through the normal teaching of language in schools, language must be taught by the language teacher who is adequately trained to be able to deal with the incredible complexity of the grammar of English. Without adequate linguistic training of language teachers in an attempt to help them acquire mastery of English grammar, English language teachers may find themselves unable to interpret and analyse linguistic texts for academic use (Mkhathshwa, 2007). Teachers of the English language must be given specific training in language teaching skills, not just general training but linguistic training in the use and analysis of language structure. This will, in the long run, help produce learners who are responsible citizens of the country when it comes to academic participation. Grammar has an important role to play in the sociolinguistic and academic language use. Any linguistic shortcomings on the side of the language teacher can have disastrous consequences in knowledge production in other subjects, which the learner is studying as well. Nienaber (2002:5), as quoted by Mkhathshwa (2007:126), argues that:

In the context of legal education..., language training has always been considered the responsibility of the legal experts rather than that of the language teacher. However, most [language] educators have neither the time nor the expertise in language teaching to train their students in the intricacies of [language] communication...In most cases; it is like learning surgery from experience, which can be very difficult for the surgeon and equally hard on the patient.

This could be seen as a crisis in both teacher and learner education if both the learners and the teachers do not have adequate knowledge on the use of English language

grammar, its use and analysis in a given context. Thus, success on textual competence, pragmatic competence and strategic competence is impossible if language is taught by non-language experts.

Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000:68-69) are of the view that in order for one to be able to communicate effectively, both the language teacher and the language learner need to know the basic communication competencies, that is, grammatical competence, which is the knowledge of combining the linguistic units of a language into grammatical wholes (words or sentences). The second linguistic competence which is vital in language study is textual competence, which is knowledge of combining sentences into effective texts or conversations or discourses. The third linguistic competency is pragmatic competence, which is the ability to use language to perform a chosen function, as well as the ability to select the appropriate way of speaking in specific situations, and the fourth is the strategic competence, which is the ability to manipulate linguistic forms to achieve one's communicative intention. It is for this implication by Webb and Kembo-Sure that it could not be assumed that L2 learners of English have knowledge of the structure of the English language without explicit instruction by a qualified language teacher.

From a general linguistic point of view, when learners learn English language, after they have already learned their first language, which isiZulu in this case. The grammatical and the structural elements of the two languages differ considerably. This is because; the grammatical and structural knowledge of the first language (isiZulu) affects the linguistic structure of the English language. It could, therefore, be argued that bilingual language teaching and learning needs to be done in an environment where the language teacher is competent in both isiZulu and English grammar so that it would be easy to address linguistic structures in both languages, making grammar teaching and learning fruitful, as Mkhathshwa (2007) postulates that there is lack of knowledge of sentential structure among L2 learners of English which results in a cognitive deficit, which are the limitations on mental efficiency required to process information in an additional language, such as English.

The linguistic structures of a language help the learner with complete understanding of any linguistic text, provided that the learner has mastered the skills necessary for textual analysis. It is, therefore, logical that in L2 learning, the study of English

grammar should be adequately taught by a language professional and not by any teacher in the school. Therefore, since second-language learning usually takes place in situations of formal instruction and learners acquire the rules and units of the target language through guided instruction by a teacher, the language teacher should be an expert in the target language to be able to make informed judgements as regards the immediate aspects of English grammar that are a source of difficulty in students' act of understanding English grammar (Mkhatshwa, 2007, Webb & Kembo-Sure, 2000, Govender, 2009). The language teacher must be adequately trained to teach the grammar of English. Teachers who do not have expertise and qualifications to teach language must not be allowed to teach language; as such a practice yields negative consequences on the overall learner academic achievement. The difference between structure words and content words is crucial in the study of language. Decision makers need to know that adequate mastery of the English language by L2 English learners is a resource for effective learning, and this resource must not be taken away from them (learners) through the use of non-language teachers to teach language to the learners, through the teaching of language by unqualified teachers, through the use of mother tongue speakers who are without any training, to teach language, and through the use of any under-performing teachers in their specialisation to teach language.

#### **2.6.4 Attitudes towards Grammar Teaching and Learning**

Knowing a language and knowing about the language are crucial when teaching a language. Linguistics facilitates the teacher's understanding of the workings of the language and the process of explaining that language to the student. In short, 'grasping the linguistic phenomenon generally helps us to have a better command of the language, to be more aware of the language and to perform in the classroom more efficiently (Gómez and Osborne, 2000 quoted in Sibomana, 2017). Even though there are claims that a language teacher does not need linguistics to teach in a high school because the teacher will not be teaching linguistics, It could then be argued that lack of linguistic knowledge to language teachers may result in the development of attitudes in the teaching and learning of language because, according to Murray and Christison (2011), linguistics helps teachers of English (or any other language) to understand how it 'works', how it is learned, and their role in the English language classroom. In other words, applied linguistics is likely to give the teacher a useful strategic advantage

when challenged, and increases his or her confidence in his or her pedagogical choices.

Elyıldırım and Ashton (2006) are of the view that attitudes form a part of one's perception of self, of others, and of the culture in which one is living. They argue that when learners with positive attitudes experience success, their attitudes are reinforced whereas learners with negative attitudes may fail to progress and become even more negative in their language learning attitudes. Because attitudes can be modified by experience, effective language teaching strategies can encourage students to be more positive towards the language they are learning (p.3). It could be argued that attitudes and motivation are complex social, cultural, and psychological factors that influence how a learner approaches many situations in life, including second language learning. Attitudes, being obstacles to language learning, are crucial to the study of language because they influence either/both positive and negative learning.

Language teachers need to have a knowledge base on which to draw in their teaching. The author argues that part of this knowledge base is 'subject matter knowledge' of which linguistic knowledge is a key component for language teachers. Linguistic knowledge enables them to understand how language works, how it is learned, the nature of their roles in the language classroom and the social and political phenomena and decisions which have a strong impact on language use and teaching. Such knowledge assists teachers in handling the errors and mistakes which learners make, in working effectively with learners' languages in a second/additional language classroom and in responding to social factors which can affect language teaching (Sibomana, 2017:93). Language teaching needs teachers who have knowledge of a language. , knowledge which Day and Conklin (1992) as quoted by Sibomana (2017) refer to as 'content knowledge', means the knowledge of the subject matter or what the language teachers teach which is comprised of courses in syntax, semantics, phonology, pragmatics, literary and cultural aspects of a language. The author argues that linguistics can help teachers to think critically and constructively about language, which can lead to the design and choice of the most feasible and practical language teaching pedagogy.

Frans (2016) is of the view that barriers to second language learning includes a mother tongue, which affects second language learning negatively, environment (such as poverty, socio-linguistic, underdevelopment, place and attitudes towards learning), age, motivation, phonetics and semantic concepts, general exposure to English, poor foundation skills/early English exposure and cognitive academic writing. In his study, he found that learners lacked basic English skills. Students realised and mentioned that they needed more exercises or practical work to improve their English proficiency. Writing and speaking skills are essential not only in the working environment, but also in a person's life. From the author's postulations, it was discovered in his study that learners/students showed an inability to write correct sentences (syntax) and this was noticed in their written work. This was a concern for both lecturers and students. Although students spoke fluently, there was still much work to be done regarding writing. The students themselves confirmed that they needed to master basic grammar that would enable them to improve their English proficiency in written and speaking skills.

Both time and attitude to teach language remain barriers/ obstacles towards language teaching and learning. Frans (2016) looks at the duration to teach language to struggling learners as an obstacle towards language teaching. It was found in his study that when learners enter tertiary education with a low English proficiency level, they cannot be expected to become proficient in English in a short period of time. This problem is exacerbated when the English courses they have enrolled for at these institutions have duration of a mere three to four months in a semester. In addition, time allocated to these courses has a great impact on teaching English courses in the sense that lecturers are prevented from employing good instructional methods because the time allowed is too short to accommodate such methods; lecturers must rush to finish the syllabus and as a result the situation remains unchanged (Frans, 2016:169).

The role of the language teacher inside the classroom is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, first as an organizer of resource and as a resource itself, second, as a guide within the classroom procedure activities. Thirdly, the role of a teacher is that of a researcher and learner with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and

observed experience of the nature of learning and organizational capacities. (Mowlaie and Rahimi, 2010). Epstein (1990) as quoted by (Mowlaie and Rahimi, 2010) argues that that beliefs about learning a language, and most probably teaching a language as well are intertwined with factors such as self-concept and identity, self-efficacy, personality, attitudes towards language teaching and other individual differences. It could then be argued that any attitude towards the study of language may adversely affect the normal teaching and learning process, be it an attitude from a teacher or from the learners.

In their study (Mowlaie and Rahimi, 2010), it was found that it cannot be denied that their (teachers) belief system has an impact on the way they run the class. One can be certain that no theory or principle or techniques, makes little difference how meticulously worded by the researcher, will be applied well or satisfactorily unless it meets some of the teachers' system of belief about the nature of learning and teaching. Teachers' influential beliefs or attitudes about language teaching, attitudes on learners behaviour in class, attitudes about parental involvement in their children's' study will always play a role in the study of language.

It was also found that most teachers of language had difficulty in putting their theoretical knowledge about language teaching into practice; or maybe do not really know how. This shows that mere being familiar with a concept cannot guarantee its successful implementation in the classroom. Some of the attitudes towards language teaching emanate when one does not know how to teach a section of language in class, and then develops a negative attitude towards the class/learners and the profession itself. The study found that teachers did not feel the need and necessity of implementing communicative approaches as they did not believe in enabling students to communicate well in a language which is their second language.

It is argued that both state and trait variables, including self-confidence, intergroup motivation, intergroup attitudes, and personality, were shown to affect one's language learning and understanding in the L2 where language is taught with an attitude which neither encourages nor builds the learner to master it for the purposes of academic and social use (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu, 2004). Teachers have a role to, through language teaching; prepare learners for communicative competence when they enter higher education and to improve learners' practical communicative skills

which are a societal demand. In order for these demands to be met, knowledge of linguistic structure is important so that language learning and teaching will not be compromised. In their study (Yashima, Zenk-Nishide and Shimizu, 2004) it was found that an attitude towards language use is a linguistic obstacle. They found that contextual variables, such as when and where the interaction takes place, who the communication partner is, and who is present in the situation are factors that cause an attitude to communicate and they do indeed affect how willing one is to communicate in a given situation.

To improve communicative skills one needs to use language. To gain communicative competence one needs to be taught about how language is used in different contexts for different purposes and this skill can easily be attained if the learner is taught by a teacher who has knowledge of linguistics. Yashima, Zenk-Nishide and Shimizu (2004) argue that it is expected that students with a higher level of integrativeness and stronger L2 learning motivation will more readily interact with an L2 language group than those with a lower level of integrativeness and motivation. This again highlights the notion of motivation and an attitude as obstacles to the study of language. The higher level of motivation links to self-confidence, possibly through learning behaviour and its resultant competence. Language teaching remains crucial for conducive motivation, learning, confidence, and attainment of a linguistic skill which one needs in their social and academic journey of life.

Any lack of positive attitudes about certain aspects of language teaching will consciously or unconsciously move the class from communicative norms to a situation where learners are viewed as tourists in class. In their study, it was recommended that in order to deal with the notion of attitude in the teaching of language, Group work is a better way to learn a language than teacher-fronted class, a teacher should assume the responsibility for responding learners language needs (provided that the teacher is trained to teach language), and learners should be helped in any way that motivates them to work with language so that they will use it in their benefit in other subjects as well, and in their academic and social lives beyond school. therefore, it could be argued that, regarding teachers' modified yet influential role in language classes, it cannot be denied that their belief system has an impact on the way they run the class, and therefore, their belief system (attitude) is an obstacle to the study of language

since it does not help learners achieve to their full potential in school, as a result, an attitude towards language teaching impacts on the achievement of learners in their other subjects as well.

### **2.6.5 Teachers' Attitudes towards Grammar Teaching**

Schwartz, Mendoza & Meyer (2017) argue that basic knowledge of, and understanding different text is crucial in one's life span. This knowledge is mastered after when one has been taught sentential structure of a language. Basic text structures, such as comparing ideas, showing solutions that respond to problems are easily taught when the teacher has knowledge of linguistics. The author argues that there are individual differences in the ability to use text structure and that poor readers are unlikely to use structure, even when texts have signaling words. It can be stressed out that this skill can be acquired through explicit instruction on how to use language for different purposes in life. A Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is of great help, it helps one to focus on meaningful choices available in a language for use (e.g. active vs. passive, direct vs. indirect; formal vs. informal, and the theory explores how language ought to be used in social contexts to achieve communicative goals. Any absence of linguistic structure in the teaching of language results in the manifestation of attitudes caused by conflicts to explain linguistic concepts in class.

Language teaching in schools is in a crisis, especially in a location where this study was conducted. Nel and Muller (2010) discovered in their study that language teachers made basic errors such as grammatical errors, incorrect use of tenses, concord and spelling errors. This was generally applicable to all the teachers who participated in their study.

Nel and Muller (2010:636) argue that issues which contribute to attitudes towards language learning for learners include lack of access to newspapers, magazines, TV and radio; lack of opportunity to hear or to speak English; lack of English reading material at home and at school; and poor language teaching by teachers whose own English proficiency is limited. This is because, according to Pretorius and Machet (2004:58) as quoted by Nel and Muller (2010) teachers of Literacy/language are themselves unskilled and do not read due to a strong oral culture and lack of reading

materials. It is problems like these that make language learning difficult; as a result, attitudes from both learners and teachers will emerge.

## **2.7 The Language Teaching and learning Situation in other African Countries**

Frans (2016) argues that in Namibia there is no research which has been done on the writing and oral skills of students at tertiary level and this is because of the attitudes involved in the teaching of language at high school levels and in the lower grades. Attitudes which manifest itself in language teaching and which significantly contributed to the findings of his study where it was found that learners were not performing well in L2 at secondary schools which is a linguistic phenomenon which hinders their chances of pursuing further studies at institutions of higher learning. In his study, it was discovered that language teaching in secondary schools needs serious remedy. The study found that the development of students' knowledge of language feature was lacking because students were not provided opportunities to build, extend and refine oral language in order to improve their written output. Learners need to be taught in conducive environments where their linguistic skills are sharpened in such that they are in a position to communicate effectively and to use language accordingly. Qualified language teachers are important because they are in a position to detect, analyse and to give remedy to the learners problems which they will encounter during language studies. The all forms of assessments which may be given to the learners, assessments such as giving the learners activities for talking in class, using language for different purposes, role play, speeches, debates etc., helps the learners to improve on their language skills which is essential for use in other subjects aswell.

A study which was conducted by Sibomana (2017) in Rwanda highlights similar linguistic obstacles to the study of language inside the classrrom. In his study, it was found that language teaching and learning in Rwanda the introduction of linguistics in the language teachers education may be of great help since linguistics knowledge can help teachers to think critically and constructively about language, which can lead to the design and choice of the most feasible and practical language teaching pedagogy. It was however, noted that teachers in the Rwandan schooling system lack this linguistic component. As a result, they are disadvantaged in explain communicative

and grammatical structures of a language to the learners whom they teach since the most taught language aspect is literature (poems, short stories and drama). The study found that teachers have a very limited content and command to teach language; as a result, they are unable to equip the learners with the kind of linguistic knowledge they need.

Kadingdi (2007) highlights the language teaching situation in Ghana as the one that has collapsed. The author argues that the education system in Ghana has undergone enormous changes in the last 50 years. Over this period it has gone from being highly regarded among African nations, through a period of collapse and more recently rejuvenation, supported by a donor-funded reform programme (Kadingdi, 2007:3). The author postulates that the most significant factor that affected the imbalance in the Ghanaian education system was an inability to provide schools with trained teachers. With the increase in the number of schools, more teachers were needed and so many 'pupil teachers' (e.g. untrained teachers) had to be employed to teach, resulting in poor teaching and learning in schools during this period. It is in a situation like this that qualified personnel are needed for the benefit of learners and of the whole society.

Mooko (2005) argues that the language teaching in Botswana is learnt primarily through instruction in the classroom, by a teacher. For such a situation, there is therefore a need to have a cadre of teachers who have the competence to teach the language effectively. The author postulates that teachers need constant in-service training if they are to keep up with developments in education and must engage with relevant research in order to improve on their teaching, if possible, must undertake research activities that will enable them to critically review available research on language teaching, as well as reflect on their own teaching practice so that their skills of language teaching are improved.

Ellis (2006) argues that grammar teaching is essential in that it contributes to interlanguage development of a child. Grammar teaching should be one that emphasises not just form but also the meanings and uses of different grammatical structures. Teachers should endeavour to focus on those grammatical structures that are known to be problematic to learners rather than try to teach the whole of grammar. Ellis postulates that:

The influence of structural grammars is still apparent today, modern syllabuses rightly give more attention to the functions performed by grammatical forms. Thus, for example, less emphasis is placed on such aspects of grammar as sentence patterns or tense paradigms and more on the meanings conveyed by different grammatical forms in communication (2006:86).

