

**MALAWIAN IMMIGRANTS EXPERIENCES IN THE ACQUISITION OF
SPOKEN ISIZULU IN DURBAN**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that “*Malawian immigrants’ experiences in the acquisition of spoken isiZulu in Durban*” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....

SIGNATURE

(Mr)

.....

DATE

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Summary

One of the critical challenges associated with migration is a need to acquire a destination language, which has never been an easy experience for immigrants. This study aims at exploring and analysing experiences of Malawian immigrant labourers in their process of acquiring spoken skills of isiZulu in Durban.

In order to understand the phenomenon under investigation better, this study used a qualitative research approach and adopted a phenomenological research design. The data for this study was collected using semi structured one-to-one interviews. The data were analysed using content analysis method and was approached and discussed in light of Schumann's (1986) Acculturation Model and frame works and a destination–language acquisition model of Chiswick and Miller (2001).

Empirical findings from this study have shown that adults; just like children, are also capable of mastering a second language if they can manage both social and psychological factors that impede acquisition.

Key terms:

Malawian immigrants; isiZulu acquisition; Destination language; language acquisition; language learning; language and labour; Maturation constraints; Critical Period Hypothesis; Language and labour

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Acquisition of language skills is used as a tool of measuring an overall success of refugees' adaptation to the new environment (Loewen, 2004; Esser, 2006). Immigrants require language skills for adjustment to a new life in a new and foreign country. Adaptation implies getting used to the local people and participating in social events of the target language group. This, however; could hardly happen without the use of the dominant language of the area or town of residence. Esser (2006: i) comments that

....language and accent can act as symbols of belonging or foreignness and give rise to differentiation and discrimination. Inequalities in terms of access to education, income, central institutions, societal recognition and social contacts are significantly, although not exclusively, determined by linguistic competence in the relevant national language.

Language therefore, plays a vital role in the integration of immigrants into their host societies. All further social integration of immigrants depends largely on their acquisition of the target language. Esser (2006) notes that there are two types of integrations and these are: social integration and system integration. The former refers to inclusion in a social system of the target language group, while the latter refers to unity of the entire social system beyond ethnic grouping. Besides being a vehicle of everyday communication, language is a critical resource in labour market of immigrants as lack of it reduces their chances of finding a job. Incompetence in the language of the host society renders immigrant's previous education and work experience unusable. Language skills therefore, influence productivity of human capital, hence affect labour market success.

This chapter aims at providing the general introduction of the study. This being the case, the chapter outlines aims and objectives of the study, the significance of the study, research questions and an approach the study intends to adopt. Furthermore, this chapter presents

definitions of key concepts, theoretical and conceptual frame works and preliminary literature review.

1.2 The research problem

Since democracy was introduced in South Africa in 1994, the country has become the new destination for many African immigrants including Malawians. The majority of such immigrants live in the midst of local black South Africans who speak various African native languages. This being the case, African immigrants are subjected to different experiences as far as acquisition of destination language is concerned. This section and its sub topics present a problem under study which has to do with experiences of Malawian immigrants in the acquisition of isiZulu.

1.2.1 Problem statement formulation

This study explores and analyses the experiences of Malawian immigrants in their process of acquiring spoken skills of isiZulu in various natural linguistic environments of greater Durban area. Posel (2003) observes that South Africa has witnessed an influx of immigrants into its borders since introduction of its first democratic government in 1994. However, Posel (2003) also acknowledges lack of accurate statistics of those African immigrants entering South Africa. Posel (2003) cites the 1995 South African Police Service report which claimed that the number of African illegal immigrants in that year was between 5.5 million and 8million, while the Home Affairs Ministry reported 4 million undocumented African immigrants in the same year.

During the apartheid regime, foreign African contracted labourers were subjected to restrictions on both employment and settlement. Once in every two years, African contracted labourers were sent back to their home countries and if their services were needed again, they had to be re-admitted (Posel, 2003). In the year 1994, when democracy was implemented in the South Africa, the country started opening up its borders to African immigrants including those from Malawi. One of the challenges associated with such trend of migration was a need to acquire a destination language for those who may not have one before migration, and this has never been an easy exercise for many immigrants in the world.

1.2.2 Context of the research problem

Most of the Malawian immigrants come to South Africa as immigrant labourers. These immigrant labourers face language barrier as soon as they arrive in South Africa. The majority of them do not speak English, a language which is considered as "a lingua-franca in public life" (Henrard, 2003:11).

It is worth mentioning that although English is regarded as lingua-franca by many, the majority of ethnic groups in South Africa do not speak English. According to South African Census of 2011, the three most spoken languages in South Africa are isiZulu (22.7%); isiXhosa (16.0%) and Afrikaans (13.5%). English is spoken by only 9.6% of the total South African population at home and therefore it falls at number 4 as far as the numbers of speakers for each language are concerned. By region, isiZulu is spoken by 77.8% of the population in Natal.

The KwaZulu-Natal province, as the name suggests, is the home of Zulu people and isiZulu is the dominant language of the province. Malawians immigrants; irrespective of where they work and whom they work for, live among the Zulus. They are therefore compelled to learn isiZulu for their everyday communication and most importantly for their integration and recognition in their new society. As mentioned earlier that language can be used as a tool of differentiation as well as discrimination, most immigrants therefore, would not want to be treated as foreigners but rather would like to be seen as one of the locals by speaking their language.

1.2.3 Research questions

This study attempts to answer the questions on how and why do immigrants acquire a language of the destination country. In trying to address the above, the following specific questions are asked:

- a) What are the experiences of Malawian immigrants in Durban with regards to acquisition of spoken isiZulu?

- b) Which linguistic factors do Malawian immigrants consider to be critical for the rapid acquisition of isiZulu?
- c) What practices are deemed to potentially accelerate or inhibit the acquisition of spoken isiZulu?

1.3 Aims and objectives

Most research works on immigrants and second language learning that have been conducted in South Africa, have not yet focused on immigrants and the acquisition of South African native languages including isiZulu (Mabila, 2001; Picard, 2000). Most research conducted focuses on the learning of English in the classroom environment. This study explores and analyses the experiences of Malawian immigrants in their process of acquiring spoken skills of isiZulu in various natural linguistic environments of greater Durban area. The research is not aimed at testing the proficiency level of isiZulu of the Malawian immigrants, but at soliciting and analysing empirical information from the horse's mouth with regard to what I may call crucial social and psychological conditions for second language acquisition by adult people. The study also looks at the strategies used by Malawian immigrants to improve language competencies in KwaZulu-Natal.