It is through the knowledge of linguistic structure that language usage may be practical where basic errors such as grammatical errors, incorrect use of tenses, concord and spelling errors may be taught and be avoided during speech and writing. It is therefore, a good start to emphasise the teaching of grammar in the early stages of Second Language acquisition and to emphasise focused language instruction and to introduce grammar teaching when learners have already begun to form their interlanguage.

## **2.8 Analysis of Errors in the Teaching of Grammar**

Gómez and Osborne (2000) as quoted by Sibomana (2017) postulate that linguistics cannot be separated from language teaching because knowledge of linguistics is essential for language awareness in the language teacher. This then helps a teacher trained in linguistics to easily access and analyse linguistic issues which manifests in the language classroom, and be in a position to give pedagogy. Hasyim (2002) postulates that error analysis may be carried out in order to find out how well someone knows a language, to find out how a person learns a language, and to obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. In a more general sense, this could be understood as the process to observe, analyse, and classify the deviations of the rules of the second language. It is important for the language teacher to know the errors made by the learners in speaking or in writing English language and it is carried out to obtain information on common difficulties faced by someone in speaking or in writing English sentences.

The causes of errors of English are multiple. Hasyim (2002) postulates that one of the causes of L2 errors is interlingual transfer, which is the negative influence of the mother tongue of learners. Another cause includes intralingual transfer, which is the negative transfer of items within the target language. It could be argued that the

incorrect generalisation of rules within the target language has a great impact on the linguistic use of English by L2 speakers of it.

Error correction is essential in helping students become more accurate in using the English language, especially in a bilingual environment. Mourtaga (2004), as quoted by Abushihab (2014), argues that errors and mistakes are different from each other. Errors cannot be self-corrected and are caused by a learner's inadequate knowledge of the target language, whereas a mistake can be self-corrected. Mistakes can be characterised by the slips of the pen or the slips of the tongue. Lapses may result from some factors such as memory failure and physical or mental fatigue.

Selinker (1972), as quoted by Abushihab (2014), views the learner's verbal performance in L2 as a series of overlapping systems characterised by having aspects from both L1 and L2. According to Selinker, there are five central processes related to the production of language errors in the teaching of English to L2 learners. The first being language transfer. This process is a result of overgeneralisation and of fossilisation of items, rules and subsystems, which are transferred from the native language to the target language during the performance of interlanguage. The second is a transfer of training. This simply means that the errors in this process result from misleading and overgeneralised information given by textbooks and language teachers. The third is the strategies of second language learning. This stage entails that there are different strategies which affect the surface structure of sentences. This process is exemplified by the tendency of learners to simplify the target language. The fourth one is the strategies of second language communication. This strategy can be characterised by the avoidance of grammatical formatives like articles, plural forms, past tense forms, and many others. The fifth one is the overgeneralisation of target language linguistic material. This strategy in L2 learning makes L2 learners to overgeneralise the rules in the target language in order to reduce them to a simpler level.

Literacy for different purposes (e.g., religious services, casual conversation, academic lectures, from a conversational to a formal register) need to be developed by the learners of the English language so that learners acquire skills of authentic language use for participation in various activities. English in education is the medium of instruction in most schools, since schools with African language learners chose to

study in English after the first three years of school. This highlights the significant need for the learners to be taught precisely by the teachers who have a complete understanding of the English grammar.

## **2.9 Chapter Summary**

Education in English, by teachers who may not be adequately proficient in English, is still the norm. The main reason behind the 1997 LiEP promotion of home language(s) in education is to address the overall high failure rate experienced by African learners in the South African education system (Ngcobo, 2013). Since the problem is continuing, the introduction of a bilingual grammar teacher, with knowledge of grammar in both the learners' L1 and L2, could make a significant impact on the learners' current linguistic situation which is not beneficial. The next chapter presents the research methods which were used in this study.

## CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Chapter Introduction

Speaking words and sentences and understanding them is important for the learners to master the grammatical aspect of both isiZulu and English languages. Research in grammar teaching should focus on the relationship between syntax, semantics and expression with regard to both the definition of concepts as well as the procedures for language analysis (Vargas, 2009). Language teaching has been reviewed many times during the twentieth century, firstly in relation to the way linguistics has evolved, and secondly in relation to an ever-growing need to develop the verbal, oral and written skills of language learners (Fontich & Camps, 2014). Among the English-speaking countries, there are mixed feelings about the teaching of grammar as a tool for improving language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). Killgallon and Killgallon (2006) are of the view that the explicit teaching of grammar is of no help in improving writing skills. On the contrary, they also argue that the study of sentence-combining is beneficial in the mastery of language skills by the learners of language. Killgallon and Killgallon (2006), argue that it is vital to focus on grammar teaching, as this will help learners to master coherent grammatical knowledge of the language in question. Because of the different views about the teaching of grammar in schools, a mixed-methods research design is crucial in order to elicit more information about this pure linguistic debate.

Bronckart (2008) postulates that language teaching and learning in schools has adopted a series of school routines which revealed themselves (teachers) as incapable of becoming an adequate tool for language learning, both in terms of the linguistic system and verbal use. It is my hypothesis that the teaching and learning of language in most public schools need transformation, a transformation that will help learners achieve/gain mastery of the language without any hardships. It should entail a transformation that will assist the language teachers understand, explain, analyse and teach language (grammar) with self-confidence, dedication and focus without any linguistic barriers of any kind. The most essential thing in the study of language is the mastery of linguistic units that will help the learner use language proficiently. It is a general belief that learners would develop correct use of the language through long-

term practice, through the teaching of language by language teachers who have linguistic component in their language teaching qualifications, such a practice will enable the language learners to master linguistic skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Grammatical encoding and grammatical decoding (in sentence production and comprehension, respectively) are often portrayed as independent modalities of grammatical performance that only share declarative resources, i.e. lexicon and grammar. The processing resources subserving these modalities are supposed to be distinct (Kempen, Olsthoorn & Simone Springer, 2012). In order to research into grammar teaching, it is necessary to take into consideration the complexity of the metalinguistic activity that emerges from linguistic landscapes of the learners in a bilingual rural classroom, since the linguistic structures of the learners' L1 and their L2 differ considerably.

### **3.2 Methods of Data Collection**

This research was carried out using the interpretive paradigm as described by Cohen and Manion (2000: 36) that "...the central endeavour in the context of the interpretive paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience." This study was conducted in schools, where English is taught as a L2 with isiZulu being L1 of most learners in school, which is an indication for bilingual education. Data were generated and collected from rural schools under King Cetshwayo District. Data that were collected were in response to a questionnaire on the linguistic obstacles to language teaching and learning in King Cetshwayo District schools. This was because both teachers and learners are affected by the current language teaching and learning situation in most rural public schools of the King Cetshwayo district (matric results, 2015). Interviews, on the other hand, were used to conduct and transcribe data based on language (grammar) teaching and learning in state/rural schools in the King Cetshwayo district. A recording device was used to both learners and teachers in order to get an in-depth knowledge about the current linguistic situation.

All participants were adequately informed about the nature of the study and were allowed to freely contribute to the study. The confidentiality of all respondents and

interviewees were respected, and anonymity was ensured, while participation in the research remained voluntary.

### **3.2.1 Sampling of the Participants**

Sampling is one of the most pivotal concepts in research studies. A sample comprises of elements or subset of the population considered for the actual inclusion in the study. Sampling is studied in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn (de Vos et al., 2013). The valid reason for sampling is that of feasibility, since a complete coverage of the population is seldom possible, and all the members of the population of interest cannot be all possibly reached, as a result, sampling helps in the identification of a researchable phenomenon in a more modest way. Purposive sampling was used in this study with the aim of gathering data from the known participants (uThungulu language teachers and bilingual learners). Kumar (2014:244) is of the view that purposive sampling is extremely useful when one needs to construct a historical reality or to describe a phenomenon about the ideological stance of the research.

Durrheim (1999:44) states that sampling involves decisions about people, settings, events, behaviours and/or social processes to observe. In sampling, the King Cetshwayo district comprises of four circuits, namely Umlalazi, Mthonjaneni, Mthunzini and Nkandla. In each circuit, five schools, with ten learners and five teachers were targeted. That gave me a total of fifty learners and twenty five teachers who teach both isiZulu and English languages. Schools were selected randomly per circuit. Sampling involves selecting individual units to measure from a larger population. Purposive sampling in this study took place in the rural schools of uThungulu with bilingual language teachers and bilingual learners as participants.

### **3.2.2 The Use of Questionnaires in this Study**

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. A questionnaire was used in this study to find out the subjective world of human experience, that is, how language teachers cope with language teaching difficulties which they experience

in their everyday linguistic practices, and the ability of the L2 learners to cope with grammar learning in their academic endeavours in the rural schooling setting.

The questionnaire was used to solicit both the teachers' and the learners' views about grammar teaching and learning in the rural schools of the King Cetshwayo district. The teaching of grammar has always created uncertainties and raised complex and intriguing pedagogical, linguistic and curricular issues (Moini, 2009). Research by de Klerk (1998) reveals the context in which parents, while half-heartedly maintain their own Nguni identity and lifestyle have supported the development of anglicised language behaviour for their children. This is also a case in King Cetshwayo district where the majority of parents insist that their children learn English more than any other language. According to Borg, (2003) teachers have different attitudes about the teaching of grammar. Their attitudes include beliefs about grammar, their formal academic studies in relation to the teaching of grammar, teachers' knowledge about grammar and grammar teaching and studies of the actual grammar teaching activities and practices which teachers implement in their language classrooms.

The King Cetshwayo district consists of both urban and deep rural schools where in these schools, the majority of the learners are Black Africans who are isiZulu L1 speakers who study English as the L2. Most teachers in these schools are also isiZulu L1 speakers who went to school to study English as a L2 and as part of their educational qualifications. In these schools, English language is taught by teachers who studied English as their L2, with isiZulu being their L1 (Rudwick, 2004). This study focused entirely on schools which are rural-based, with very scarce teaching aids, undertrained teachers who teach language, and big learner-teacher ratio in classrooms. To this end, my main research question was: What are the linguistic obstacles to language teaching and learning in a bilingual classroom in Grades 10, 11 and 12 in the King Cetshwayo district in Kwa-Zulu Natal?

### **3.2.2.1 Advantages of using Questionnaires**

In any research, clarity of language is vital in order to avoid language limitations and the lack of articulateness. It is, therefore, important that the language of research is clear and easy to understand. The researcher believes that using questionnaires when collecting data could be useful for one to obtain and collect information that could be

subjected to an in-depth analysis where responses are gathered in a standardised way. Questionnaires are usually straightforward to analyse, and respondents have time to think about their answers; they are not usually required to reply immediately. While conducting a study of this nature, I found it advantageous to use questionnaires because people were given time to consider their responses. They were given time to submit the questionnaires, they were not forced to take part in this study and they were enthusiastic in discussing their views with the researcher, since the study is about a linguistic phenomenon which is a worry to language teaching and learning and is a matter of public concern. They (the respondents) were very much interested in voicing their views about the language situation in South Africa. It is for this reason that the researcher used questionnaires and believes that questionnaires are more objective and relatively easy to analyse.

### **3.2.2.2 Disadvantages of using Questionnaires**

In this study, the use of questionnaires leads to certain disadvantages. It was noted that some respondents were not willing to answer certain questions. Sometimes respondents ignored certain questions. Some responses in some questionnaires were not finished and some questionnaires were not at all returned, since some people did not have time to complete them and some did not even like to answer them. As a result, the use of a questionnaire could hide certain information by respondents. Even though many respondents were happy about the study and more than willing to participate, some few respondents were very much unfamiliar with the jargon which was documented in the questionnaire. Some respondents misunderstood questions because the language which was used in the questionnaire which was not their everyday language, some did not complete the questionnaire because they had a feeling that they would not benefit from responding to the questionnaire. Sometimes I had to give new questionnaires to the language teachers who had lost initial copies and I had to request that they fill them (questionnaires) in my presence and I would immediately collect them. However, these attitudes did not hinder any progress in the completion of this study since the majority was very much interested in taking part, being included and voicing up their opinions about the language situation in their everyday practice.

### **3.3 The use of Interviews in this Study**

Interviews were administered to teachers who teach isiZulu and English in rural schools under King Cetshwayo District and to bilingual learners in the FET phase who study both English and isiZulu. The interviews were conducted in both isiZulu and in English since some students were not comfortable enough in speaking English, and vice versa. These interviews lasted for about ten to thirty minutes each with students and about thirty minutes to forty five minutes with language teachers.

#### **3.3.1 Advantages of using Interviews**

Interviewing people could yield better results if interviewees give the interviewer relevant information with regard to the research questions. This is believed to be true when one has to interview experts in a certain field. Interviews can be conducted in a variety of locations and times while explaining or clarifying questions increases the accuracy of the data collected. Interviews remain the vital aspect of the data collection technique, since they are mostly open-ended and easy to clarify, easy to correct ambiguities in a language, since the researcher is there to oversee such linguistic limitations which may not be easy to avoid when using only a questionnaire as the only data collection tool. This is the reason why the researcher chose the interview method.

#### **3.3.2 Disadvantages of using Interviews**

Interviews could also have disadvantages. In certain instances, when interviewing people, some people appear to be busier and have no time for you and are uninterested in the research. Scheduling the interview, conducting the interview, and adding notes for analysis take time and effort.

Some participants could not express themselves clearly in spoken language, especially in English. This forced the researcher to code-switch to isiZulu; then the respondents spoke with shyness because they had not mastered the language of instruction they are taught with in their everyday education, which is one of the experiences and hardships which are experienced during research methodology.

### **3.4 The Use of a Recording Device in the Study**

A recording device was used during interviews on both teachers and learners. Ethical considerations were taken into account when this instrument was used, since some participants were not happy with the recording device being used. The recording device was only used if the participant granted permission to do so, in the case where the participant was not happy with the recording, I did not use it.

### **3.5 Ethical Considerations**

Strydom (2005: 57) postulates that ethics is a set of moral principles which are suggested by an individual or group, are subsequently widely accepted, which offer rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students. This is used as a way of ensuring privacy and anonymity of the respondents' information which they supply to the researcher. All participants who took part in this study were adequately informed about the nature of this study, what would be done, when it would be done and how it would be conducted, and that no one was forced to take part in this study, although all were requested to. Privacy and anonymity was ensured while conducting the study. All the respondents were assured of their privacy and that information was even written in the questionnaires which they filled.

### **3.6 Chapter Summary**

Different methods of gathering data were used in the study as they are discussed in this chapter. The next chapter will present data which were collected through the research tools embracing a questionnaire and interviews, which are mentioned above from both teachers and the learners in the rural schools of the King Cetshwayo district.

## **CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION**

### **4.1 Chapter Introduction**

Research is the systematic and objective analysis and recording of controlled observations that may lead to development of principles or theories, resulting in prediction and possible ultimate control of events (Best, 2003 as quoted by Sani, 2013:40). Participants in this study were language teachers who teach English as L2 and those who teach isiZulu as a Home Language to public schools under the King Cetshwayo district, and bilingual learners who are L1 speakers of isiZulu, who learn English as L2, and study at FET phase, which is Grades 10, 11 and 12 bilingual learners. The King Cetshwayo District consists of four circuits, namely Umlalazi (previously known as Eshowe Circuit), Mthonjaneni, Mthunzini and Nkandla. In each circuit five schools were targeted. In each school, 10 learners (approximately 1-2 per grade x 5 schools) and 5 teachers participated in this study, which gave the researcher a total of 50 learners and 25 teachers who teach English and isiZulu.

Schools were randomly selected per circuit. Questionnaires, interviews and a recording device were used as research tools to gather information for this study. The main purpose for this research was to generate usable knowledge which, according to Lagemann (2002), is applicable to the linguistic needs of the society, is transmissible, embodied in professional practice which has the potential to make a difference in the academic and social world of both the learner and the teacher. This chapter presents linguistic knowledge which was gathered with an aim to discover, analyse and to unpack linguistic issues which are of public concern, through research in language.

### **4.2 The Presentation of Data**

Data in research means those facts that are collected for further investigation, that is, when data have been converted or processed it become information (Sani, 2013:40). Data collection is an integral part of the research process in education and humanities. The general order of scientific methods which the educational research follows attests to this claim (Sani, 2013). A variety of instruments are used to gather data in the

process of undertaking research. In this study, a mixed research approach was used, embracing questionnaires, interviews and a recording device during interview sessions. Questionnaires and interviews were in response of language teaching and learning inside the bilingual classroom. Separate questions were designed and used to generate data to both teachers and learners. A recording device was used for interview purposes to both learners and teachers with separate questions to each. Teachers were asked about their knowledge of grammar teaching, about how they teach language and about the theories of grammar which they know and use during language (grammar) teaching and learning in the bilingual classroom, about how they mark language (grammar) to learners' scripts, the grammatical element which they better understand, which they consider useful to teach, easy to teach, and their general views about language teaching in a bilingual classroom. Learners were asked about their understanding of grammar, about how often they have language lessons in class and about their general comments about language learning and teaching, the extent to which they view the role of language teaching and learning beyond matriculation, and whether the learning of grammar helps them in other subjects as well.

The present research was conducted in a rural bilingual environment, where both participants (learners and teachers) are bilingual and use the vernacular (isiZulu) for code-switching and code-mixing as a tool to mediate both learning and culture for academic and social purposes. This study was carried out using an interpretive phenomenon, that is, it aimed to represent, describe and understand particular views of the educational world, in this case, the linguistic causes of grammatical incompetency to both bilingual learners and language teachers which is evident in most public schools in King Cetshwayo District, and to investigate the sociolinguistic barriers/causes of written and spoken language incompetency by L2 learners and teachers of English in King Cetshwayo District.

#### **4.2.1 Questionnaires**

The questionnaire section consisted of two sections, section A was intended for the language teachers, while section B was directed at the bilingual learners in the FET phase (Grade 10,11 and 12). The questionnaires which were used to the respondents

were in response of the linguistic barriers, which language teachers and L2 learners of English found to be contributing factors in the learning and teaching of language in King Cetshwayo District schools in the FET phase. The questionnaires basically involved the personal detail and qualifications and field of specialisation of the 24 teachers who participated and contain open-ended questions to guide the interview sessions.

#### **4.2.2 Interviews**

The interview section consisted of two sections, section A was intended for the teachers, while section B was directed to the bilingual learners in the FET phase (Grades 10-12). The interview questions, which were used to the respondents, were in response of the linguistic barriers, which language teachers and second language learners of English found to be contributing factors in the learning and teaching of language in King Cetshwayo District schools in the FET phase.

#### **4.2.3 The Recording Device**

The recording instrument was used for interview purposes only. Interviews were administered to language teachers and bilingual learners of the King Cetshwayo district schools. Learners were asked about their everyday challenges and experiences on language use and on their understanding of grammatical concepts in both English and isiZulu. Teachers were asked about their language teaching experiences especially on aspects of grammar and use, the challenges, which they are faced with when teaching language to bilingual learners and the teaching approaches/teaching styles/strategies, which they use when teaching grammar.

### **4.3 General Findings of the Study**

The findings of the data were arranged according to the themes identified. They are discussed as follows:

### 4.3.1 The Academic Gap and Socio-Economic Aspects

This study reveals the academic gap between the learners who are struggling to learn language and those who are disadvantaged by the system. During this study, language teachers were asked about their experience and knowledge in grammar teaching, and the theories of grammar which they use when teaching language. Schools, which took part in this study, belong to quintile one and two, that is, the schools that have very limited resources and with learners who come from very disadvantaged backgrounds; as a result, they are supplied with food in the school. From these schools, it was found that nutrition has a role it plays in the academic life of a learner. Most teacher respondents postulated that:

*Most of the learners come to school for the food; some of the learners rely on the food which they get from the school which is sometimes their only meal of the day. This situation makes our work as teachers more difficult, because you sometimes see that this learner has potential, but because of food, the learner can't cope with academic work.*

This is an indication that in the school in question, there is scant teaching and learning, not only in the language class, but in other learning areas as well. The teachers also expressed concerns about whether the meal which the learners get is sufficient to sustain them. Teachers in school A expressed their opinions on the subject as follows:

*If you teach the learners after break, there is no concentration at all, this is because of the food which they have eaten which is not a balanced diet and they eat it every day.*

Most teachers were of the view that nutrition in their school plays an influential role in the academic success of the learners. Learners struggle to cope on an empty stomach:

*Learners come to school for food other than the desire to learn.*

Even though this study seeks to find the linguistic component which hinders learners' academic success towards the mastery of language and in other learning areas as well, the role of nutrition surfaced. For psycholinguistic reasons, the researcher views poverty and malnutrition as a contributing factor to the study of language, since one

finds it highly uneasy to concentrate and think well on an empty stomach, and this results in improper functioning of the brain areas responsible for language. Languages like English that are highly irregular in visual to sound mappings are heavily dependent upon brain areas that translate visual words to sound (Lipina & Posner, 2012). This was discovered in the current study where most learners during interview sessions struggled to: speak accordingly, with the pronunciation of words in both English and in isiZulu, read a given text with meaning and understanding, find the choice of words to use in speech, identify the parts of speech in a given sentence in both English and isiZulu, and battle with their inability to make a conversation among themselves in English language. Even though the current study is about the linguistic obstacles to language teaching and learning in a bilingual classroom, the author views poverty as a contributing phenomenon to learners' struggle with literacy (read and write) and grammatical aspects of both English and isiZulu. Poverty is one of the obstacles to language teaching and learning which has neurological implications such as malnutrition, aphasia, problems with attention and the overall teaching and learning of language and other academic subjects as well.

It is argued by Lipina and Posner (2012) that language and literacy are important in school for the best learner achievement in other subjects as well. They discovered that reading is a high-level skill and in alphabetic languages such as English, it has properties related to the phonemic structure of language. Difficulties with literacy in general are caused by low home socio-economic status.

Teaching and learning in most bilingual rural classrooms is largely done in isiZulu, the language which is the vernacular for both learners and teachers in the village. This practice bears limited exposure to the study of English by learners, because they regard English language as a difficult language and tend to translate English content to isiZulu. Teachers on the other hand are also struggling with the teaching and analysis of English language in the classroom which makes it highly impossible for the learners to develop a love for the language if their teachers are also struggling. The following tabular data displays the teaching of language per annum in government schools for communication and for the development of academic and linguistic skills in a bilingual language classroom.

**Table 6.3.0 A summary of CAPS FET tasks**

Language Tasks Taught at FET grades in King Cetshwayo District in Rural Bilingual Schools				
Linguistic Item	Term 1	Term 2	Term 3	Term 4
1. Parts of Speech	✓	✓	✗	✗
2. Language Skills				
2.1 Listening (formal)	✓	✓	✗	✗
2.2 Speaking (formal)	✓	✓	✗	✗
2.3 Reading (formal)	✗	✗	✓	✓
2.4 Writing (formal)	✗	✗	✓	✓
2.5 Grammar Teaching	✓	✓	✗	✗
2.6 Literature Learning	✓	✓	✓	✓
2.7 Literature Assessments	✓	✓	✓	✓
Other(s)	Letters/ Dialogue/ Comprehension/ Summary/orals	Literature/ contextual questions/orals	Orals/ writing	Exam: Paper 1: language. Paper 2: Writing. Paper 3: Orals

CAPS formal language assessment tasks in FET (DoBE, 2015).

The above table presents the data as collected from various schools under the King Cetshwayo district. The table tells, among other things, how language units are divided per terms and the features of language which are taught per term. There is a great emphasis on oral tasks which can also not happen should the teachers not be able to dispose of English proficiency. This table presents the research which was conducted with the aim to discover the causes of language shortfalls/grammatical incompetency and sociolinguistic barriers to both learners and teachers in their quest to communicate and use language effectively for academic purposes. It focuses attention on all the strategies used when teaching grammar. It is, however, noted that the most prominent linguistic skill which is accommodated throughout the year is the *oral skill* which is also assessed as part of final examination as paper three (3). It could be argued that oral skills depend mostly on exposure to language, however, given the barriers to teaching and learning which are explained in 6.3.3.3 below, it is hardly difficult to achieve this skill, especially in a rural environment. In the past, spoken language exercises such as debates, unprepared speech were the best linguistic markers for the assessment

of spoken language at FET, and in the current language teaching, it is hardly assessed because of the challenges which result during language teaching and learning.

### 4.3.2 Teacher's Knowledge of Grammar

This study, among other things, found linguistic knowledge of structure by teachers of language lacking. Teacher's knowledge of grammatical theories is lacking. A response I received from a Grade 12 educator states that there is no opportunity for any theory in the language classroom to be used:

*We don't need a theory to teach language. Theories are old and outdated. Now we even use sms language to communicate with our learners, even government external papers promote that. So which theory is that?*

When this teacher was asked to tell at least two language theories she knows, she spoke only of Skinner and Pavlov. This was a clear indication that the teachers' knowledge was limited and that language teaching and learning was in jeopardy.

Literature tasks and assessments are accommodated year long. This explains the focus when teaching the language. One teacher explained that teaching a novel, short story and poetry is the best way of teaching language:

*Focusing on grammatical structures is a problem, because it makes learners to be afraid to talk fearing that they will make errors and other learners laugh at them. During the teaching and learning of literature learners can talk about characters in a short story and that is how they learn language, through talking and listening*

This was a common belief in most schools which took part in this research. On the contrary, when language teachers were asked to provide more information on the linguistic structure of the English and of isiZulu languages, the majority (90%) of them had no idea of what I was talking about. The same happened with the learners. This raised concerns about teachers' knowledge of grammar if they cannot share their knowledge on the basic linguistic sentence structure of both English and isiZulu.

Most language teachers, (32/50) who took part in this study are heads of departments (HoD). In one school, the teacher asked what linguistics is, and why should she should

take part in the study of a discipline she is not familiar with. The researcher thought that maybe the teacher was not familiar with the word and then explained to her that linguistics is a science that teaches one about language. She said she did not major in science (according to her, she sees no valid reason participate in this study because she teaches English). It was clear that she had no idea of the basic grammatical structure and rules governing a language.

The current study discovered that language teachers need basic training on linguistic structure and use. It was found that language teachers need to be workshopped on the language structure, how to teach language, how to unpack linguistic components to the learners for FET. Most teachers when asked about their views with regard to the teaching of grammar in schools expressed different opinions. Their opinions ranged from teacher training to teaching methodologies which are used in class to teach language. One teacher when asked about the method he uses to teach language responded that:

*Learners speak language every day; the role of the teacher is to help learners translate the content from isiZulu to English. When they can do that, they have showed that they can pass Grade 12.*

Most language teachers showed very limited understanding on the teaching and the use of parts of speech in their language classrooms. This was evident when they had to make a distinction between an adverb and an adjective. Most of their examples caused difficulties to the learners when they had to use words such as 'well, good, much' in their examples. The classroom tends to be more chaotic with very limited teaching and learning, with teachers spending too much time trying to make a difference between an adverb and an adjective.

Among others, the use and assessment of language components in schools such as the idioms/idiomatic expressions, the English sayings, debates and contextual use of language are never taught. The CAPS programme of assessment for FET makes no provision for these. The emphasis is on literature tasks and is very scant of the teaching and assessment of linguistic structures. During the interview I had with the Grade 11 teacher I was told that:

*Idiomatic expressions are not part of the current curriculum, teaching them is a waste of time and learners do not understand idioms even in isiZulu*

From this explanation, it is not clear who is having challenges when it comes to the use of language in context. It may be the teacher or the learners. However, the programme of assessment in the CAPS document is silent when it comes to the use of idioms/idiomatic expressions, the English sayings, debates and contextual use of language.

### **4.3.3 Teaching Media**

The assessment of the tasks which are presented in the current study focus on the single medium, which is the chalkboard. Since most schools experience shortage of resources, very few schools can afford quality photocopies of the relevant language text to be given to the learners. This makes it difficult for the learners to learn language accordingly. Since these schools are situated in the remote areas of Kwa-Zulu Natal, it is impossible to use various assessment media for teaching and learning, as a result, learners rely on the teachers' knowledge for language. Teachers then should possess both linguistic performance and linguistic competence in their language pedagogy.

Data presented in Table 6.3.0 above indicates that language is taught through segmented tasks in different terms/semesters and this makes the acquisition of language by second language learners not easily mastered. Another indication is that teachers who are not qualified to teach language teach the subject which causes a deficit in the learners' knowledge. It is also lamentable that some teachers do not want to improve their knowledge in their disciplines by studying further. However, with such naïve mentality, one has to wonder about the truthfulness of language that is taught in the school system. The data presented above raise questions as to whether the learners who are produced under this approach have adequate means of access to HE or not.

### **4.3.4 School and Classroom Contexts**

The theme of schools and classroom contexts are discussed next:

In the classroom, learners are overcrowded, and the learning conditions are very unfavourable as a result they end up making noise during the language lesson, because they are not following what the teacher is saying/teaching. The teachers rely only on prescribed books to teach language and use only the chalk board and a chalk for most of their lessons as teaching aids. In most schools it was evident that teachers are not motivated to teach language because:

- most teachers did not major in language in their degree/diploma, but were told to teach English and leave mathematics, because English is easy and with an effort to save their jobs;
- there is a shortage of language teachers in the profession;
- the teacher is an active member in the union and she speaks for the teachers in the union, therefore, she knows English and can teach it;
- the teacher is an HoD in the languages department with fifteen years of experience and has majors in Afrikaans and isiZulu and is teaching English in Grades 11 and 12, and
- the teacher is teaching isiZulu because his father played a big role in the building of the school and is a prominent school governing body chairperson.

It is these job descriptions that are a demotivation to those who are competent and qualified to do their work, as one grade ten teacher explains:

*Some teachers teach English with a mentality that they can speak it. Working with someone who has that mentality is problematic and it's never easy because the person is always right, such people cannot be told how to do their jobs and it is always never easy to work with them*

It could then be argued that the motivation to excel and to do the work accordingly does not require teachers of this calibre, but a qualified teacher in terms of content knowledge, with relevant academic qualifications ought to be employed in the replacement of all the above named. The teaching of language by 'anybody' in the school premises leaves the education system hacked and inhumanly vandalised by people who should be building a nation. This kind of teaching and learning is mostly found in poorly resourced schools and underachieving schools where the allocation of duties are not evenly distributed.

Language skills are achieved when the learner understands that the flower in a flowerpot is represented by a plant with petals as opposed to a bag of white powder (flour). This basically boils down to the difference between homophones and homonyms. This aspect of morphological awareness is crucial in the development of linguistic skills, because it helps the language learners to distinguish among meanings of syllables with identical sounds, facilitating language analysis and vocabulary growth (McBride-Chang et al., 2005). The current language teaching lacks focus and content, as a result, it is not helping the learners master any language skill, but making language learning extremely unachievable through the teaching of segmented language lessons without any linguistic structure and integrated knowledge. Even if there is overcrowding in classes, it could be argued that any classroom that has a qualified language teacher will experience a very favourable learning atmosphere. Language skills will be easily developed and assessed, because a qualified teacher will know where the learners' errors come from and will be in a position to remedy them. The availability of a language teacher trained in linguistics will be of great help to the learners and the community at large through the provision of the right language content, selection of a relevant text for the grade and for giving an individual learner relevant linguistic attention which will be of great help to other school subjects as well.

#### **4.3.5 Parental Involvement**

The findings of this study suggest that very few parents in rural environments have reached FET phase in their secondary education. The inability for parents to take part in their children's education is seen as a contributing factor towards learners' failure rate in most schools. This makes it difficult for the parents to monitor and help their learners in any homework given at school and even to assist their learners for examination purposes. Teachers reported that parents and guardians are incapable of assisting their children with any reading and writing tasks or helping them develop literacy skills for academic purposes, and including social life. Blease and Condy (2014:46) argue that parental illiteracy has a detrimental effect on how learners learn to use language skills for a variety of purposes. Parental involvement in their children's education is a serious argument which needs remedy in an attempt to help learners achieve well academically. At the current situation, the role which should be played by

parents is not there and such a situation is negatively affecting the learners' academic progress in the learning of language and other subjects as well.

### **4.3.6 Teacher Challenges**

As stated in the first chapter, the academic role of a language teacher is to be in a position to detect language errors in the learners' work, explain them, and try to remedy the problems. It was evident in most schools which took part in this study that teachers are unable to detect, and to explain how the errors ought to be corrected, are unable to remedy the situation, which is why most learners who have passed their matriculation struggle to read and write in an acceptable academic manner. It could then be argued that learners' written work requires a level of control where it is characterised by sentence units which contain a sequence of events which are not in order, disconnected ideas and clausal chaining. In order for a teacher to make meaning of a learners' work, the teacher must know why language units need to be presented in a logical manner and explain to the child reasons for such logical sequence. Therefore, linguistic knowledge is of great help when language teachers are faced with such situations and helps both the teacher and the learner to develop a sense of understanding and motivation to learn more.

The current study found these as contributing to the linguistic limitations experienced by bilingual learners who participated in this study. If education is to remain relevant to contemporary social needs and personal dispositions of the learners, it needs to be flexible and accommodate creativity at all levels of language use. It has to conceive schools as knowledge-producing communities and create in learners a sense that they themselves are knowledge producers (Cope & Kalantzis, 2007). The current language teaching approach lacks focus to the core functions of language in society. It focuses entirely on literature approach to language learning which does not help learners use language for variety of purposes in life and fails the learners to apply linguistic skills accordingly to both their social and academic life.