1.4 The significance of the study

This study contributes in the literature concerning language acquisition by immigrants, especially the acquisition of a local language other than English. This research is also expected to contribute in the verification of Schumann's (1986) second language acquisition theory as approximated in the Acculturation Model. Schumann (1986: 379) defines this model as “social and psychological integration of the learners with the target language group”. The study is also grounded on human capital theory which suggests that improved language skills influence productivity in labour market concerned, as linguistic incompetence renders one's previous knowledge and work experiences from the origin country unusable in another place or country of different language of instruction. Both these models will be discussed briefly in the following section in this Chapter and in more detail in Chapter 2.

1.5 Language attainment model

Attainment of a dominant destination language is crucial in various spheres of life of immigrants; be it economic, educational, political or social adjustment in the new environment. Chiswick and Miller (2001) propose a Model of destination-language acquisition using human capital theory and processes of immigrant adjustment in order to make assumptions on the acquisition of destination-language skills among immigrants. In this section, destination-language attainment model is discussed in brief as its lengthy details will be discussed in Chapter 2 that deals with literature review.

1.5.1 Determinants of second language proficiency

Linguistics scholars (e.g. Spolsky, 1989) argue that theories on second language acquisition that lead to a single method are wrong. This is so because second language acquisition is a complex subject and that there are different factors that lead to acquisition. In this section, some second language factors will be discussed briefly; however, this does not necessarily mean that there are no other factors crucial to language acquisition.

1.5.1.1 Exposure

Exposure, according to Chiswick (1998: 256), refers to “the learning-by-doing and the formal instruction aspects of acquiring fluency in the destination language. It includes, the extent to which others, whether in person or through the media, uses the language in one’s presence and the extent to which the person himself or herself utilizes the language”. Linguistic exposure, therefore, is an opportunity available to second language acquirer to meaningfully interact with native language speakers in order to obtain the needed input that will enable the acquirer to use the language heard for acquisition. It is important, however, to mention that exposure to language may sometimes occur outside the target culture. For example, one may be exposed to aspects of the target language through schooling in his origin country or through specific television programmes and other forms of media.

Exposure to the target language and the intensity of that exposure is often cited as a determinant of second language proficiency. Chiswick and Miller (2001) remark that exposure may happen before or after immigration. For those who come from countries where dominant language is similar to that of the destination country would enjoy a wide exposure of the language in question and therefore acquisition may not be that challenging compared to those who first experience the target language in the destination country. Many countries that were once colonised, have adopted the language of their colonisers as one of the official languages. In most cases those languages are used predominantly in government, justice system, education and other official dealings. Pre-immigration language exposure happens mostly with international languages, such as English, French and Portuguese. If a destination language is one of the international languages and an immigrant happens to come from a country where the concerned language is spoken, then s/he is likely to have already acquired a certain degree of that particular language.

As for post-immigration exposure, Chiswick and Miller (2001) are of the view that acquisition of the target language becomes more effective if efforts are made immediately after arrival. The type of neighbourhood and family characteristics of the immigrants may influence the level of acquisition both positively or other way round. Chiswick and Miller (2001: 393) remark that

An immigrant who is not proficient in the dominant language can be more successful in avoiding exposure to and practice of the dominant language if this individual lives in an area where many others use his or her origin language.

Marriage is one of the social domestic settings that have the potential of inhibiting or accelerating acquisition of the destination language. Most linguistic scholars (e.g. Chiswick and Miller, 1994; 2001 and Stevens, 1999) argue that immigrants married before immigration to spouses of similar linguistic background would likely maintain the use of their language of origin; hence the practice would contribute negatively on the pace of acquisition. On the contrary, those married after immigration and to spouses of the target language group, would enjoy an intensive exposure to the target language as it becomes the dominant vehicle of

communication in the house, used among the wife, husband, children, in-laws and other extended members of the family. Chiswick and Miller (2001: 373) assert that

Marriage before immigration is more likely to be to a spouse from the same country of birth and linguistic background, and the origin language is more likely to be used at home. The results would be less proficiency in the destination language. If the immigrant married a person not proficient in the immigrant's origin language, there would be greater use of, and proficiency of the destination language.

1.5.1.2 Efficiency

Efficiency refers to 'the extent of improvement in destination-language skills per unit of exposure' (Chiswick and Miller, 2001: 393). Some scholars (such as Lennesburg, 1967) are of the opinion that children acquire language faster and much easier than adults. Since this study is about the experiences of the Malawian immigrant labourers with regards to acquisition of spoken isiZulu, enquiries are made to find out whether indeed adults do find themselves to be slow in language acquisition compared to their young ones.

1.5.1.3 Educational background

Another aspect that determines the pace of second language acquisition according to some researchers (Chiswick and Miller, 1994; 2001; Stevens, 1999) is the previous education of immigrants. Those with higher level of education are perceived to have a greater potential of acquiring second language as compared to those with less education. Learning ability in school subjects and languages as per this view appears to have a positive impact on acquisition of other additional languages.

1.5.1.4 Linguistic distance

Distance between the two languages concerned seems also to have effect in the manner and pace with which one acquires second language. Structural closeness between two languages involved

is vital in foreign or second language learning (Chiswick and Miller, 2001). Ferguson and Huebner (cited in Labov, 1998: 372), state that all languages for newborn children are equal in difficulty and that the differences in difficulty that one may experience in second language acquisition exist because of the differences in the structure of the first and second languages involved. Besides linguistic distance, social distance which Brown (1980: 159) defines as "the cognitive and affective proximity of the two cultures which come into contact within an individual" also has effect on second language learning.

1.6 Economic incentives

Economic gains associated with the destination language are likely to motivate second language acquirers to master the second language concerned as stipulated in the linguistic human capital theory, of which details are provided in the subsequent dedicated chapter on literature survey.

1.7 Research design and methodology

This section focuses on research design, research approach, participants, sampling, research instruments, data coding and data analysis. The section also provides a general structure or scope of the research. The study is more exploratory and qualitative in nature. It adopts an investigative perspective and examines all the possible sources of information in order to produce a detailed picture of the situation under study.

1.7.1 Research method

This study makes use of a qualitative research method which, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), reveals different perspectives of the subject under investigation as there might not be a single truth on the subject under study. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) see qualitative research method as good for discovering nature of certain situations, settings and processes.

Since this study is focusing on discovering experiences of Malawian immigrants with regards to acquisition of isiZulu, a phenomenological design has been adopted for this research. Leedy and

Ormrod (2005: 139) describe phenomenological research design as having to do with "a person's perception of the meaning of an event, as opposed to the event as it exists external to the person". A phenomenological study aims to understand perception of people on a particular situation. In other words, it tries to understand and interpret the meaning people assign to their daily life. (De Vos and Fouché, 1998). This study helps to understand and interpret perceptions of Malawian immigrants on acquisition of spoken isiZulu.

1.7.2 Participants

Participants of this research are composed mainly of adult male and female Malawian immigrant labourers from greater Durban area. A number of men and women who entered South Africa at the age of 20 and above were interviewed. There is no other specific reason as to why I chose the age of 20 years and above, apart from ensuring that the participants are adults and not children whom Lennesburg's (1967) Critical Period Hypothesis suggests that they acquire language much easier, particularly when they are at the age between two and twelve.

1.7.3 Sampling

Although a sample size of 30 participants has been selected, a final decision on the actual size of a sample is determined based on evidence of data saturation. *Data saturation* is a situation where new themes and categories stop emerging from the participants. Scholars (such as Tucket, 2004; Marshall, 1996), assert that there is no strict rule on size of sample in a qualitative study. A suitable sample is the one that suitably answers the research question. Furthermore, they allude that qualitative research usually depends on small number in order to explore details of the phenomenon under investigation. The target therefore, is not an amount of data, but rather depth and breadth of the data concerned. The decision on the selected sample size has been reached, considering manageability of data resulting from it as well as funds available for the research. The research further adopts a purposeful sampling strategy which entails selecting participants as per their different experiences in relation to research questions.

1.7.4 Research instruments

This research requires exploration of people's experiences, beliefs, perspectives and feelings. This can hardly be achieved without allowing the participants to narrate their socio-linguistic accounts of second language acquisition. This renders interviews an ideal tool to be used in this research. In collecting data for the study, interviews were used simply because some of the participants were illiterate adults who were not able to read or write. However, illiteracy of participants is not the only reason as to why this study has chosen to use interviews as it is also widely acknowledged by scholars (such as Hinds, 2000; Leedy and Ormrod, 2005) that interviews tend to yield more information unlike questionnaires where participants are sometimes restricted by space provided for an answer.

Semi-structured face-to-face interviews with each interviewee were conducted in order to maintain focus of the topic as unstructured interviews are likely to result in participants drifting away from the intended topic, hence yielding unintended information. Participants from various areas of greater Durban which include Mariann-Hill and Overport were interviewed. There was no strict time limit for the interview with individual informant as this study adopted a Flexible interviewing approach encourages conversational interaction between interviewer and informant without strictly following the standardized scripted questions (Scholar and Conrad 1997). However, the duration of an interview with each informant varied between 40 minutes to an hour.

Semi-structured interview entails two processes where few guiding questions are prepared in advance followed by broad exploration of themes related to the main questions. As a researcher, I ensured that my personal reactions to interview proceedings are kept to myself throughout, so that interviewees are not influenced by my perceptions and other preconceived notions. The data gathered were not treated as facts until they were duly analysed and interpreted.

1.7.5 Scope and outline of the study

This research contains six chapters and these are: general introduction, literature reviews, research design and methodology, data presentation, findings and discussion and conclusion. Chapter 1 presents research problem, aims and objectives of the study, significance of the study, research questions, research approach, and definition of the terms and scope of the study.

Chapter 2 contains detailed literature review concerning second language acquisition. The literature survey in this chapter provides a solid background of this research as theories surrounding second language acquisition are also reviewed in this chapter.

Chapter 3 presents in detail research design and methodology. This chapter takes a close look at research type/design, sample selection, data gathering instruments, validity of the study, reliability of the study, data gathering procedures and analytical frame-works.

In Chapter 4, the information gathered from the transcripts derived from face-to-face interviews is presented in various themes, categories and sub-categories in order to assist both the researcher and the reader in making sense of it.

Chapter 5 discusses and analyses the findings in accordance to emerged themes, categories and subcategories. The data is further interpreted with the help of literature reviewed, and finally the analysed data is integrated into theories of second language acquisition by immigrants.

Chapter 6 provides a summary of the findings and at the same time makes recommendations for future research. This chapter also highlights contributions and limitations of this research.

1.7.6 Data coding

The interview proceedings were recorded using a mini tape recorder with external microphone as the internal microphones are known for their interference with quality of sound (Hinds,

2000).The recorded data were then transcribed into text. The transcription of recorded data involves writing up full account of the interview.

1.7.7 Data analysis

The transcriptions of interview data were then followed by analysis. Wilkinson (2000: 77) defines the role of data analysis as to “bring data together in a meaningful way and enable us as researchers to interpret or make sense of it”. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) argue that there is no single right way of analysing data in qualitative research. This implies that the data could be analysed in different ways.

The data gathered for this research were analysed using content analysis which involves perusing through the written accounts of the interviews while taking notes of its themes, categories, subcategories, integrate and describe relationship should there be any. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 142) fittingly define content analysis as “...a detailed and systematic examination of the content of a particular body of material for the purpose of identifying pattern, themes, or biases”.

The analysed data were interpreted with the help of the literature reviewed and thereafter integrated with theories on second language acquisition by immigrants. This was followed by recommendations which were made on the basis of the interpretation.

1.7.8 Ethical and procedural consideration

The interviewees were first asked to sign an informed consent form which served as a written permission and agreement to participate in the research. The interviewees were treated with respect throughout the interview proceedings. As a researcher, I maintained eye contact with an interviewee; encouraged him/her to give more information by the nod of my head wherever necessary.The interviewees were informed of a location of interviews, themes and topic for discussion. They were as well notified that the interview proceedings would be tape recorded and that any information given would be treated with a high degree of confidentiality and anonymity of an informant.