Teachers seem to have difficulty in describing their professional skills, no doubt because their practical knowledge is part and parcel of their teaching (Smith, 2001). Teacher challenges are seen as limiting the linguistic needs of the learners in their

quest to master language for academic purposes. Language is the most useful vehicle for the learners to interpret, understand, store and communicate ideas and knowledge for other subjects as well. This linguistic skill is crucial for the learners to interpret both literary and non-literary texts in both their academic and social life, however, poorly trained language teachers, both teaching English and isiZulu, leave the whole education system crippled because they are unable to develop this skill to their learners.

Translation of text from L1 to L2 was found to be the main contributing factor to problems relating to language teaching and learning. It was found that learners in their grammar learning are faced with problems of translating isiZulu texts into the English language with an aim to find meaning in English. It could, however, be argued that any textual mastery requires one to have a developed structure of the target language. If the target language is not fully developed, certain aspects of a language will be fossilised. The transition from learning to read in young children to reading to learn among older children is essential for advanced vocabulary development. Reading is strongly associated with vocabulary development (Baker et al., 1998). This postulation is further argued by Gonnerman et al. (2005) that language input contains patterns that are picked up by language learners to the extent that they are useful in solving the primary tasks of competent speakers, which is comprehending and producing speech. The language skills which are essential to language study remain pivotal for the development of competency in language. Learning to read and write alone is significant but needs to be boosted by the ability to use and apply all linguistic skills in a given scenario by language users, and, arguably, this skill can be best developed by qualified language teachers who are in possession of a linguistic component in their language teaching qualifications.

The table below tabulates the challenges which are faced by teachers in the provision of a fair and just language teaching and learning atmosphere to bilingual learners in a bilingual classroom. These challenges represent the themes identified in the qualitative data.

**Table 6.3 Teacher challenges during the teaching of language in their classrooms**

	Learner Motivation to learn	Teaching Aids Availability	Teaching Styles/Methods	Teachers' Knowledge of LoLT	Teachers' Knowledge of English Grammar	Teachers' Knowledge of isiZulu Grammar	Language Skills Knowledge
Grade 10	65/100	45/100	65% Teacher to learner	65/100	50/100	80/100	40%Listening 30%Speaking 35% Reading 40% Writing
Grade 11	45/100	40/100	75% Teacher to learner	70/100	50/100	80/100	20%Listening 30%Speaking 40% Reading 50% Writing
Grade 12	50/100	55/100	55% Teacher to learner	80/100	55/100	80/100	50%Listening 60%Speaking 50% Reading 50% Writing

Teachers in the study highlighted various problems which they are faced with when teaching language. Among others they include learner motivation, reading and writing problems, lack of resources to teach and assess language and the use of English as the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT). This table tabulates data obtained from the current research and is explained in the topics which follow.

#### 4.3.7 Motivation to Learn Language

This study highlights a strong need for the learners to be motivated to learn a language. Learners showed very little understanding of why they should learn a language. It was found during the collection of data that learners know and understand English as the language which one should know in order to get a job and to communicate with other people of different races. When asked about the importance of isiZulu, they portray it as a language of the Zulus, which is of significance for cultural purposes, and its significance ends there. This mentality gives a bad picture about isiZulu language and makes the work of language teachers extremely difficult, since learners lose focus and attention when they are taught about languages. It was also discovered in this study that the only time when these learners are motivated to learn language is when they have to read short stories which have to do with love and

relationships. They are kept motivated by the suspense and by the climax/anti-climax. Language teaching and learning are hampered severely by learners who lack motivation; as a result, language teachers are also affected. Based on the information from table 6.3 above, learner motivation is high in Grade 10 and then it drops in Grade 11. The reason for this drop is the high failure rate in Grade 11 as teachers do not want to promote more learners to Grade 12 because when there is a high failure rate, teachers are blamed. Therefore, in order to avoid the blame shifting, few learners are promoted to Grade 12.

Motivation is seen by many respondents in this study as a contributing factor towards learner involvement and participation in their learning. Learners need motivation and support from their teachers and from their parents. In Grade 12, there are only two months for teaching and learning during the first term. During term two learners have one month for classroom teaching and learning and then they are supposed to go to school during June holidays including Saturdays to catch-up for trial examinations. During term three, learners need to do revisions for all subjects and are under a lot of pressure from the society. From a linguistic perspective, a language teacher teaching Grades 10 and 11 needs to teach more of a language (grammar) and then literary texts so that by the time learners experience all the stress in Grade 12, they are in a better position to apply their linguistic skills in the content subjects as well. They have knowledge of discourse analysis, since their learning will require them to understand, interpret and analyse any given text for them to write for examination purposes. It is then arguably that language teaching and learning, especially under stressful conditions, which requires the services of a qualified language teacher, that is, a language teacher who is in a position to interpret both literary and non-literary texts.

A language-centred approach to language teaching and learning could help the learners to best achieve their linguistic potential rather than a teacher-dominated classroom. This is a result of teacher training with much focus on literature rather than on applied language. It could then be argued that any language teacher/instructor should be aware of and be in a position to analyse and explain language structures, meaning of a given phrase or sentence as well as the sound patterns of a language in order to easily transfer language skills to the learners. This will help learners develop a strong need to learn and to develop a positive learning attitude knowing that the

teacher in front of them is not guessing. Such claims highlight the strong need for the language teachers to be trained in linguistics as well (de Klerk, 1992). From the table above, it is evident that language structures in most public schools are not taught since most teachers are struggling with sentential and linguistic analysis and use of written language. This makes the development of language skills very challenging and it will be very hard to achieve in the near future.

#### **4.3.8 Reading and Writing Problems**

Reading and writing are some of the linguistic obstacles which this study sought to find. The text which is used in the classroom to assess linguistic skills is crucial to the mastery of language. Since language is a cognitive skill, it helps in mastery of both literary and non-literary text. The way learners learn is determined in no small part by the writing system they are trying to decode since the linguistic text is not cognitively neutral. Therefore, any text to be used in the teaching and assessment of language needs to be effective, linguistically sound, teachable and easy to reproduce. The current study is overwhelmed by the inability of the teachers to use the best teaching style/approach to teach language in a bilingual classroom. It was discovered that the text which is mostly used to teach and assess language is none other than the prescribed book and the only copy which is available is for the teacher, which makes it difficult for the learners to access reading materials when they are not inside the school premises, as a result, they struggle with both written and spoken text. This knowledge is supported by McBride-Chang et al. (2005) when they argue that the transition from learning to read in young children to reading to learn among older children are essential for advanced vocabulary development.

The teaching approach which is used in schools which took part in this study is not helping the bilingual learners in the development of language skills. Activities which are given to the learners with an aim to develop their language skills in most cases include the following: fill in the missing words, match column A with column B, reading aloud, writing of an obituary, writing of a diary entry, writing of letters, advertisements, comprehension passages, and many other writing activities, which happen in the classroom when the main focus in the writing is in content rather than the assessment of linguistic units which form part of a language study. There is too much literature

focus than language (grammar) focus. Another linguistic problem which was discovered in this study is that of language assessment. The language assessment that is done highly promotes oral proficiency over the other skills. It then becomes difficult for the teachers to monitor learners' progress in language learning, as a result, they are unable to help and identify struggling learners in language.

As stated in the first chapter, it is evident that even today learners are still struggling with literacy in most South African government schools. Poor academic literacy is a result of second language instruction where both teachers and learners are struggling with the use of English as an academic language for teaching and learning (Rudwick, 2004). Learners will develop correct use of the language through long-term practice facilitated by a qualified language instructor. Communication competence will be formed through the development of linguistic skills which are essential in the study of language, which includes listening, speaking, reading and writing. The teaching of language skills requires a more advanced, academic knowledge of a language than basic interpersonal communicative competence in a language, which is why language teachers need to be trained in linguistics as well in order to be able to identify the linguistic issues which make language learning hardly impossible by language learners. For a successful literacy development in schools there must be a collaboration amongst teachers within and across grades on issues related to language learning and teaching (Pretorius & Mokhwesana, 2009). The assessment tool that is used is not encouraging linguistic competence on the learners' side since the text that is used (literature text) does not cater for individual needs on language. In a situation where there is complete absence of a linguistic structure, it becomes clear that language skills will hardly be developed. The researcher is of the view that learners of language need at least a basic idea of how language is structured and used, for instance, learners need to learn about grammatical or functional categories, the ability to recognise formulaic expressions and some notions of register when learning about language so that they are in a good position to use language accordingly, and for the variety of purposes.

#### **4.3.9 Lack of Resources/Teaching Aids to teach and assess Language**

There is a lack of a learning culture among the learners in most rural. Learners have a strong desire to be educated beings and help improve the economic status of their families when they finish school. In the most remote circuits where most schools are situated, the communities are overwhelmed by a lack of infrastructure, poor housing, no libraries and the absence of educational media. Inside the school premises there are overcrowded classrooms with broken windows, very old chalkboards which are significant barriers to the provision of a good teaching and learning atmosphere. Even though poor infrastructure was not part of this study, it brings a negative connotation towards the realisation of proper teaching and learning in general. This study found that lack of basic resources in many schools, resources such as stationery, were a stumbling block to the study of any subject in school. The only book which is prescribed for the grade is owned by the teacher while learners do not have copies which they can use at any time. This signals that the only time that these learners will learn about language is when they are in class during the language lesson. In such conditions, the overall teaching and learning are negatively affected.

#### **4.3.10 Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT)**

The LoLT poses a serious challenge even to language teachers across Southern Africa. This is seen in the studies conducted by Jawahar and Dempster (2013), Rudwick (2004), Pretorius and Matjila (2004), Brock-Utne (2001), Kamwendo (2006), Kaschula and Maseko (2009), Manyike (2013), Early and Norton (2014) when they argue that the LoLT in the South African classroom has an influence on the everyday teaching and learning. This is seen where learners are not adequately proficient in both English and in isiZulu until they leave secondary education. The school system is overwhelmed by learners and teachers who are struggling to use language appropriately for the variety of functions. Teachers teach literature tasks taken from literature books and use them to teach language (grammar). The conversation in class during language teaching is very poor. Most language teachers who participated in this study struggled to mention the activities which they give to their learners when they assess grammar as they showed very little understanding of language structure in both English and in isiZulu, very little understanding of the teaching methods which they use to teach language (grammar), and most teachers who teach English preferred that our discussion should be in isiZulu or just a mixture of English and

isiZulu. This is a sign that even teachers struggle with the command of English, as for this fact, they need grammatical components in their quest to teach language to their learners.

The LoLT poses a serious dilemma in the school system especially in rural schools. This is seen through a number of learners who are unable to utter a sentence in English with confidence. The learner responses were full of language errors. Learners showed difficulties with both spoken and written language. The responses from learners were full of concord errors, problems with sentence structure, problems with pronunciation and with word choice. This was a sign that their linguistic skills are not yet developed yet they are at FET level. This makes it hardly possible to make any predictions that their level of language will be appropriately developed, since they are at the exit phase of the secondary education. Learners who participated in this study revealed that they have no basic understanding of language structure and the basics of grammar since they are never or not regularly taught. One learner said:

*Our English teacher tells us that we will master grammar automatically. When you pass Paper 1 it's because you understand English and the content that is found in Paper 1 changes every time, therefore, she cannot waste time on it. We must rather focus on reading the prescribed short stories*

The LoLT is a serious matter which needs further investigation. If teachers have no clue or no complete understanding of the basic components of the language which they teach, learners will continue to suffer. When learners suffer, the nation is in jeopardy. This study reveals a linguistic phenomenon which needs to be addressed and solved within the relevant structures of academia before the matter is worsened.

#### **4.3.11 Learner Challenges**

Learners showed lack of interest in language (grammar) exercises. Their lack of interest could stem from a lack of motivation to learn a language, lack of qualified personnel to teach them language, their lack of familiarity with the use of linguistic structures of the language, lack of language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and their inability to differentiate between written and spoken text in a given scenario. Among other things, learners postulated their unhappiness to the manner to

which they learn language. They highlighted that language learning is crucial to their academic excellence yet there are no available means to foster language learning except sharing a literature textbook. They highlighted that the only time that they learn language is when they are introduced to parts of speech. One Grade 12 learner postulated that:

*We are given sentences to change and fill in missing words, join the sentences using conjunctions, give singular and plurals of words; we are given an activity to write and most of us fail it and we are given corrections the teacher comes to write answers, when we ask about those answers, because we don't know why they are like that, we are told its grammar rules. The next morning we are told to go in the front and present, it's oral time now, then the teacher sits at the back and record marks based on our presentations. We then accept whatever marks we are given because we don't even know and we haven't been taught or told about presentations*

#### **4.4 The Interpretation of Data**

This study focused on qualitative methods to interpret data which was collected in schools at King Cetshwayo district. According to the presented data, it was found that learners and their teachers have difficulties when it comes to the differentiation between the linguistic forms of both speech and writing. This is seen from quite a number of learners who show difficulties with the use of language in both speech and classroom pedagogy. Teachers show difficulties in the use of, and teaching of spoken language in both English and isiZulu, which makes life difficult for the learners to master language. Learners need to be taught about the differences between the varieties of codes which ought to be used when one uses language for speech and for writing, if they are not taught, they will experience problems in language use even later in life. Teachers need to have not only basic knowledge of language they teach but also deep understanding of the errors which their learners make to spoken and written language, that is, knowledge of both linguistic forms of communication. Myhill (2008) in his study notes that writing in a language is linguistically more integrated than speech. He notes that writing contains more complex structures, more subordination, more pre-modification, more participial subordination and greater lexical density than

speech (Myhill, 2008: 273) while speech, on the other hand, has more repetition and chaining. This study found that these two linguistic forms of communication are still a problem to both learners and teachers in the schools where the study was conducted. The learners' writing remains unclear in terms of structure and meaning, which shows that, even though these learners are at the FET phase, they have not yet developed structural and communicative control of both English and isiZulu, which highlights the significant need for language teachers to attain structural control of the languages they teach. If learners show difficulties in both spoken and written forms of a language, they have very scarce chance of academic excellence.

The linguistic obstacles which this study found includes among others the academic use of language in the academic profession by unqualified personnel, and this is of a disadvantage to the class that is then produced during and beyond matriculation. The 2016 matriculation results are a good example to the results of this study. The matriculation results for 2016 in the King Cetshwayo District, among other things, show poor results when it comes to language in the rural schools with King Cetshwayo District performing worse. If language skills are not well structured to the learners' academic and social journey, the learner is more likely to struggle with progression well in both academic and in social life. In the teaching of both English and isiZulu grammar in schools, the grammatical structures remain not only problematic to the learners, but also to the teachers who are supposed to teach them (Rudwick, 2004, Pretorius & Matjila, 2004; Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004).

The teaching of lexis (including proper names, forms of address, loanwords, and cultural items) and idiomatic expressions remain a linguistic problem to both teachers and learners in the mainstream schools. The proper use of loan words from isiZulu could be a significant strategy to teach language, both English and isiZulu; this would position the text in particular cultural directions which the L2 learners need to know before they master the structure of English language, which is foreign in the case of state or rural schools situated in King Cetshwayo District. The current study finds improper language teaching and learning as a main cause for linguistic barriers to the study of language in general.

Language structure, sentence structure and vocabulary work together to assist the writer to compose their writing, it could then be argued that learners need to be skilled

in the grammatical elements of text creation so that they are fluent language users in their grade and beyond. The teaching methodology advocated in schools signals a special need for the approach, which is linguistic-based in the teaching of language, that is, the assessment of teachers' preparedness to teach and assess language and how language is affected by the inability for teachers to unpack grammar content to the learners of language. The detailed barriers to grammar teaching which emanated in the study are qualitatively interpreted as follows:

#### **4.4.1 The Academic Gap and Socioeconomic Status**

It was highlighted in this section that there is an academic gap between the learners who are struggling to learn language and those who are disadvantaged by the system. The study finds the need to master formal rules of language as a means of decoding and encoding meanings in texts and speech. It appears that learners who are struggling to learn are seriously in danger of quitting school because there is no system available that is there to help them. The available system expects learners to learn language through 'osmosis' without overt instruction. It also appears that both learners and teachers of language are disadvantaged by the system. The system itself 'expects' learners to know how to communicate and to be competent in the use of language, and teachers to know how to best teach language without any grammatical knowledge of the English language, which is also a foreign language to them (Borg, 2003, Rudwick, 2004; Pretorius & Matjila, 2004, Brock-Utne & Holmarsdottir, 2004, Frans, 2016, Safford, 2006 and Sibomana, 2017). Arguably, the language which learners need for both academic and social lives is not well established in a school setting. It is therefore a research phenomenon that needs seriousness in academia that if the learning of language in schools is not considered a high priority, where will these learners learn language, are there any means available for them to learn beyond matriculation if they will not afford tertiary education? This study highlights a linguistic phenomenon where academic and social learning assume acts of production, such as speaking and writing down notes, as well as acts of reception such as listening, speaking, reading and writing.

For obvious reasons, since the majority schools which participated in this study are classified as quintile one and two schools, socioeconomic problems are possible.

Problems, which include poverty and malnutrition, are contributing factors to the classroom learning on the side of the learners; as a result, it is highly unlikely for learners to concentrate on school subjects when they are hungry. Hunger and malnutrition impact negatively on the normal functioning of the brain areas responsible for language. As for this reason, and many others, language learning in the classroom needs improvements. The current research, through the teachers views, it was articulated that if learners had a control English language, which is the medium of controlling ideas and thoughts, they would not encounter problems in engaging with text. By implication, this idea assumes that learners have an understanding of what they are taught; the only problem is that they lack the skills of communication. Language as an instrument for communication, it needs to be well introduced and must be well grounded so that learners are disadvantaged when it comes to learning. Language is seen to be the technical means of communicating meaning, content, culture and social understandings. Language is seen as a neutral mechanism for transmitting meaning from the teacher to the learner. Language as an instrument for communication information purports that learner difficulties in using and accessing meaning is as a result of their low L2 proficiency in the media of instruction and their poor language skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing). This very situation calls for the remedying of grammatical problems through the direct instruction of the linguistic structures which will enhance communication abilities on the side of the learners. Notably, it is these language structures, which both teachers and learning still need to learn. This then makes language learning and teaching problematic. It appears that a conscious knowledge of the surface rules of language is what learners lack. If these rules were to be made available to the learners, their language problems would be minimised.

In the South African classroom, access to the elevated literacy is parallel to socioeconomic and cultural divisions, so is access to knowledge which requires a certain level of understanding and use of language, especially English language. Language teachers need to be equipped to teach language communicatively, that is, to focus their teaching on rules and provide examples on how those rules are applied in daily language use.

#### **4.4.2 Language Teacher's Knowledge of Grammar**

Language teachers remain the most important teachers in the system as they enable language learning across subjects. Language structures remain important aspects of language because, if taught accordingly, may help the learners with a provision of a smooth flow of ideas from one subject to another. Language teachers' knowledge of language structure, discourse analysis, and communicative language use will help them see the reasons behind their learners inability to pronounce, write and use language accordingly. It was found that language teachers who participated in this study need a form of work shop where certain aspects of language need to be clarified. Issues like grammar, parts of speech (word classes), idiomatic expressions, sayings, text to use when teaching language and how language ought to be taught for communicative purposes. This is because, teachers' choices for language correction and teaching in class fully depends on the nature of errors or mistakes their learners are likely to make in class during language teaching. Therefore, being in a position to identify those mistakes/errors one needs linguistic background knowledge to tell where they come from and how they could be solved. A teacher who is in a position to identify such mistakes when they occur, who is prepared to address the sources of the students' error in ways that will result in student learning, is the best language teacher a society need. In the current study such teachers were not found and they need to be developed by the current education system.

Therefore, any lack of properly trained language teachers is a major shortcoming. As argued by Sibomana (2017), teachers of language need to have a knowledge base on which to draw in their teaching. Part of this knowledge is subject matter knowledge of which linguistic knowledge is a key component for language teachers. It enables them to understand how language works, how it is learned, the nature of their roles in the language classroom and the social and political phenomena and decisions which have a strong impact on language use and teaching. It is therefore my postulation that, even though teachers will not be teaching linguistics in their classes, knowledge of linguistics is essential in their teachers package because linguistics may help them to think critically and constructively about language, which can lead to the design and choice of the most feasible and practical language teaching pedagogy in a given classroom situation. Since language learning is crucial, the ability to engage with both written and spoken text is not a static or fixed ability, but rather one involves a dynamic

relationship between the demands of texts and the prior knowledge and goals of language aspect being assessed. It is precisely because of these dynamic relationships that the teaching of language in the academic disciplines is so crucial. Therefore, any language/grammar lesson can help learners to self-correct, as well as to apply dominant grammatical rules in their speech and writing. Based on the current school linguistic situation, there is a strong need for language approaches which Liviero (2017) describe them as meaning-oriented approaches to second language teaching which generally aim to develop implicit grammatical knowledge, approaches such as deductive approaches which generally aim to develop explicit grammatical knowledge and function, that is, language considered as communication, is important in meaning-oriented approaches where language knowledge, though not necessarily explicit grammatical knowledge, is developed through use in purposeful contexts. In our current schooling environment there is a lack of any definite theoretical and methodological underpinning, or specific language teaching approach, for grammar teaching as well as other language teaching aspects. This makes language teaching by the current language teachers in a limbo.

#### **4.4.3 Teaching Media**

It was found in the study that the assessment of language tasks which are presented in the current study focus on the single medium which is the chalkboard. This is because most schools experience shortage of resources and very few schools can afford quality photocopies of the relevant language text to be given to the learners. The most important factor that affects the conducive language teaching in most state schools is an inability to provide schools with properly qualified/ trained teachers. A qualified teacher can go an extra mile to find the teaching media through which language teaching may be possible. A teacher who is trained accordingly may not wait for government to bring books in order for them to start teaching, especially on issues of language and communication. Teaching goes with the profession. In an event where there are no textbooks provided by government, the situation indicates that there will be no teaching and learning. Teaching media plays a big role to teachers in the rural setting. Most have a two quire exercise book, this is where they record school work, and this is the only source. Should negative circumstances happen and the teacher loses this exercise book, learners are largely disadvantaged and there will be a lot of

cooking of learners' marks. Beside a chalkboard, teachers need to have a back-up plan in their teaching profession. Teachers should make use of personal laptops, use of newspapers to teach language focused lessons, use of radio and television learning programmes which will enhance their teaching in a positive way.

The current focus which is the chalkboard, remain conducive for the teaching but in the 20th century where the level of technology is high, learning and teaching need to be in-line with the world's technological innovations. Skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing and knowledge of the principles and skills of the numeracy cannot be conductively learnt if the classroom teaching focuses only on chalkboard as the only available teaching medium. Therefore, this kind of learning largely impedes learner's progress and it interferes with classroom harmony.

#### **4.4.4 School and Classroom Contexts**

The study found that there is a serious crisis to the everyday classroom teaching and learning in most schools which participated in the study. It was identified to most schools that most teachers did not major in language in their degree/diploma, but were told to teach English and leave mathematics, because English is easy and with an effort to save their jobs. This is a very disturbing situation which is done by school managers with a belief that language can be taught by any underperforming teacher in the school system. This ideology has negative outcomes in the teaching profession where learning in other subjects is affected as well. In a situation where unqualified teachers are seconded to language profession, learning of language is severely affected, the knowledge of structure, knowledge of language as a field of study cannot be taught by any teacher. Teaching of language needs to be done by a qualified language teacher in order to avoid learning transfer and guessing in the teaching of language or the teacher might end up teaching the aspects of language that he/she understands and leave those language aspects he/she does not know. In the situation like this, literacy development, communicative language use, knowledge of discourse analysis and competence in a language will not be possible.

The study also discovered that there is a shortage of language teachers in the profession; as a result, unqualified personnel are brought to the system to teach language. This tendency does not only make learning of language in jeopardy, but

also contributes to the current crisis where learners are faced with the shortage of language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) during and beyond matriculation. In a system where one is taught by unqualified teacher, the end product is not guaranteed to be profitable since the unqualified teacher lacks both the content and pedagogical knowledge which are vital in the teaching profession.

Any other language misuse which were identified in the study, obstacles such as the involvement of teacher unions to the duties of teachers in the classrooms, a situation such as the employment of teachers through teacher unions, a situation where the teacher is an HoD in the languages department with fifteen years of experience and has majors in Afrikaans and isiZulu and is teaching English in Grades 11 and 12, and a situation where the teacher is teaching isiZulu because his father played a big role in the building of the school and is a prominent school governing body chairperson. It is these obstacles to language teaching and learning that contribute to the linguistic problems such as pronunciation of standard language, problems with written language, problems with language analysis (meaning), and problems with comprehension since language skills were insufficiently taught by a teacher who is not qualified to teach language. Therefore, knowledge of literacy and communicative competence cannot be easily reached if this language practice is still perpetuated.

#### **4.4.5 Parental Involvement**

Another issue, which was identified as an obstacle to the learning in schools in an issue of parental involvement. The study discovered that most parents do not have full interest to the study of the kids, as a result, they do not monitor their learners' work, they do not help their kids with any homework and they do not have time for that. This makes any learning of any subject not to happen outside the school premises. The inability for parents to take part in their children's education is seen as a contributing factor towards learners' failure rate in most schools. Learners then have only one source for learning, the teacher, and they take what the teacher says as a gospel truth. In a situation where the teacher is not a qualified professional in the subject he/she is teaching, a lot of harm may happen, not only in language but also in other subjects

aswell. Parental illiteracy has negative effects on how learners learn to use language skills for a variety of purposes during secondary school education and beyond.

#### **4.4.6 Language Teaching and Learning Challenges**

The current study discovered, among other things, that during language teaching and learning, most teachers, especially in rural settings, are unable to detect language issues which emanate in their classrooms when they teach language, are unable to explain how the errors ought to be corrected and are unable to remedy the situation. This situation contributes to problems in (linguistic) skills production, communication problems and literacy in general, as a result, most learners who have passed their matriculation struggle to read and write in an acceptable academic manner.

Language being the most useful vehicle for the learners to communicate, interpret, understand, store and communicate ideas, it is crucial that they are taught and given linguistic skills which are part of their educational journey so that they become competent language users in both their academic and social journey. The everyday language teaching and learning in a bilingual South African classroom in the rural areas is manifested by teachers who did not major in language in their degree/diploma, but were told to teach English and leave their degree subjects since there is a shortage of teachers to teach language, and because of the mentality in schools that it is easy to teach language since everybody can speak language (English/ isiZulu), a situation where underperforming teaching in grade twelve are seconded to GET phase to teach English or isiZulu and leave their degree subjects with an aim to save their jobs, there is a shortage of language teachers in the profession as opposed to literature teachers. It is therefore not surprising that there is poor academic literacy level in South African schools because this is as a result of second language instruction where both teachers and learners are struggling with the use of English as an academic language for teaching and learning. Any teaching of language skills requires a more advanced, academic knowledge of a language than basic interpersonal communicative competence in a language, which is why language teachers need to be particularly trained in such that they can balance linguistic structure and communicative component in their classrooms with an aim to produce learners who are skilled in language. This will boost their achievements in other subjects aswell.

Various studies such as Jawahar and Dempster (2013), Rudwick (2004), Pretorius and Matjila (2004), Brock-Utne (2001), Kamwendo (2006), Kaschula and Maseko (2009), Manyike (2013), Early and Norton (2014), Frans, 2016, Safford, 2016 and Sibomana, 2017) highlight a serious problem when it comes to the language of teaching and learning (LoLT) in primary and secondary education. This is a serious challenge to teachers in the education system across Southern Africa. The current study finds the issue of LoLT as a very pivotal linguistic obstacle, which seriously needs immediate attention. The teaching of language in the bilingual environment as discovered in this study lacks communicative language approach where learners are to be given language activities that will require them to listen, speak, read, write and be taught to use language for variety of purposes. If language teaching is manifested by inability to identify relevant text to teach and assess language, there will always be language and communication skill shortage which will contribute to literacy problems. Most teachers and learners who participated in the study had problems with English language use. Learners are unable to utter a sentence in English with confidence, problems with concord, problems with sentence structure, problems with pronunciation and with word choice were some of the linguistic obstacles identified. This language challenge has a serious negative contribution to the learning of other subjects aswell since learning of any subject requires one to have at least an understanding of basic sentence structure. In a situation like this where language/ linguistic skills are not yet developed for further learning, it is hardly possible to make any predictions that their level of language will be appropriately developed at a sooner stage. The problem with LoLT is a linguistic phenomenon which needs linguistic interventions so that there will be language teaching and learning in schools. The current language teaching situation in schools presents issues of language cheating, learners are being cheated of their basic educational right, that of being taught proper content and knowledge.

#### **4.5 Discussion**

Language has a role in which speakers not only convey information to each other but also to maintain social relationships through communication. This could be properly achieved if language teaching is done by qualified language teachers. In some schools, language is taught by teachers who are trained to teach other subjects other

than language due to their incompetence to the subjects they are trained to teach. Such practice hammers the language teaching in the most severe way. Having little or no training means that teachers often lack opportunities to gain competence in the dominant language. The majority of teachers in the district which took part in this study, especially those who work in rural schools, are not mother-tongue speakers of English and are, therefore, subject to making mistakes and errors when they teach in English. During language teaching and learning, it could help if language is viewed and used as an object of fascination and excitement, and learners are given plenty opportunities to use their languages for authentic communication, collective knowledge generation, and affirmation of personal identities. This will bear good scholarly fruit in the long run.

As stated in Chapter 2 by Pretorius (2002) that in the rural schools learners are underprivileged by the lack of learning aids such as the lack of access to newspapers, magazines, TV and radio; lack of opportunity to hear or to speak English; lack of English reading material at home and at school; and poor language teaching by teachers whose own English proficiency is limited. It was evident in this study that language teaching is mostly devalued by the education system itself. This is evident when language teaching is done by any underperforming teacher in the school even those who do not have majors in language.

Language teachers need knowledge of grammar in order for them to be in a position to teach grammar in conjunction with the learners' linguistic needs. The teacher needs to identify the learners' needs of a language before introducing them to a language. It is in situations like these that learners' use of language in school is influenced by their inability to use it elsewhere except in the classroom. As stated in Chapter 2 that bilingual learners have better cognitive, metacognitive, metalinguistic, and sociolinguistic advantages compared to monolinguals, language learning in a bilingual should not be hard to achieve provided that there is a qualified personnel to facilitate language teaching. It is a common understanding that learners acquiring reading in a L2 may experience difficulty with phonemic mapping and recognition of orthographic patterns of the language. Teachers trained in the provision of relevant linguistic strategies and skills for language teaching are in a good position to help learners transfer English knowledge back into their home language, and vice versa. Since the majority of South African learners go to state schools (these are schools whose main

resources, human or physical, are supplied by the state), learning and teaching cannot be equated to schools with resources, however, linguistic knowledge could be of great help if language teaching is done by qualified language teachers and the linguistic barriers which are experienced will be solved. This will be of great help to both the teachers and learners in terms of knowledge of the structure of language function and use of language and with the varieties of language, which is of great help in the mastery of both literary and non-literary texts. The manner to which language teaching and learning to schools is facilitated, makes it hard for the learners to master language accordingly since the current learning opportunities are not designed to meet the basic learning needs of the learners, as a result, language of instruction itself becomes a barrier to knowledge. Likewise, education cannot possibly be equitable and non-discriminatory when the medium of instruction is a language that neither the teachers nor the learners can use sufficiently.

#### **4.6 Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented data which were in response to the linguistic barriers to language teaching and learning in a rural bilingual classroom. Various data were received from language teachers who teach both English and isiZulu to bilingual learners (learners who learn English as L2, whose Home Language is isiZulu), and from FET bilingual learners. The next chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations for further research in the field of language (grammar) use in the academic domain.

## **CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION and RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 Chapter Introduction**

This chapter concludes the study which was conducted with an aim to elicit data from language teachers and L2 learners as primary respondents to this study. Various research tools were used to conduct, obtain, interpret, analyse and present research data with an aim to convert it to knowledge. The knowledge presented in this work is in response to the linguistic barriers to language teaching and learning in a rural bilingual classroom.

### **5.2 Research Questions answered**

- What are the linguistic obstacles to language teaching and learning in a bilingual classroom in Grades 10, 11 and 12 in the King Cetshwayo District in Kwazulu Natal?

The linguistic barriers that were found to be contributing to the communication problems among secondary school learners include the use of LoLT, teaching of language by non-language teachers, teaching of language by unqualified language teachers, attitudes towards grammar teaching by teachers, learner attitudes towards language learning due to language teaching by any incompetent teachers in school, problems with language structure of both English and isiZulu, problems with reading and writing in both English and isiZulu, problems with the identification of relevant text for use when teaching language, problems with the teaching of language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), problems with pronunciation of standard language, problems with language transfer (from isiZulu to English) and the overall teacher understanding of grammar which they are required to teach

The obstacles identified can be closely linked with the training of the teachers who teach English in schools. Teachers lack the necessary skills and knowledge to teach English and their qualifications and subjects they specialised in are not always close to the subject they teach. English is perceived to be an easy subject instead of taking cognisance of the fact that specialised grammatical knowledge is

needed coupled with excellent oral skills which can help the learners to acquire the L2. Socio-economic deficits also influence learner performance.