1.8 Theoretical and conceptual frame-works

Data gathered for the purpose of this study are approached and analysed in light of Schumann's acculturation model. The model claims that the amount of linguistic outcome achieved by second language learner depends largely on the extent to which second language learners acculturate to the target language group. Acculturation entails friendliness and integration of second language learners with the target language group, as this facilitates more contacts that eventually enhance the acquisition of the target language. This means that the more second language learner acculturates and maximizes the contacts with the target language group, the more s/he acquires the language concerned. Schumann (1986) outlines a number of social factors as well as affective factors that influence the acquisition of second language. The outlined social factors include:

- a) *Social dominance pattern*: this entails that if second language learners (L2L) group is powerful than the target language (TL) group in terms of the economic status, politics, education and culture, then the L2L group sees no need to acquire the TL. Likewise, when L2L group is inferior, the social gap between them and the TL group becomes wide and the social contacts between the two groups are minimal, hence, no acquisition can be promoted. Schumann (1986), however, remarks that the second language acquisition in this situation will only be facilitated when the two groups share equal status. Nonetheless, equal status in this case would not include geographic demography.
- b) *The three integration strategies*: these are: assimilation, preservation and adaptation. Assimilation is a situation whereby L2L group gives up its life style and values to adopt those of target language group. The practice seems to promote the acquisition of the target language. Preservation is a scenario whereby L2L group rejects the life style and values of the target language group in favour of their own. This inhibits the acquisition. The adaptation is a state of affairs where the L2L adopts and accepts the values and life style of the TL group and at the same time maintains its own life style and values. This practice tends to promote the varying degree of acquisition.

- c) *Enclosure*: sharing of social facilities such as churches, mosques, schools, madressah, clubs and others, which Schumann (1986) calls *enclosure*, is another experience that seems to enhance the acquisition of the target language by immigrants. For example, Malawian Muslim immigrant labourers, who work with local children as madressah (traditional religious Islamic school) teachers in various townships of Durban, may perform tremendously well in the acquisition of isiZulu. The continuous interaction with isiZulu native speaking children who also act as their isiZulu teachers, gives them a wide and regular intensive exposure to the target language.

- d) *Cohesiveness and size*: when members of second language learners are concentrated in one particular town or city, they tend to exclude themselves from the target language group, and when their size increases, more intra-group contacts are developed than inter-group contacts hence affect the acquisition of the target language concerned.

- e) *Congruence or similarity in culture*: Schumann (1986) claims that when culture of the target language group is similar to that of second language learners, more social contacts are likely to take place and the situation will eventually promote acquisition of the target language.

- f) *Length of residence*: Schumann (1986) is of the view that long stay in the area of the target language group facilitates contacts between second language learners and the target language group and these contacts would aid acquisition of the target language in the long run.

Besides social factors, Schumann (1986) also outlines a number of affective factors that are also important for the second language acquisition. Affective factors are psychological factors that affect language or acquisition by individuals, unlike social factors that may affect a group. Included in the affective factors is motivation factor which has been categorized by Schumann (1986) into two, namely an *integrated motivation* and instrumental motivation. An *integrated motivation* is a situation whereby one acquires second language (L2) to become part and parcel of the speech community of the target language whom he/she admires. Instrumental motivation is the attainment of L2 mainly for material gains.

Language therefore appears to be the main tool that can be used by immigrants to measure their level of integration in a new environment. Failure to express oneself whether for self-defense or just explanation of viewpoint, leads to stressful circumstances in life of immigrants (Esser, 2006; Dornic, 1985). Stresses arise due to one's fear that he/she would be laughed at and ridiculed for incorrect expression. A person with weak language skill is prone to worries and doubts of whether his/her utterances would reflect his/her wish. The degree of stress may even accelerate when a second language learner fails to defend one-self against false accusations.

In addition to Schumann's Model, this study will also rely on Chiswick and Millers theory of language attainment. Chiswick and Miller (2001) outlined a number of factors that are critical in language acquisition, and these include exposure to the target language, previous education of the second language acquirer, efficiency, and linguistic distance between the two languages in question and economic returns associated with target language. More details will be given in Chapter 2.

1.9 Definition of terms

This section provides definitions of some key terms and concepts encountered in this study.

1.9.1 Immigrants

The term *immigrants* refer to people who migrate voluntarily from their country of origin or region to another. Even though this term has been used by lay people as a synonym of the term *refugees*, the two terms are technically different in the sense that the latter refers specifically to those people who leave their countries of origin or region for fear of persecution. Thus, refugees seldom think of returning to their country of origin due to fear of further persecutions, unlike immigrants who are free to return to their country of origin at any time of their choice. Both immigrants and refugees are foreigners, only that immigrants' motive to move is generally a search for greener pastures in the destination country while for a refugee the push is a fear (Segal and Mayadas, 2005).

Both *immigrant* and *emigrant* may refer to a same person with a slight but technical difference. One is referred as an immigrant simply because s/he has moved to that particular country and at the same time might be called *emigrant*; someone who has moved away from a country of origin. In other words, *immigration* refers to movement of people to a country of destination while *emigration* refers to movement of people away from their country of origin (Merriam Webster dictionary).

After a careful consideration of the status of Malawians who work as unskilled labourers in Durban, I have decided to call them *immigrants* rather than refugees simply because the majority of them, if not all, are people who had the free will to choose between leaving their country of origin or not since there is no war or political instability in that country which would render them vulnerable to persecution. The only problem that could be cited is that of economic challenges which are rife in Malawi.

1.9.2 Language acquisition and language learning

Generally, phrases *language acquisition* and *language learning* are used interchangeably by many scholars to refer to *language attainment*. Scholars such as Krashen (1976) and Terrel (1977), however, draw a line of distinction between the term *acquisition* and *learning*, where *acquisition* refers to language attainment in a natural linguistic environment without necessarily going through a tutored language course in a classroom set up. *Learning* on the other hand, refers to language attainment in a classroom situation. Terrel (1977: 327) aptly defines the two terms as follows:

Learning is the conscious process of studying and intellectually understanding the grammar of L2. Acquisition, on the other hand refers to the unconscious absorption of general principles of grammar through real experiences of Communicating using L2.

With regard to the title of this research, I chose to use the term *acquisition* simply to indicate that the attainment of isiZulu by Malawian immigrants, does not take place through classroom

learning and teaching situation, but rather the attainment takes place through interactive communication in a natural linguistic environments of greater Durban area.

1.10 Conclusion

In this Chapter, an orientation to the study has been provided which describes the research to be undertaken. Issues regarding the problem and study objectives were clearly presented. The problem statement of this research was prompted by scarcity of research on immigrants and acquisition of South African native languages which include isiZulu; as most research conducted involve the learning of English in a classroom set up.