The sub questions were:

- What are the teachers' beliefs about the teaching of English grammar in schools?

Teachers believe that no specialised knowledge concerning grammatical theories and rules are needed to teach English and that it is an easy subject that can be taught despite the fact that they are not trained to teach it. Teachers believe minority languages should be afforded the chance to teach their L1 in the area where the dominant language is used by the particular group.

- What contributes to poor language use among learners in most public schools in the King Cetshwayo District?

First language interference (isiZulu), inadequate specialised knowledge and poor teacher education can be recognised to add to the many causes of poor teaching. A lack of resources and poverty also add to the negative overall result.

- What are the ways that can be implemented to improve the teaching and learning of English in Grades 1, 11 and 12 in secondary schools in the King Cetshwayo District?

Making sure that teachers who teach English dispose of excellent speaking and writing skills are crucial to elevate the standard of English in schools. Supporting parents in their struggle to cope with socio-economic challenges can also have an influence on an improved performance in school.

- What are the linguistic causes of grammatical incompetency to both learners and teachers which are evident in most public schools in the King Cetshwayo District?
- The lack of English L1 exposure is a serious cause of problems manifesting in the FET classroom. This lack of L1 experience influences the way learners and teachers speak and write English.

### **5.3 Limitations of the Study**

The study is limited to the opinions of FET teachers and their lived experiences and training information. More questions on other quantitative aspects could also be included, but the scope of the study leaned more towards qualitative interpretation and

views of participants. The study focused on schools in KwaZulu Natal only and the situation in other provinces of South Africa may vary.

#### **5.4 Research Conclusion**

To conclude the study, it is evident that the linguistic barriers which the study ought to find were discovered to be evident to both language teachers and from the learners of both English and isiZulu. The knowledge presented by both language teachers and bilingual learners indicates that there is a strong need for teacher programmes in the universities to develop teacher qualifications with linguistic elements of grammar as core modules/subjects in teacher training. This will help, in the long run, easy merging of linguistic knowledge from learners' L1 to learners' L2 when language is being facilitated. The teaching of language by non-language teachers was evident in the study and it signals an unhappy ending on the side of the learners' academic career. It was also discovered that language should be used as a social semiotic during the teaching of language so that learners see the different ways to which language may be used for a variety of purposes. This study is an eye opener to the research community, language scholars, teacher programme developers, curriculum developers, government and the community at large. It will, among other things, help in the identification of the linguistic obstacles experienced during language teaching and learning in many rural schools, not only in the location where this study was based, but to other places where language is taught using the same approach by teachers of the calibre mentioned in this study.

As it was explained in the Chapter 1, the current study aimed at finding the linguistic obstacles to language/grammatical incompetence to both learners and teachers, which is evident in most public schools in the King Cetshwayo district. It was found in the study that both learners and teachers struggle with the use of linguistic/language components in their everyday classroom interaction. The study found that both teachers and learners have limited understanding and use of language structure, use of loan words in both English and isiZulu, problems with standard language, problems with discourse analysis, problems with the choice of assessment activities for grammar lessons, problems with the choice of relevant language teaching styles and methods, problems with motivation to teach and learn language and problems with teaching

aids/resources to teach and assess language. Attitude towards language teaching was found to be the major cause for obstacles to the study of language. Learners had attitudes to the way teachers teach and assess language while teachers showed negative attitudes in terms of grammar teaching claiming that learners are lazy to study and language structures do not make learners to know how to speak and use language accordingly (explained in chapter two). Attitudes towards language teaching, problems with access such as lack of access to newspapers, magazines, TV and radio; lack of opportunity to hear or to speak English; lack of English reading material at home and at school; and poor language teaching by teachers whose own English proficiency is limited were found to be contributing to the current language teaching saga. As these pose barriers to the English learning process, it could be postulated that due to the absence of linguistic knowledge from language teachers, with language teaching overwhelmed by a number of linguistic barriers affecting learning such as individual differences, motivation, attitudes towards language learning and teaching, fear of failure on the side of the learners, learners are largely disadvantaged in terms of communicative and grammatical structures of a language. The study found that a bilingual classroom in the King Cetshwayo district is overwhelmed by the excessive teaching of literature (poems, short stories and drama) while language structures and use are purposefully neglected due to no sufficient knowledge to teach them in class. . The study found that teachers have a very limited content and command to teach language; as a result, they are unable to equip the learners with the kind of linguistic knowledge they need.

The teachers' beliefs about the teaching of English grammar in schools were found to be contributing to the learners' failure rate. There is a strong belief/attitude among teachers who took part in this study that language (grammar) can be best taught through literature. When asked to elaborate, they (teachers) do not have a clear understanding of language teaching through literature. There is a lot of guessing involved in the teaching of language, especially English language. These beliefs and strategies contribute to the poor language use among learners in most public schools in King Cetshwayo District. Attitudes, being found to be obstacles to language learning in this study, are crucial in the study of language because they influence either/both positive and negative learning, and in this case, both communicative and grammatical

forms of a language are not achieved because of attitudes involved to both teaching and learning in the classroom.

Speaking competence was not given any attention to the schools which participated in this study. There were no speaking activities for the learners to practice using language for different acts. Communicative roles such as debates, presentations, speech and drama need to be used and be guided by the teacher in order to serve specific goals of a lesson. Giving learners the opportunity to communicate their knowledge, skills, values and attitudes orally, provides them with an ongoing opportunity to improve their language skills. Emergent literacy such as print concepts, phonological awareness and alphabetic awareness can all be facilitated as integral part of the reading and communication activities. The learners themselves confirmed that they needed to master basic grammar that would enable them to improve their language proficiency in written and speaking skills. This therefore, is a serious assertion by the learners, this means that even the learners could easily see that their teachers are also struggling with the command of English language.

In a situation where learners struggle with the command of language, according to the current research, there is no guarantee that they will be guided accordingly since there is still a crisis for language use in rural schools. Their linguistic situation then negatively affects them in their subjects and in their quest to access tertiary education. In the study it was observed that there are generally very few effective language programmes that equip learners with communicative skills in the context of classroom language learning, where these exist, they are generic segmented language portions focusing on the structure of the language and less on the communication needs of the learners.

The linguistic barriers that were found to be contributing to the communication problems among secondary school learners include the use of LoLT, teaching of language by non-language teachers, teaching of language by unqualified language teachers, attitudes towards grammar teaching by teachers, learner attitudes towards language learning due to language teaching by any incompetent teachers in school, problems with language structure of both English and isiZulu, problems with reading and writing in both English and isiZulu, problems with the identification of relevant text

for use when teaching language, problems with the teaching of language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), problems with pronunciation of standard language, problems with language transfer (from isiZulu to English) and the overall teacher understanding of grammar which they are required to teach. Even though there were some of the hindrances to language teaching and learning which were identified such as the teacher learner ratio, teaching aids, socioeconomic backgrounds of the learners, the involvement of parents in their children's education and various everyday challenges to school education, the above linguistic obstacles/barriers remain crucial because they are significantly the reason why this study was conducted. In this study, I argued for the introduction of linguistics to teacher training precisely because of the obstacles which were identified as the major cause for the linguistic dilemma in schools, and precisely because knowledge of linguistics can assist teachers in handling the language mistakes which learners create, in working efficiently with learners' languages in a second/additional language classroom and in responding to social factors which can affect language teaching without any difficulties. This in the long run could help language teachers on language teaching with a use of a relevant language teaching theory in order to identify the relevant language-teaching model to use so that obstacles raised in this study are minimised.

## **5.5 Recommendations for Further Research**

Language teaching and learning in a bilingual classroom in a rural school setting is dominated by bilingual teachers with very scant knowledge of grammar in both English and in isiZulu. As for the limitations which might have been overlooked during the design, implementation and the developments which were made until the completion of this study, there is still room for further research, it could then be recommended that:

- Language teachers, those who are already in schools, be further empowered on language (grammar) teaching for the development of the learners' linguistic and academic career even beyond matriculation;
- The pre-service teachers of language in tertiary institutions be equipped with grammatical structures of language in their teacher training programmes before they enter the field of work, this will, in the long run create a sense of

stability in language use by learners, and help learners to be able to use language for the variety of purposes;

- Language teaching and learning should be taught with the focus on the development of the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) rather than the focus on literature. Learners should be given skills where they can use language for both academic and social purposes rather than using language for imaginative purposes in literature;
- Teachers of language must be equipped with both grammatical and structural control of a language. This could be achieved if language teachers are equipped with linguistic skills which are relevant and curriculum-focussed. This will help them know why learners make the errors which they make, and how those linguistic errors ought to be corrected.
- There should be an amalgamation of communicative approach and structural approach to language teaching and learning. Both approaches are essential to language study, and, therefore, a new approach needs to emerge as a result of the combination of the two, and be given a new name. I recommend a name such as GRACOM (grammatical communicative competence) approach. This approach would help in the teaching and learning of a balanced linguistic system to the learners of language.

## 5.6 Conclusion

It is clear from the study that there are problems which emerge regarding L2 acquisition and that the current implementation of policies and teaching methods need to be re-visited to focus attention on the grammatical competence of learners especially when acquiring L2. Preventative steps must be taken to assist in equipping students taking English as a subject to develop more progressively as the current situation is not conducive to a literate South African population. Minority languages should be granted the opportunity to be used as medium of instruction and be taught in the area as L1 where the L1 is that specific mother tongue.

It emerged from data that learners lack basic language skills. Stages of writing must be taught in the FET phase, this will help learners develop a sense of ownership of their work and have an insight that writing is a process; they are introduced to the

various purposes for writing so that they develop competence in it. The Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) (1997) that applies to general education is meant to facilitate learning and teaching of languages in a manner that diminishes the linguistic and cultural barriers that were sanctioned by the apartheid administration. It is, however, noted through this study that language of teaching and learning is still a barrier in some parts of the country as far as education is concerned. Currently, there is a lack the conceptual-linguistic knowledge necessary for the development of academic language skills, particularly those related to literacy.

## REFERENCE LIST

- Abushihab, I. (2014). An Analysis of Grammatical Errors in Writing Made by Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign Language. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 6(4): 2014, Vol. 6, No. 4
- Alidou, H. and Brock-Utne, B. (2006). "Experience I–Teaching Practices– Teaching in a Familiar Language." In *Optimizing Learning and Education in Africa–the Language Factor: A Stocktaking Research on Mother Tongue and Bilingual Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*, edited by H. Alidou et al., 159–184. Paris: ADEA.  
[http://www.adeanet.org/biennial2006/doc/document/B3\\_1\\_MTBLE\\_en.pdf](http://www.adeanet.org/biennial2006/doc/document/B3_1_MTBLE_en.pdf).
- Alimi, M. (2011). Botswana English: implications for English language teaching and assessment, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 32:(4): 32:4, 309-324, DOI: 10.1080/01434632.2011.574700
- Armstrong, E. & Ferguson, A. (2010). Language, meaning, context, and functional communication. *Aphasiology*, 24(4):480-496.
- Baltin, M. and Collins, C. (ed.) (2001). The Handbook of Contemporary Syntactic Theory. Blackwell Publishers Ltd: UK.
- Banda, F. (2000). The Dilemma of the Mother Tongue: Prospects for Bilingual Education in South Africa, *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 13(1):51-66.
- Bayley, R. & Lucas, C. (2007). *Sociolinguistic Variation Theories, Methods, and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Beaufort, A. (2000). Learning the Trade: *A Social Apprenticeship Model for Gaining Writing Expertise*. SAGE Publications Vol.17: pp.185-223, doi:10.1177/0741088300017002002.
- Beckerman, S.M. 2017. *Grammar Teaching Challenges and Strategies for Refugees*. Kansas City: University of Missouri.
- Benson, C. (2004). Do We Expect Too Much of Bilingual Teachers? Bilingual Teaching in Developing Countries, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 7:2-3, 204-221, DOI: 10.1080/13670050408667809
- Benson, C.J. (2002). Real and Potential Benefits of Bilingual Programmes in Developing Countries, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 5:6, 303-317, DOI: 10.1080/13670050208667764.
- Berens , M.S., Kovelman, I. & Petitto, L.A. (2013). Should Bilingual Children Learn Reading in Two Languages at the Same Time or in Sequence?, *Bilingual Research Journal*, 36:1, 35-60, DOI: 10.1080/15235882.2013.779618
- Beukes, A.M. (2009). Language policy incongruity and African languages in postapartheid South Africa, *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 40:1, 35-55, DOI: 10.1080/10228190903055550.
- Bhana, D. & Pattman, R. (2011). Girls want money, boys want virgins: the materiality of love amongst South African township youth in the context of HIV and AIDS, *Culture, Health & Sexuality: An International Journal for Research, Intervention and Care*, 13:8, 961-972, DOI: 10.1080/13691058.2011.576770.

- Borg, S. (1998). Talking About Grammar in the Foreign Language Classroom, *Language Awareness*, 7:4, 159-175, DOI: 10.1080/09658419808667107
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in grammar teaching: A literature review, *language awareness*, 12(2):96-108, DOI: 10.1080/09658410308667069
- Brock-Utne, B. (2001). Education for all - in whose language? *Oxford Review of Education*, 27(1):115-134.
- Brock-Utne, B. & Holmarsdottir, H.B. (2004). Language policies and practices in Tanzania and South Africa: problems and challenges. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 24:67-83.
- Broom, Y. (2004). Reading English in Multilingual South African Primary Schools, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 7(6): 241-260.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. 5th Edition. Pearson: New York.
- Burkett, B. Clegg , J. Landon , J. Reilly, T.& Verster, C. (2001). The Language for Learning project: Developing language-sensitive subject-teaching in South African secondary schools, *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 19(3-4):149-161.
- Burley, S. & Pomphrey, C. (2003). Intercomprehension in language teacher education: A dialogue between English and modern languages. *Language Awareness*,12(3-4):247-255.
- Çelik, O. and Kocaman, O. (2015) Barriers Experienced by Middle School Students in the Process of Learning English. *International Journal of Psychology and Educational Studies*, 2016, 3 (1), 31-46

- Chemla, E & Bott, L. (2013). Processing presuppositions: Dynamic semantics vs pragmatic enrichment, *Language and Cognitive Processes*, 28(3):241-260.
- Chen, Y. (2009). Language support for emergent bilinguals in English mainstream schools: an observational study, *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 22(1):57-70.
- Childs, G.T. (2003). *An Introduction to African Languages*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Chimhundu H. 1997. Language standardisation without policy or planning: Zimbabwe as a case study. In: Royneland U (ed.), *Language contact and language conflict*. Oslo: Volda College. Pp 129–150.
- Christiansen, I. & Aungamuthu, Y. (2012). Language issues, “misconceptions” and confusion: A qualitative analysis of KZN Grade 6 learners’ responses on a mathematics test, *Education as Change*, 16:1, 51-67, DOI: 10.1080/16823206.2012.691713.
- Clegg, J. & Afitska, O. (2011). Teaching and learning in two languages in African classrooms, *Comparative Education*, 47(1):61-77.
- Cockcroft, K. (2014). A comparison between verbal working memory and vocabulary in bilingual and monolingual South African school beginners: implications for bilingual language assessment, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 28:3, 276-292, DOI: 10.1080/21594937.2014.876573.
- Cohen, L. & Manion, L. (2000). Research Methods in Education. Fourth edition. London: Routledge

- Cohen, L.E. Kramer-Vida, L. Frye, N. & Andreou, M (2014). The effect of bilingual instruction and play on pre-schoolers' English proficiency, *International Journal of Play*, 3(1):36-52.
- Cope, B. & Kalantzis, M. (2007). *Multiliteracies: Literacy learning and the design of social futures*. South Yarra, Victoria, Australia: Macmillan.
- Costley, T. (2014). English as an additional language, policy and the teaching and learning of English in England, *Language and Education*, 28:3, 276-292, DOI: 10.1080/09500782.2013.836215.
- Cummins, J. (1981). Empirical and Theoretical Underpinnings of Bilingual Education. *The Journal of Education. Vol. 163, No. 1, Bilingual /Bicultural Education*, pp. 16-29
- Cummins, J. (2001). Instructional Conditions for Trilingual Development, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 4(1):61-75
- Cummins, J. (2004). Teaching for Cross-Language Transfer in Dual Language Education: *Possibilities and Pitfalls – 2*. Toronto: The University of Toronto.
- Davis, J. (2015). Rule, pattern, and meaning in the second language teaching of grammar, *Acta Linguistica Hafniensia*, 47(1):53-75.
- De Klerk, V. (1992). Why Language Teachers need Linguistics. *CRUX*. August 11-20.
- De Klerk, V. (2003). The language of truth and reconciliation: was it fair to all concerned?, *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 21(1-2): 1-14.