The research design used to address the research question is qualitative. The chapter has also presented the scope as well as definition of terms related to this study. Schumann's Acculturation Model as well as Cheswick and Miller's language attainment model form the theoretical framework from which the research develops.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

It has been stated in the preceding chapter that knowledge of a destination language is an important element in the integration of immigrants into their host societies. Destination language plays an important role in the lives of immigrants. Language is, among other things a vehicle of communication and at the same time an investment for immigrants. Lack of basic language skills therefore, could lead second language acquirers to a stressful situation. Stress may arise not only because of failure to communicate, but also because of the power that manifests itself in a language that makes it act as a symbol of solidarity for those who speak it. Comradeship with local citizens is among other things, most immigrants would like to achieve in their early days of stay in a foreign country. This could best be achieved through the use of the destination language involved. Acquisition of a language of the receiving country therefore, becomes exceedingly important for immigrants. Esser (2006) observes that language can act as a symbol of belonging or foreign-ness; it can as well be a cause for differentiation and discrimination against foreigners.

This chapter aims to review literature on the acquisition of the destination language and its role as an effective tool for immigrants' integration into their host country. Literature review contributes to a large extent towards a research and it helps in acquainting a researcher with the available body of literature in the field of interest. It is an integral part of the entire research process and contributes immensely in almost every step of the research project. Cohen et al. (2011: 121) outline the importance of literature survey as they say that

A literature review should establish a theoretical framework for the research, indicating the nature and state of the theoretical and empirical fields and important research that has been conducted and policies that have been issued, defining key terms, constructs and concepts, reporting key methodologies used in other research into the topic. The literature review sets out what the key issues are in the field to be explored, and why they are, in fact, key issues, and it identifies gaps that need to be plugged in the field.

Literature on bilingualism as a global phenomenon encompassing all classes of society and group ages is also reviewed in this chapter. Attempt is made to explain the difference between dominant and balanced bilingualism, but also the difference between subtractive and additive bilingualism. The emphasis in this chapter is also on literature that deals with the economic impact of knowledge of a dominant language. Mesch (2003) states that immigrants' acquisition of a destination language, is a form of investment to improve economic opportunities. Besides attaining high level of education and the necessary skills, knowledge of a destination language remains critical for immigrants seeking employment opportunities in the receiving country.

2.2 Migration and language acquisition

One of the challenges associated with migration is a need to acquire destination language skills for those who may not have them before migration and this has never been an easy experience for many immigrants in the world. Loewen (2004) remarks that although language is not the only problem for the refugees in their new environment, language is used as a tool of measuring an overall success of refugees' adaptation to the new environment. This remark is of great importance for immigrants' adjustment to a new life in a new and foreign land. Adaptation implies getting used to the local people and participating in social events of the target language group. This, however, could hardly happen without the use of the dominant language of the area or town of residence.

South Africa, as described by Crush (2008) is increasingly becoming a new destination for immigrants from various countries in Africa. Africans have since pre-colonial era, kept on wandering from one place to another in search of food, place for shelter and a better security for themselves and of course their animals. Later migrations particularly, cross border migrations, brought in a number of inequalities between the two groups in contact. Esser (2006) observes that one possible cause for disparity between migrating and the host groups especially in labour market, is immigrants' shortfall in the destination language. The subsequent subsections of this section will discuss in detail the phenomenon of migration and destination language acquisition.

2.2.1 Reasons of migration

Famine and war are the most cited reasons that cause worldwide migration. World statistics on migration seems to be on the increase each and every year. Pumariega et al. (2005) state that in the year 1970, there were about 2.5 million refugees in the world; but 10 years later the number increased to 8.2 million. In the year 1990, the World refugee population was at 17 million, and in the year 2000, the number increased tremendously to reach 40 million. Pumariega et al. (2005), state that one out of 135 people in the World today is a refugee. Perhaps this suggests that the World conditions today are not that conducive, hence people are in constant movement in search of what they perceive to be a peaceful and a better environment to live in.

Recent and modern migrations however, cannot be attributed to famine, war and environmental degradation alone, as people from countries that seem to be peaceful and disaster free are also on the move. Amin (1995: 29) therefore, describes modern migrations as migration of labour and not people, in the sense that most of the economic migrants live in their destination countries as mere “wage earners or share croppers” without any intentions of permanent settling. The participants of this research therefore, can best be called *economic migrants* simply because the main push factor of their migration is to earn a better living wage in South Africa. Their migration is neither determined by war nor fear for persecution in Malawi.

Besides war, economic security, environmental grounds and other material reasons cited as causes of migration, Krokfors (1995) proposes that cultural factors have to be included among explanations of migration. He urges the authorities to enforce individual and household entitlement to cultural resources, as failure to do so might be a source of problem to people. He therefore defines poverty as

...failure of certain capacities that are important for the wellbeing of an individual or household. These failures can depend on socio-political or environmental conditions in certain localities, but might also be due to the cultural realm not present in other localities and thus leave options for improved living conditions through spatial mobility (Krokfors, 1995:55).

2.2.2 The difference between immigrants and refugees

The term *immigrants* refer to people who migrate voluntarily from their country of origin or region to another. Even though this term has been used by lay people as a synonym of the term *refugees*, the two terms are technically different in the sense that the latter refers specifically to those people who leave their countries of origin or region for fear of persecution (Segal and Mayadas, 2005). Thus, refugees seldom think of returning to their country of origin due to fear of further persecutions, unlike immigrants who are free to return to their country of origin at any time of their choice. Both immigrants and refugees are foreigners, only that immigrants' motive to move is generally a search for better jobs and economic security in the destination country while for a refugee the push is fear. Chiswick and Miller (2001:394), aptly outline the different categories of immigrants when they say:

Immigrants differ in their reasons for migrating; those who move primarily for improved labor market opportunities for themselves are known as economic migrants. Those who move primarily to accompany or join another family member, as is often the case for women and more so for children, are known as tied movers. Those who move because of fear or perception of persecution or discrimination due to their race, ethnicity, political orientation, or social class are called refugees. Ideological migrants are those who move for nationalistic or political reasons to a destination that better satisfies these objectives, even if they do not fear or perceive short-term discrimination in the origin.

Refugees have no social contacts with their home countries for obvious reasons of fear, unlike immigrants who are free to visit their native countries as they desire. Cortes (2004) observes that refugees are likely to stay longer in their destination countries than immigrants who are there just to accumulate a capital and return home. It is also observed that refugees' new arrivals are of different ages, while immigrants are predominantly of working ages.