- De Klerk, V. (2006). The features of 'teacher talk' in a corpus-based study of Xhosa English, *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 37(2):125-140.
- De Klerk, V., Adendorff, R., de Vos, M. Hunt, S. Simango, R.S. Todd, L. & Niesler, T. (2006). Educated mother-tongue South African English: A corpus approach, *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 37(2):206-226.
- De Klerk, V. (2002). Language issues in our schools: Whose voice counts? Part 1: The parents speak. *Perspectives in Education*, Volume 20 Number 1 2002.
- De Wet, N. C. Niemann, G. S. & Matsela, Z. A. (2001). Language rights versus educational realities—a South African perspective, *South African Journal of African Languages*, 21(1):45-58.
- Department of Basic Education, RSA. (2010). The Status of Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in South African Public Schools: A Quantitative Overview. Pretoria: *Department of Basic Education*.
- Desai, Z. 2010. Multilingualism in South Africa with particular reference to the Role of African languages in Education. *International Review of Education – Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft– Revue Internationale de l'Education* 47(3–4): 323–339.
- Dornyei, Z. & Skehan, P. (2003). Individual Differences in Second Language Learning. *Language Teaching*, 31, 589-630.
- Durrheim, K. 1999. Quantitative measurement. In: Blanche, MT & Durheim, K (eds). 1999. Research in practice. *Applied methods for the social sciences*. CapeTown: University of Cape Town Press, 72-95.

- Devine, D. Fahie, D. & McGillicuddy, D. (2013). What is 'good' teaching? Teacher beliefs and practices about their teaching, *Irish Educational Studies*, 32(1)83-108.
- De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H. , Fouche, C.B and Delport, C.S.L. 2013. Research at Grass Roots. 4th Edition. Van Schaik Publishers: Pretoria.
- Du Plessis, T. (2012). The role of language policy in linguistic landscape changes in a rural area of the Free State Province of South Africa, *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 43(2):263-282.
- Early, M & Norton, B. (2014). Revisiting English as medium of instruction in rural African classrooms, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(7): 674-691.
- Eggins, S. (2004). *Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics: 2nd Edition*. Continuum: New York.
- Elyıldırım, S. and Ashton, S. (2006) Creating Positive Attitudes towards English as a Foreign Language. *Issue No.4. English Teaching Forum*. Turkey.
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current Issues in the Teaching of Grammar: An SLA Perspective. University of Auckland, Auckland: New Zealand. *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 40, No. 1 (Mar., 2006), pp. 83-107
- English, B. (2009). Who is responsible for educating English language learners? Discursive construction of roles and responsibilities in an inquiry community, *Language and Education*, 23(6):487-507.
- Erlam, R. (2008). What Do You Researchers Know about Language Teaching? Bridging the Gap Between SLA Research and Language Pedagogy, *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 2(3):253-267.

- Fatchulkip (2008). LANGUAGE IN SOCIAL CONTEXT. (2008, March 19). <https://fatchulkip.wordpress.com/2008/03/19/language-in-social-context/> Retrieved January 21, 2016.
- Fontich, X. & Camps, A. (2014). Towards a rationale for research into grammar teaching in schools, *Research Papers in Education*, 29(5):598-625.
- Frans, T.H.N. (2016). Barriers to Learning English as a Second Language in Two Higher Learning Institutions in Namibia. *Unpublished PhD Thesis: University of South Africa*.
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R. and Hyams, N. (2011). An Introduction to Language. 9th Edition. Wadsworth: CENGAGE
- Fromkin, V. Rodman, R. and Hyams, N. (2014). An Introduction to Language. 10th edition. Wadsworth: CENGAGE.
- Gibbons, S. (2013). The Aims of English Teaching: A View from History, *Changing English*, 20(2):138-147. DOI: 10.1080/1358684X.2013.788293
- Giebler, R. (2012). Teacher language awareness and cognitive linguistics (CL): building a CL-inspired perspective on teaching lexis in EFL student teachers, *Language Awareness*, (21:1-2): 113-135.
- Govender, R. (2009). IsiZulu-speaking Foundation Phase learners' experiences of English as a second language in English medium schools. *M. Ed Dissertation: UNISA*.
- Green, K. (1998). Language- based theories without the language base: Linguistics as critical metaphor, *European Journal of English Studies*, 2(2):136-154. DOI: 10.1080/13825579808574410.

- Gonnerman, L. M., Seidenberg, M. S., & Andersen, E. (2005). Graded semantic and phonological similarity effects in priming: Evidence for a distributed connectionist approach to morphology. *Applied Psycholinguistics* 26:3 137-151.
- Gyllenpalm, J. Wickman, P.O. & Holmgren, S.O. (2010). Teachers' Language on Scientific Inquiry: Methods of teaching or methods of inquiry?, *International Journal of Science Education*, 32(9):1151-1172.
- Halliday, M. A. K. and Matthiessen. C. M. I. M. (1999). Construing experience through meaning: A Language-based approach to cognition. *Computational Linguistics*. Volume 27, Number 1.
- Halliday, M.A.K. and Matthiessen C.M.I.M. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar*. 3rd Edition. New York: Hodder Arnold.
- Halliday, M. and Martin, J. 1993. *Writing Science: Literacy and Discursive Power*. London: Falmer Press.
- Harley, T. A. (2010). Talking the talk: *Language, psychology and science*. Hove: Psychology Press.
- Harley, H. (2008). *English Words: A linguistic introduction*. Wiley: Blackwell.
- Harper, C.A. & de Jong, E.J. (2009). English language teacher expertise: the elephant in the room, *Language and Education*, 23(2):137-151. DOI: 10.1080/09500780802152788.
- Harris, L.R., Davidson, C.R. & Aprile, K.T. (2015). Understanding teacher aides' definitions of reading: implications for classroom practice. *The Australian Association for Research in Education, Inc.* 2015. DOI 10.1007/s13384-015-0181-4

- Hartley, J. (2010). Teaching the new writing – Edited by Ann Herrington. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 41:E112–E113. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8535.2010.01125\_5.x
- Hasyim, S. (2002). Error Analysis in the Teaching of English. *Jurusan Sastra Inggris, Fakultas Sastra, Universitas Kristen Petra* .Volume 4, Number 1, June 2002: 42 – 50
- Huimin, Z. 2008. Speaking anxiety in the classroom: Getting students to talk. *Modern English Teacher*, 7(2) 33-42.
- Hendricks, M. (2009). Grade- appropriate literacy and South African grade seven learners' classroom writing in English, *Early Child Development and Care*, 179(3):271-284. DOI: 10.1080/03004430600989593.
- Howie, S. Venter, E. & van Staden, S. (2008). The effect of multilingual policies on performance and progression in reading literacy in South African primary schools, *Educational Research and Evaluation: An International Journal on Theory and Practice*, 14(6):551-560. DOI: 10.1080/13803610802576775
- Jawahar, K. & Dempster, E.R. (2013). A Systemic Functional Linguistic Analysis of the Utterances of Three South African Physical Sciences Teachers, *International Journal of Science Education*, 35(9):1425-1453. DOI: 10.1080/09500693.2013.785640.
- Kadingdi, S. (2007). Policy initiatives for change and innovation in basic education programmes in Ghana. Policy initiatives for change and innovation in basic education programmes in Ghana. (FCUBE).
- Kamwangamalu, N. (2000). A new language policy, old language practices: Status planning for African languages in a multilingual South Africa. *South African Journal of African Languages* 20(1):50-60.

- Kamwendo, G. Hlongwa, N. & Mkhize, N. (2014). On medium of instruction and African scholarship: the case of Isizulu at the University of Kwazulu-Natal in South Africa, *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 15(1):75-89. DOI: 10.1080/14664208.2013.858014
- Kamwendo, G.H. 2008. English, globalisation and Botswana's Revised National Policy on Education. In English language and literature: Cross-cultural currents, ed. M.M. Bagwasi, M.M. Alimi, and P. Ebewo, 155\_66. Newcastle upon Tyne: *Cambridge Scholars Press*.
- Kapp R 2004. "Reading on the line": An analysis of literacy practices in ESL classes in a South African township school. *Language and education*, 18:246-263.
- Kaschula, R.H. and Maseko, P. 2009. Vocational language learning and teaching at a South African university: Preparing professionals for multilingual contexts. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistics PLUS*, Vol. 38, 2009, 130-142
- Katamba, F. (2006). Morphology. 2nd Edition. Palgrave: Macmillan Publishers.
- Kaushik, S.R. & Krithivasan, K. (2000). Some results on contextual grammars. *International Journal of Computer Mathematics*, 73(3):279-291. DOI: 10.1080/00207160008804895
- Kempen, G. Olsthoorn, N. & Simone Sprenger, S. (2012). Grammatical workspace sharing during language production and language comprehension: Evidence from grammatical multitasking, *Language and Cognitive Processes*, 27(3):345-380. DOI: 10.1080/01690965.2010.544583
- Kibler , A.K & Roman, D. (2013). Insights into Professional Development for Teachers of English Language Learners: A Focus on Using Students' Native Languages in the Classroom, *Bilingual Research Journal: The Journal*

of the *National Association for Bilingual Education*, 36:2, 187-207, DOI: 10.1080/15235882.2013.820226.

Killgallon, D. and Killgallon, J. (2006). Grammar for Middle School: A Sentence-composing Approach. Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Klapper, J. (1998). Language learning at school and university: the great grammar debate continues (II), *The Language Learning Journal*, 18:1, 22-28, DOI: 10.1080/09571739885200211

Kramer-Dahl, A. (2004). Abuses of grammar teaching: the role of crisis discourse in appropriating a potentially innovative language syllabus for Singapore schools, *The Curriculum Journal*, 15:1, 69-90, DOI: 10.1080/1026716032000189489

Kramsch, C. (2003). Second language acquisition, applied linguistics and the teaching of foreign languages, *The Language Learning Journal*, 27:1, 66-73, DOI: 10.1080/09571730385200101.

Lagemann, E. C. (2002). An elusive science: The troubling history of education research. *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, New Orleans

Lasagabaster, D. (2001). The Effect of Knowledge About the L1 on Foreign Language Skills and Grammar, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 4:5, 310-331, DOI: 10.1080/13670050108667735

Law, J. (Commentary author) (2011). Grammatical input is best for most children in the early stages of language development but telegraphic input has its place for some, *Evidence-Based Communication Assessment and Intervention*, 5:1, 11-14, DOI: 10.1080/17489539.2011.599220.

Lee, O., Buxton, C. & Santau, A. (2008) Promoting Science among English Language Learners: Professional Development for Today's Culturally and

Linguistically Diverse Classrooms. *Journal of Science Teacher Education Vol. 19, No. 5 (2008)*, pp. 495-511

Leech, G., Deuchar, M. and Hoogenraad, R. (2006). English Grammar for Today. A New Introduction: 2nd Edition. Palgrave: Macmillan Publishers.

Liao P. (2007). Teachers' beliefs about teaching English to elementary school children. *English Teaching and Learning* 31(1):43–76.

Liddicoat, A.J. (2004). Language Planning for Literacy: Issues and Implications, *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 5:1, 1-17, DOI: 10.1080/14664200408669076.

Litosseliti, L. (2010). Research Methods in Linguistics. Continuum: MPG Books Group, Great Britain

Liviero, S. (2017) Grammar teaching in secondary school foreign language learning in England: teachers' reported beliefs and observed practices, *The Language Learning Journal*, 45:1, 26-50, DOI: 10.1080/09571736.2016.1263677.

Lora-Kayambazinthu, E. (2003). Language Rights and the Role of Minority Languages in National Development in Malawi, *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 4:2, 146-160, DOI: 10.1080/14664200308668054.

Loughran, J. (2009). Is teaching a discipline? Implications for teaching and teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 15:2, 189-203.

Lubisi, R.C. & Murphy, R.J.L. (2002). Assessment in South African Schools, Assessment in Education. *Principles, Policy & Practice*, 9:2, 255-268, DOI: 10.1080/0969594022000001968.

- Luchini, P.L. and Crivos, M. B. (2012). A pedagogical proposal for teaching grammar using consciousness-raising tasks. *MJAL*, 4(3), 141-153.
- Lukhele, B.S.B. (2016) Exploring Relationships between Reading Attitudes, Reading Ability and Academic Performance among Teacher Trainees in Swaziland. *Unpublished PhD thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.*
- Macaro, E. (2003). Second language teachers as second language classroom researchers, *The Language Learning Journal*, 27:1, 43-51, DOI: 10.1080/09571730385200071
- Mackenzie, N.M, Scull, J. and Bowles, T. (2015). Writing over time: An analysis of texts created by Year One students. *The Australian Association for Research in Education, Inc. 2015: DOI 10.1007/s13384-015-0189-9.*
- Macleroy, V. (2013). Cultural, linguistic and cognitive issues in teaching the language of literature for emergent bilingual pupils. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 26:3, 300-316, DOI: 10.1080/07908318.2013.852566.
- Makoe, P. & McKinney, C. (2014). Linguistic ideologies in multilingual South African suburban schools, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35:7, 658-673, DOI: 10.1080/01434632.2014.908889.
- Makoni, S.B. (2012). Language and human rights discourses in Africa: Lessons from the African experience, *Journal of Multicultural Discourses*, 7:1, 1-20, DOI: 10.1080/17447143.2011.595493.
- Manyike, T. V. (2013). Bilingual literacy or substantive bilingualism? L1 and L2 reading and writing performance among Grade 7 learners in three township schools Gauteng Province, South Africa, *Africa Education Review*, 10:2, 187-203, DOI: 10.1080/18146627.2013.812271.

- Marie-Louise Svalberg, A. (2012). Peer interaction, cognitive conflict, and anxiety on a Grammar Awareness course for language teachers, *Language Awareness*, 21:1-2, 137-155, DOI: 10.1080/09658416.2011.639886.
- Marinova-Todd, S.H. (2003). Know your grammar: what the knowledge of syntax and morphology in an L2 reveals about the critical period for Second/Foreign language acquisition. In: M Mayo & M Lecumberri (eds). *Age and the acquisition of English as a foreign language*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- McBride, C. & Wagner, R.K., Muse, A., Chow, B. W.Y & Shu, HUA. (2005). The role of morphological awareness in children's vocabulary acquisition in English. *Applied Psycholinguistics* 26 (2005), 415–435.
- Matjila, D.S & Pretorius, E.J. (2004). *Bilingual and Biliterate? An Exploratory Study of Grade Eight Reading Skills in Setswana and English*. Per Linguam: University of South Africa.
- Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2003). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause*. London: Continuum.
- McDonald, R. & Kasule, D. (2005). The Monitor Hypothesis and English Teachers in Botswana: Problems, Varieties and Implications for Language Teacher Education. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 18:2, 188-200.
- Mckinney, C. (2007). 'If I speak English, does it make me less Black anyway?' 'Race' and English in South African desegregated schools, *English Academy Review: Southern African Journal of English Studies*, 24:2, 6-24, DOI: 10.1080/10131750701452253.
- Mkhatshwa, E.J. (2007). Grammatical Analysis: It's Role in the Reading of Legal Texts. *University of Zululand: unpublished Doctoral Thesis*.

- Mooko, T. (2005). The use of research and theory in English language teaching in Botswana secondary schools, *Educational Studies*, 31:1, 39-53, DOI: 10.1080/0305569042000310958.
- Morrow, N., Jordaan, H. and Fridjhon, P. (2005). The effects of educational context on the understanding of linguistic concepts in English and isiZulu by grade 7 learners. *South African Journal of Education*. Vol 25 (3) 164-169.
- Moyo, T. (2001). Problems in Implementing Instructional Languages: Why the Language-in-Education Policy will fail, *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 32:1, 97-114, DOI: 10.1080/10228190108566174
- Mowlaie, B. and Rahimi, A. (2010). The effect of teachers' attitude about communicative language teaching on their practice: Do they practice what they preach? *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences* 9 (2010) 1524–1528.
- Murray DE, Christison MA. 2011. *What English language teachers need to know*. New York and London: Routledge.
- Murray, S. & Nhlapo, M. (2001). Researching language teaching: Understanding practice through situated classroom research, *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 19:3-4, 291-301, DOI: 10.2989/16073610109486293.
- Murriss, K. (2014). Philosophy with children as part of the solution to the early literacy education crisis in South Africa, *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, DOI: 10.1080/1350293X.2014.970856.
- Mutasa, D. E. (2000). Language policy and language use in South Africa: an uneasy marriage, *South African Journal of African Languages*, 20:3, 217-224.