Cortes (2004) notes that refugees are likely to invest in the recipient country's specific-human capital, because of their expected longer life horizon in the host country. This would of course include acquisition of destination language skills. This view implies that refugees are better positioned to acquire destination language skills than immigrants. However, some scholars (such as Mesch, 2003; Segal and Mayadas, 2005) are in favour of the opposite view which claims that

economic immigrants are inclined to adapt quickly to the new culture and language of the destination country. This is simply because their decision to migrate was greatly influenced and attracted by the positive aspects of the destination country. In contrast, refugees are forced out of their origin country and therefore tend to see themselves as temporary residents in the host country, who would return home as soon as the situation gets better at home. Refugees, therefore, would not show much interest in social incorporation as compared to economic immigrants who are much positive with their newly chosen environment. Based on this argument, Malawian immigrant labourers in Durban are expected to show more interest in social incorporation and of course adapt rapidly to their new environment, as their decision to move was not by force or fear, but rather was triggered by attractiveness and belief that South Africa is a land of economic opportunities. This however, is the core of my research, and will be duly discussed Chapter 5.

2.2.3 Migration trends in South Africa

Posel (2003), remarks that during the 1970s and 1980s, migration research in South Africa centered only on migrant labour system within the country. This was because of the infamous pass laws that restricted the movements of Africans from rural areas to cities in order to control labour. The apartheid regime controlled and restricted the urbanisation of Africans, where permanent urban settlement was something unimaginable for blacks in South Africa. Foreign African contract labourers coming to work in South African mines were also subjected to similar restrictions. Furthermore, those foreign African contract labourers who were lucky to be permitted entry into the country were subject to repatriation once in every two years as per labour law of the time. Crush (2008) states that before 1994, an *immigrant* in South African situation would mean one has to assimilate into the white mainstream, and the issue of colour was critical at that time. It was this understanding that placed Africans at the level of mere temporary contract migrants, hence could not be granted the status of permanent residents.

When democracy was introduced in South Africa by a landslide victory of the African National Congress (ANC) over its bitter rival, the National Party, the number of people entering the

country from other African countries increased tremendously. Posel (2003) however, is quick to point out that the exact number of African immigrants entering South Africa is not known. Perhaps this is because the majority of these immigrants are not documented and tend to stay in South Africa without legal permits. Crush (2008) claims that migrants from Mozambique, Lesotho, Zimbabwe and Malawi make the majority of the undocumented migrants. Crush (2008) further observes that after 1994, South Africa as a country encountered a problem in formulating a suitable immigration policy that would cater for its new roles in the democratic country. It was only in 2002 when the South African new Immigration Act was signed into law that such a policy existed, eight years after the introduction of democracy. The new law was first implemented in the year 2005. The law outlines the new immigration frameworks that aimed at attracting skilled migrants into the country and at the same time providing ways of controlling illegal immigrants through community policing. Crush (2000) criticizes the new immigration policy for being influenced by the Control Act of the apartheid regime which promoted arrest and deportation with suspects undergoing minimal due processes of law.

2.3 Destination language acquisition.

Scholars (e.g. Mesch, 2003; Esser, 2006; Backer, 2007) remark that fluency in the destination language is an important qualification for immigrants' integration into the society of the receiving country. Language plays an important role in the lives of immigrants. It is, among other things, a vehicle of communication and at the same time an investment for immigrants. Lack of proper language skills therefore, can lead the second language acquirers to a stressful situation. Stress may arise not only because of failure to communicate, but also because of the power that manifests itself in a language that makes it act as a symbol of solidarity for those who speak it. Comradeship with local citizens is among other things most immigrants would like to achieve in their early days of stay in foreign countries. This can best be achieved through the use of the destination language involved. Acquisition of the language of the receiving country therefore, becomes exceedingly important for immigrants.

The term *language acquisition* is used by many as a synonym to *language learning*. However, scholars (such as Krashen, 1976; Terrel, 1977) make a distinction between *acquisition* and

learning. According to them, acquisition refers to language attainment in a natural linguistic environment without necessarily going through tutored language courses in a classroom set up. *Learning* on the other hand, refers to formal language attainment in a classroom situation. *Learning* has been described by Terrel (1977:327) as “a conscious process” that involves understanding aspects of grammar in a scholarly manner, while in *acquisition* the basic grammar is acquired unconsciously through practical language use and not theory. The difference between *acquisition* and *learning* does not, however, suggest that acquisition cannot take place in a formal classroom situation. It is perhaps worth mentioning that in the title of this study, the technical difference between the two terms was taken into consideration. Based on this understanding, it was felt that the word *acquisition* would be more suitable in the context of this study than the word *learning*. This is because the attainment of isiZulu by Malawian immigrants in Durban happens informally through immigrants’ interactive communication with the target language group.

2.4 Bilingualism

Bilingualism is a global phenomenon encompassing all classes of society and age groups. It is not a rare phenomenon as some might think. Grosjean (1994) comments that half of the World’s population is bilingual. Migrations, trade and commerce, education, nationalism and intermarriages are among many reasons that bring different languages into contact, hence the emergency of bilingualism.

Esser (2006: 45) defines bilingualism as “the mastery of two languages: the native language, i.e. L1, and an additional second language, i.e. L2, which is learned simultaneously or subsequent to the first”. Hamers and Blanc (2000:1) cite Webster’s Dictionary (1961) definition of Bilingualism as “having or using two languages especially as spoken with the fluency characteristic of a native speaker; a person using two languages especially habitually and with control like that of a native speaker”.

Hamers and Blanc (2000) observe that linguists are in two extremes as far as the definition of bilingualism is concerned. On the one hand, there are those who view it as mastering of two

languages and achieving a native-like accent in the second language. On the other hand, there are those who view bilingualism as a minimal competence in one of four language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) in a language besides his or her mother tongue. Hamers and Blanc (2000) argue that the issue of native-like proficiency is problematic as there is no specification as to what it means to be a native-like speaker. Hamers and Blanc (2000) wonder if an ably bilingual speaker with a high degree of competence in the second language could be thrown out of the definition of being a bilingual simply because of having a foreign accent.

Another problematic old and widely held view on bilingualism is that it has been marked theoretically by equal competency in the two languages involved (Adams 2003). While agreeing to the fact that equal bilinguals may of course exist, Adams (2003) however, observes that there are also those among the bilinguals who tend to have greater competence in one language than the other. He calls such bilinguals as dominant bilinguals. *Competence* is another term that could be problematic as it is not clear what type of language skills one should master for him/her to be considered competent. Adams (2003) argues that the guiding principle of examining bilingual's competence should be positive performance in the second language. By positive performance, he means that attention should be directed to speaking and writing skills of a language and not reading and listening. Adams (2003) notes that writing and speaking are active skills of a language while reading and listening are passive. Esser (2006) also emphasizes on these two active skills of language, namely speaking and writing. He finds oral skills important for everyday relationships and linguistic integration into the host society, while writing skills are critical for all institutional contacts.

2.4.1 Dominant vs. balanced bilingualism

On the one hand, Hamers and Blanc (2000:8) define a balanced bilingual as an individual “who has equivalent competence in both languages”. On the other hand, a dominant bilingual is the one whose one language is superior to the other. Hamers and Blanc (2000:8), however, are quick to point out that balanced bilingualism does not necessarily mean highest degree of proficient in both native and the second language but rather “it is a state of equilibrium reached by the levels of competence attained in the two languages as compared to monolingual competence”. As for

the equivalent competence, they cautioned that this should not be understood as ability to use both languages for all functions in various spheres of life and in different areas of language skills.

According to Adams (2003: 8), bilingual's competence in both mother tongue and the target language will differ across the various areas of language skills such as phonological, morphological, syntax, semantic and others. Adams (2003) is of the opinion that a lay person who communicates with some difficulties in a second language would be considered as 'a practicing bilingual' although his language is by far imperfect compared to that of an educated professional who is able to deliver a speech using the same second language. He, therefore, adopts what he calls "an all-embracing definition of bilingualism", which takes on board both perfect and imperfect bilinguals. Adams (2003), however, does not recognise those who know few words from the second language concerned as bilinguals. He is of the impression that doing so would lead to a serious problem whereby everyone in possession of few foreign vocabularies would be classified as a bilingual.

In trying to explain the root cause for dominant bilingualism, Grosjean (1994) remarks that the needs and the use of two languages by bilinguals, are in most cases different, and therefore, it is difficult for a bilingual to attain equal fluency in both languages. Not all spheres of life would require the same level of fluency. This being the case, bilinguals acquire and use languages for different purposes and in different domains of life. Language acquisition, therefore, is domain specific. Grosjean (1994) observes that certain topics are better covered by lexicon of one language while other topics would accommodate the lexicon of the bilingual's two languages. According to Grosjean (1994), the level of proficiency in a language and the type of language skill one acquires, depend largely upon the need for that particular language and skill. It is on these grounds we find that there are those bilinguals who are good only in spoken skills of their target language while others might be good only at a written form of a language. Grosjean's (1994) definition of bilingualism is therefore inclusive, just like that of Adams (2003) above. He defines bilingualism as "ability to produce meaningful utterances in two (or more) languages" (Grosjean, 1994:1). He has indicated that his definition of bilingualism includes migrant workers with limited command of destination language and who can neither write nor read in their target

language. This definition of bilingualism is of great interest to this research whose participants are adult immigrants who acquire only the spoken skills of isiZulu. Why do they acquire only spoken isiZulu? It might be early to provide answers to this question at this point as that will be adequately addressed by the empirical findings of this research in the subsequent chapter.

2.4.2 Subtractive vs. additive bilingualism

Baker (2001 as cited in Chunyan, 2005: 15) aptly describes the difference between additive and subtractive bilingualism as follows

When a second language and culture have been acquired with little or no pressure to replace or reduce the first language, an additive form of bilingualism may occur. When a second language and culture have been acquired with pressure to replace or demote the first language, a subtractive form of bilingualism may occur.

Scholars (e.g. Cook, 1997; Chunyan, 2005), contend that children who switch to second language at an early stage, may face severe consequence of losing efficiency and speed in their first language. Cook (1997) cites Edith Magiste's experiment where German Children learning Swedish in Sweden were tested with a task of naming objects in both native language and Swedish. The aim was to determine if there could be any difference in terms of length of time that would take them to name native objects and those of second language. The results showed that German children, who lived in Sweden just for one year, were faster in naming the objects using their mother tongue than those who had been in Sweden for ten years. Native performance, therefore, seemed to decline for German bilingual learners. As for monolingual participants of Germany and Sweden, it came out clear that each monolingual group was faster in naming the objects using its first language. Cook (1997) argues that young children who switch to a second language at an average age of 8 years, their reaction time in German naming task started to decline after one year, while older children of average age of 14 years, the decline would be noticed after two years. The reason for bilingual's slowness in response, according to Cook (1997), is the availability of multiple responses to the same single stimulus. His view is based on an argument that bilingual's response systems are not separate from each other.

Chunyan (2005) seems to concur with Cook (1997) in argument that children need enough time to learn their mother tongue first before acquiring a second language. According to Chunyan (2005), development of skills in a second language is aided by language skills a learner has already acquired in his/her first language. Cummins (1979 as cited in Bournot-Trites and Tellowitz, 2002) Developmental Interdependence Hypothesis claims that there is a strong correlation between language of instruction and the level of competence a child may have developed in mother tongue prior to school. When mother tongue is not adequately developed at the beginning of bilingual education, then a low level of second language attainment is likely to occur.

The discussion on subtractive bilingualism so far, seems to focus on young children and not adult acquirers of second language. It is understood from the above arguments that the causative agent of subtractive bilingualism is the fact that young children are exposed to a second language before they could master their first language. One would therefore assume that subtractive bilingualism does not apply to adults as they are thought to have already attained high competency in their first language. This being the case, acquisition of a second language becomes a question of simply adding another language together with other experiences that come with it to the first language. Esser (2006) wonders if immigrants should be assumed to be competent in their first language since most of them are adult at the time of entry. Should this be the case, Esser (2006) contends that bilingualism on part of immigrants should then be reduced to explanation of second language acquisition. Esser however, remarks that it cannot be taken for granted that immigrants would always maintain their first language competence. This is because conditions that encourage and favour second language acquisition are injurious to maintenance of first language competence. Esser (2006: ii) rightly describes the scenario as follows:

A clear trend for monolingual assimilation can be observed across generations of immigrants throughout the world. Competent bilingualism, i.e. the command of both the language of origin and the national language at a high (oral and written) level, will remain exceptional. The reason for this is that the conditions that promote second language acquisition are usually detrimental to the retention and competent command of the native language and vice versa. Thus, the more advanced the age at which immigrants enter a country and the greater their integration into the ethnic

context, the more likely it is that they will retain their mother tongue and the less likely it is that they will successfully acquire the national language.

While agreeing to Esser (2006) that conditions favouring second language acquisition may not promote maintenance of first language competence, I would argue that competent bilingualism should not be understood to mean equality in high level of competence in both native and second languages. As Grosjean (1994) has indicated, the difference in the use and the need for the two languages would make it difficult for one to attain equal competence. However, this does not necessarily mean that one would not be proficient in two languages.