- Mwaniki, M. (2012). Language and social justice in South Africa's higher education: insights from a South African university, *Language and Education*, 26:3, 213-232, DOI: 10.1080/09500782.2011.629095.
- Myhill, D. (2008). Towards a Linguistic Model of Sentence Development in Writing, *Language and Education*, 22:5, 271-288
- Nel, N., & Müller, H. (2010). The impact of teachers' limited English proficiency on English second language learners in South African schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 30, 635-650.
- Ngcobo, M.N (2012). The constitutional dynamism of a multilingual language policy: A case of South Africa, *South African Journal of African Languages*, 32:2, 181-187, DOI: 10.2989/SAJAL.2012.32.2.10.1147.
- Ngcobo, S. (2013). Educators' attitudes towards the role of isiZulu in education: Additive rather than exclusive, *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 31:2, 185-205, DOI: 10.2989/16073614.2013.815838.
- Nkosi, Z.P. (2014). Ubudlelwano obuphakathi kokufundisa ukufunda okubhaliwe nezinkolelo zothisha olimini lwasekhaya lwesiZulu emabangeni aphansi, *South African Journal of African Languages*, 34:1, 21-34, DOI: 10.1080/02572117.2014.954089.
- Oder, T. (2014). English language teachers' perceptions of professional teaching, *Teacher Development: An international journal of teachers' professional development*, 18:4, 482-494, DOI: 10.1080/13664530.2014.953253.

- O'Donnell, M. (2012). Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics for Discourse Analysis. Universidad Autónoma de Madrid (*Language, Function and Cognition*, 2011-12).
- Oluikpe, E.N. (2014). Igbo language research: Yesterday and today, *Language Matters*, 45:1, 110-126, DOI: 10.1080/10228195.2013.860185.
- Oosthuysen, J.C. (2015). Extricating the description of the grammar of isiXhosa from a Eurocentric approach, *South African Journal of African Languages*, 35:1, 83-92, DOI: 10.1080/02572117.2015.1056467.
- Palviainen, A. & Mård-Miettinen, K. (2015). Creating a bilingual preschool classroom: the multilayered discourses of a bilingual teacher, *Language and Education*, DOI: 10.1080/09500782.2015.1009092.
- Pappas, C.C. Varelas, M. Patton, S.K., Ye, L. & Ortiz, I. (2012). Dialogic Strategies in Read-Alouds of English-Language Information Books in a Second-Grade Bilingual Classroom, *Theory into Practice*, 51:4, 263-272, DOI: 10.1080/00405841.2012.726054.
- Parkinson, J. & Crouch, A. (2011). Education, Language, and Identity Amongst Students at a South African University, *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 10:2, 83-98, DOI: 10.1080/15348458.2011.563644.
- Paterson, L.L. (2010). Grammar and the English National Curriculum, *Language and Education*, 24:6, 473-484, DOI: 10.1080/09500782.2010.495782.
- Perkins, M. (2013). Student teachers' perceptions of reading and the teaching of reading: the implications for teacher education, *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 36:3, 293-306, DOI: 10.1080/02619768.2013.763790.

- Perry, K.H. (2008). Primary school literacy in Southern Africa: *African perspectives, Comparative Education*, 44:1, 57-73, DOI: 10.1080/03050060701809433.
- Postma, M. & Postma, D. (2011). Who is laughing last in the South African classroom? A critical reflection on language in education, *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 29:1, 43-54, DOI: 10.2989/16073614.2011.583156.
- Pretorius, E. J. (2002). Reading ability and academic performance in South Africa: Are we fiddling while Rome is burning?, *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 33:1, 169-196, DOI: 10.1080/10228190208566183.
- Pretorius, E.J. & Mokhwesana, M.M. (2009). Putting Reading in Northern Sotho on track in the early years: Changing resources, expectations and practices in a high poverty school. *South African Journal of African Languages* 59-73.
- Pretorius, E.J. & Matjila, D.S. (2004). Bilingual and Biliterate? A Exploratory study of Grade 8 Reading Skills in seTswana and English. *Per Linguam*: University of South Africa.
- Probyn, M. (2006). Language and Learning Science in South Africa, *Language and Education*, 20:5, 391-414, DOI: 10.2167/le554.0.
- Pyle, N. (Commentary author) (2011). Inclusion of letter knowledge, phonemic awareness, the alphabetic principle, and oral language is supported for early reading intervention for kindergarteners with language difficulties, *Evidence-Based Communication Assessment and Intervention*, 5:1, 19-23, DOI: 10.1080/17489539.2011.588426.

- Redinger, D. (2010). Language Attitudes and Code-switching Behaviour in a Multilingual Educational Context: The Case of Luxembourg. *PhD Thesis: University of York*.
- Richards, J. C. & Reppen, R. (2014). Towards a Pedagogy of Grammar Instruction. *RELC Journal*, 45(1), 5 –25. Doi: 10.1177/0033688214522622.
- Rudwick, S. & Parmegiani, A. (2013). Divided loyalties: Zulu vis-à-vis English at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 44:3, 89-107, DOI: 10.1080/10228195.2013.840012.
- Rudwick, S. (2004). 'Zulu, we need [it] for our culture': Umlazi adolescents in the post-apartheid state. *South African Linguistics and Applied Language studies*. NISC Pty Ltd. ISSN 1607-3614. 159-172.
- Safford, K. (2016) Teaching Grammar and Testing Grammar in the English Primary School: The Impact on Teachers and their Teaching of the Grammar Element of the Statutory Test in Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar (SPaG), *Changing English*, 23:1, 3-21, DOI: 10.1080/1358684X.2015.1133766.
- Sahlberg, P. & Boce, E. (2010). *Are teachers teaching for a knowledge society?*, *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 16:1, 31-48.
- Setati, M., Adler, J., Reed, Y. & Bapoo, A. (2002). Incomplete Journeys: Code-switching and Other Language Practices in Mathematics, Science and English Language Classrooms in South Africa, *Language and Education*, 16:2, 128-149, DOI: 10.1080/09500780208666824.
- Sheets, M.A. 2002. "The English Language Fluency and Occupational Success of Ethnic Minority Immigrant Men Living in English Metropolitan Areas." *Journal of Population Economics* 15(1): 137-160.

- Shohamy, E. (2005). The power of tests over teachers: *The power of teachers over tests*. In D. Tedick (ed.) *Second language teacher education: International perspectives*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Sibomana, E. (2017) A reflection on linguistic knowledge for teachers of English in multilingual contexts, *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 35:1, 93-104, DOI: 10.2989/16073614.2017.1302351.
- Simango, R.S. (2000). 'My Madam is Fine': The Adaptation of English Loans in Chichewa, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 21:6, 487-507, DOI: 10.1080/01434630008666419.
- Simango, R.S. (2011). When English meets isiXhosa in the clause: An exploration into the grammar of code-switching , *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 29:2, 127-134, DOI: 10.2989/16073614.2011.633361.
- Smith, R.C. (2001). 'Group work for autonomy in Asia: Insights from teacher research'. *AILA Review no. 15*, pp. 70–81.101-10.
- Sookrajh, R. & Joshua, J. (2009). *Language matters in rural schools in South Africa: are educators making the implementation of the Language in Education Policy (1997)*.
- Sung, C.C.M. (2014). Exposure to multiple accents of English in the English Language Teaching classroom: from second language learners' perspectives, *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, DOI: 10.1080/17501229.2014.936869.

- Suransky-Dekker, A.C. (1998). Portraits of Black schooling in South Africa, *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 11:2, 291-301, DOI: 10.1080/095183998236773.
- Schwartz, A.I, Mendoza, L. & Meyer, B. (2017). The impact of text structure reading strategy instruction in a second language: benefits across languages, *The Language Learning Journal*, 45:3, 263-281, DOI: 10.1080/09571736.2013.837092.
- Theron, L. C. & Nel, M. (2005). The needs and perceptions of South African Grade 4 educators, teaching English second-language (ESL) learners, *Africa Education Review*, 2:2, 221-241, DOI: 10.1080/18146620508566302.
- Thomas, E.M. & Roberts, D.B. (2011). Exploring bilinguals' social use of language inside and out of the minority language classroom, *Language and Education*, 25:2, 89-108, DOI: 10.1080/09500782.2010.544743.
- Van der Walt, C. & Dornbrack, J. (2011). Academic biliteracy in South African higher education: strategies and practices of successful students, *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 24:1, 89-104, DOI: 10.1080/07908318.2011.554985.
- Van der Walt, C. (1997). English as a Language of Learning in South Africa: Whose English? Whose Culture?, *Language Awareness*, 6:2-3, 183-197, DOI: 10.1080/09658416.1997.9959927.
- Van Heuvena, W.J.B. and Dijkstra, T. (2010). Language comprehension in the bilingual brain: fMRI and ERP support for psycholinguistic models. *Brain Research Reviews*. 64. 104 – 122.
- Vidgren, N. (2015). Third language acquisition and universal grammar, *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 12:1, 146-150, DOI: 10.1080/14790718.2012.734310.

- Webb, V. and Kembo-Sure. (2000). *African Voices*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Webb, V., Lafon, M., & Pare, P. (2010). Bantu languages in education in South Africa: an overview. Ongekho akekho! – the absentee owner, *The Language Learning Journal*, 38(3): 273-292. DOI: 10.1080/09571730903208389.
- Webb, V. (2002). English as a Second Language in South Africa's tertiary institutions: a case study at the University of Pretoria. *World Englishes*, 21(1):49-61.
- Webb, V. (2008). Language and the politics of institutional identity: can the University of Pretoria become a bi- or multilingual university?, *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 26(3):393-406. DOI: 10.2989/SALALS.2008.26.3.7.634.
- Webb, V. (2010). The politics of standardising Bantu languages in South Africa, *Language Matters: Studies in the Languages of Africa*, 41(2)157-174. DOI: 10.1080/10228195.2010.500674.
- Webb, V. (2002). Multilingualism in democratic South Africa: the overestimation of language policy. University of Pretoria. *Int. J. of Educational Development* 19. 351–366.
- Wessels, E. M. (1998). Teaching and researching in the information age, with specific reference to African languages, *South African Journal of African Languages*, 18(4):118-123.
- Wright, M. (1999). Grammar in the languages classroom: findings from research, *The Language Learning Journal*, 19(1):33-39. DOI: 10.1080/09571739985200071.

Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L. and Shimizu, K. 2004. The Influence of Attitudes and Affect on Willingness to Communicate and Second Language Communication. *Language Learning* 54:1, pp. 119–152.

Yu-Fen Yang (2014). Preparing language teachers for blended teaching of summary writing, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 27(3):185-206. DOI: 10.1080/09588221.2012.701633.

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND  
HIGHER DEGREES COMMITTEE**



**RESEARCH & INNOVATION**

Website: <http://www.unizulu.ac.za>  
Private Bag X1001  
KwaDlangezwa 3886  
Tel: 035 902 6887  
Fax: 035 902 6222  
Email: [ManqeleS@unizulu.ac.za](mailto:ManqeleS@unizulu.ac.za)

**Confirmation of Project Registration**

Registration Number	S521-16				
Project Title	<i>Linguistic obstacles to language teaching and learning in a bilingual classroom</i>				
Principal Researcher/ Investigator	Makhathini FN				
Student number	20051172				
Supervisor and Co- supervisor	Dr EM Mngcwango				
Department	Linguistics				
Nature of Project	Honours/4 <sup>th</sup> Year		Master's	x	Doctoral
					Departmental

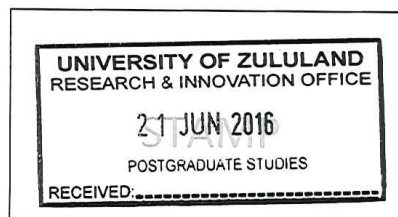
Dear Student

I have the pleasure of informing you that the Higher Degrees Committee, at its meeting held on 20 May 2016, approved your research proposal.

**Please note:** Your proposal can now be considered for ethical clearance after which you can apply for research funding. Kindly provide this letter with your ethical clearance certificate when submitting your final thesis for external examination.

Yours sincerely,

**Mr. Siyanda Manqele**  
Post-graduate Studies  
21 June 2016



NOT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY WHEN THEY FEEL THAT THEY DO NOT WANT TO. ANONYMITY OF ALL THE PARTICIPANTS/RESPONDENTS WILL BE ADHERED TO. THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY WILL ONLY BE USED FOR THE PURPOSES OF THIS STUDY ONLY.

## SECTION A: LANGUAGE TEACHERS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

**N.B:** In this study, the term grammar refers to the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, sentences and words in any given language. The grammar also refers also to the study of such rules which includes parts of speech, morphology, phonology, phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics.

1. What do you think is the role of language in the everyday teaching and learning in your school?  
.....  
.....  
.....
2. What do you think is the role of the learners' first language in their learning?  
.....  
.....  
.....
3. What are your views about the teaching of grammar in schools?  
.....  
.....  
.....
4. What do you understand by the structure of a language? Do you know any language structure?  
.....  
.....  
.....
5. What do you think is the root cause for the learners not to pass their (English/isiZulu) paper one examination in the FET phase?  
.....  
.....  
.....
6. What do you think are the major obstacles towards grammar teaching in your class?

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

7. What do you think should be done in order to improve the learners' use of grammar in their everyday use of the language?

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

## SECTION B: BILINGUAL LEARNERS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

**N.B:** In this study, the term grammar refers to the set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases, sentences and words in any given language. The grammar also refers also to the study of such rules which includes parts of speech, morphology, phonology, phonetics, semantics, and pragmatics.

1. What do you think is the role of language in your everyday learning in school?

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

2. What do you think is the role of your first language (isiZulu) in your everyday learning in school?

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

3. What are your views about the teaching of grammar (language structure) in schools?

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

4. What do you understand by parts of speech?

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

5. What do you think is the root cause for the learners not to pass their (English/isiZulu) paper one examination in the FET phase?

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

6. What do you think are the major obstacles/challenges towards the learning and understanding of grammar?

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

7. What do you think should be done in order to improve your knowledge of grammar in

7.1 English

.....  
.....

7.2 isiZulu

.....  
.....

*Thank you for sharing your views with me, they are important for research and to improve lives.*

UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND



LANGUAGE RESEARCH INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in the field of

GENERAL LINGUISTICS

with the provisional title:

THE LINGUISTIC OBSTACLES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN A BILINGUAL CLASSROOM

Faculty of Arts

Candidate: Makhathini F. N

Student Number: 20051172

N.B. THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS DIVIDED INTO TWO SECTIONS, SECTION A AND SECTION B. SECTION A CONSISTS OF QUESTIONS DIRECTED TO THE LANGUAGE TEACHERS WHILE SECTION B CONSISTS OF QUESTIONS DIRECTED TO THE LEARNERS. YOU ARE REQUESTED TO ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS TO YOUR BEST ABILITY. ALL PARTICIPANTS (TEACHERS AND LEARNERS) ARE FREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY AND ARE ALSO FREE NOT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY WHEN THEY FEEL THAT THEY DO NOT WANT TO. ANONYMITY OF ALL THE PARTICIPANTS/RESPONDENTS WILL BE ADHERED TO. THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY WILL ONLY BE USED FOR THE PURPOSES OF THIS STUDY ONLY.

### **SECTION A: LANGUAGE TEACHERS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

8. What were your major subjects in your teaching qualification?
9. What do you think is the role of language in the everyday teaching and learning in your school?
10. What do you think is the role of the learners' first language in their everyday teaching and learning?
11. Are learners allowed to use their First language during English period? Why?
12. What are your views about the teaching of grammar in schools?
13. How often do you teach grammar in your class? Why?
14. What do you understand by the phrase: 'language structure'?
15. As a language teacher you must have witnessed that the majority of L2 learners fail their (English/isiZulu) paper one examination in the FET phase. What do you think are the causes for that?
16. What do you think are the major obstacles towards grammar teaching in your class?
17. What do you think is the best teaching method for the teaching of grammar in schools? Why do you think so?

18. Do you teach parts of speech in your class? Roughly, how many times per term?
19. What activities do you give to your learners when you teach and assess them grammar?  
Mention them. Mention five
20. Do you teach in your class different forms of language, as in: idiomatic expressions, sayings and figurative language? What is the learners' response to these linguistic forms?
21. What do you think should be done in order to improve the learners' use of language (grammar) in their everyday use of the language?

*Thank you for sharing your views with me, they are important for research and to improve lives.*

### **SECTION B: BILINGUAL LEARNERS' INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

8. What do you understand by the term 'grammar'?
9. Do you think it is important to learn about English grammar in school? Why do you think so?
10. Do you think it is important to learn about isiZulu grammar in school? Why do you think so?
11. What do you understand by parts of speech? Please explain.
12. What do you think are the causes for the learners not to pass their (English/isiZulu) paper one examination in the FET phase?
13. What do you think should be done in order to improve your knowledge of grammar in:

#### 13.1 English

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

#### 13.2 isiZulu

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

14. Do you think your teacher of English/isiZulu is doing all in his/her power to make you understand grammar of English? Explain.

15. Do you have a positive attitude towards learning of English? Explain how.

16. Do you have a positive attitude towards learning of isiZulu? Explain how.

*Thank you for sharing your views with me, they are important for research and to improve lives.*