2.5 Language and the labour market

Pendakur and Pendakur (2002) observe that economic impact of language knowledge does not seem to receive the attention it deserves hence it is less studied. Acquisition of destination language is a critical element in the economic, social and political adjustment of the new immigrants (Beiser and Hou, 2000). Linguistic competence attracts a number of opportunities including trade. Trade between people is mostly facilitated through the use of the common language and trade opportunities would therefore increase if a trader is able to reach out linguistically to many people. Language is a resource through which other resources can be obtained. Human Capital Model regards language attainment as a function of economic incentives, and this being the case, an expanded human capital model as called by Mesch (2003), looks at the acquisition of a dominant language as an investment to improve economic opportunities.

Besides attaining a high level of education and skills, acquisition of the destination language is extremely important for immigrants seeking jobs in the receiving country. Scholars (e.g. Esser, 2006; Mesch, 2003) observe that immigrants require the use of a destination language when applying their previously acquired knowledge and experiences. Without destination language, such education and skills may turn to be ineffective. Esser (2006) argues that differences in the usability of human capital in labour market placement of immigrants are due to linguistic incompetence. This being the case, there is therefore, a strong relation between proficiency in the

destination language and labour market success for immigrants, as lack of it tends to reduce productivity potentials of immigrants' other skills and experiences. Wheatley-Price and Shields (2002) remark that labour market experiences gained in the receiving country is of great importance due to what they call location-specific human capital that come with it, one of them being language. It is also important to mention here that the level of the required linguistic competence would differ according to occupational activity an immigrant is involved in. For example, those who take on consultancy or media roles will definitely require the high degree of linguistic competence compared to those taking up manual tasks as general labourers.

According to Chiswick and Miller (1998; 2001), proficiency in the dominant language contributes positively to immigrants' effectiveness and efficiency as consumers and investors. As consumers, they become less constrained by the ethnic market in the destination country because of their ability to communicate and interact with people freely using the dominant language. They also enjoy the benefit of negotiating prices and possibly less pay. This could hardly happen without the use of the dominant language in the region.

Chiswick and Miller (1994) observe that the decision to choose which language to acquire in the receiving country may not be an easy task for immigrants, as some countries are multilingual in nature. Besides local or native languages, many countries have also adopted international languages as official languages. They further claim that immigrants tend to choose a language that is closer to their mother tongue and which dominates their region of residence and of course they prefer a language with a wider use in the labour market. Furthermore, Chiswick and Miller (1994) assert that less educated second language acquirers tend to limit their economic activities within local labour market.

Scholars (such as De Voretz and Werner, 2000) are even attributing immigrants' variation in the level of destination language skills acquired to immigrants' skills and occupational class upon arrival. They argue that unskilled labourers would not exceed the oral skills, as any further acquisition of language skills such as writing abilities would not be of any reward to them. For professionals, however, they are required to have both oral and written skills of the destination language. Perhaps this could be the reason why Chiswick, Lee and Miller (2000) in their study of

immigrants in Australia, claim that acquisition of English by immigrants in Australia depends on the labour market benefits associated with English.

It is important to mention here that the influx of immigrants into a destination country is deemed to have an impact of inflating the supply of labour in the host country, and at the same time it is believed to have a negative impact of reducing wages and employment opportunities for locals. Gonzalez (2010), however, observes that immigrants are often concentrated in spheres of labour that do not compete with the locals. He argues that immigrants' positive or negative impact on wages of the locals will largely depend on whether immigrants and the natives replace or complement each other in the labour market. Gonzalez (2010) contends that if immigrants are unskilled, then this would put the skilled and educated locals at an advantageous position in terms of high salaries and job opportunities in the sector of labour that requires skilled and well trained staff. However, if locals are unskilled too, then they would be affected as the unskilled immigrants will be their competitors in the labour market. It is understood from Gonzalez's (2010) argument that if locals are skilled and highly trained, then unskilled immigration would be a positive contributing factor to the economy of the host country.

Malawian labourers in Durban may view isiZulu as an important resource, not only in their social accomplishments, but also in labour market. It is the language that is widely used by many unskilled labourers in their respective working places. It is the language of instruction and interaction between employers in small scale businesses and their employees.

2.6 Theoretical frame work

This section aims to highlight sociolinguistic theories and concepts that relate to the core theme of this research, that is *Malawian immigrants experiences in the acquisition of spoken isiZulu in Durban*. This section will discuss in detail factors that encourage and promote second language acquisition. It is on this note that Chiswick and Miller's (2001) theory of destination language attainment will be discussed. Furthermore, this section will deliberate on Schumann's (1986) Acculturation Model.

2.6.1 Determinants of second language acquisition

Chiswick and Miller's (2001) theory of language attainment is based on the premise that language knowledge is part of human capital and this being the case, acquisition of language skills is considered to be a form of investment in human capital as discussed above. Chiswick and Miller (2001) highlight a number of factors that contribute to second language proficiency and these are discussed below.

2.6.1.1 Efficiency

The issue of second language efficiency was introduced in Chapter 1 without engaging into many details as this was reserved to be thoroughly discussed in this dedicated chapter. As it has been cited in the first Chapter, Chiswick and Miller (2001: 393) define efficiency as "the extent of improvement in destination-language skills per unit of exposure". Generally speaking children are perceived to be more proficient in second language than adults. However, scholars do not agree on the effect of age at second language acquisition. Schulz and Elliott (2000: 108) comment about the complexity of theories concerning the effects of age on second language acquisition when they state that:

Two unresolved issues in second language acquisition are whether whatever facilitates child language learning is also operative in adult foreign language learning and whether children are better language learners than adults.

According to Stevens (1999) and Klein (1996), maturational constraints have to do with acquisition of first language and not second language. Glass Jr. and Denny (1987) argue that acquisition of first language cannot take place after a turning point of Critical Period, except through strategies other than child's subconscious process. This is because the processes of children's acquisition of mother tongue are natural and unconscious in nature, unlike that of adults. Stevens (1999) observes that maturational constraints have long been thought to be biologically based and for that matter linked to neurological structures. He argues that it is the first language that has a clear onset defined by biological factors, but this is not the case with second language. While first language acquisition is completed at puberty, second language

learning abilities do not disappear after puberty. Adults are able to acquire second language after puberty although the process is less efficient. Klein (1996: 1-2) argues as follows:

We all learn one language in the first years of our life – our mother tongue. But the capacity to acquire a language does not disappear with childhood. In fact most people on earth know more than one language. It is common, therefore, to distinguish between first language acquisition and second language acquisition.

Two rival theories on the effect of age on second language acquisition are Lennesburg's (1967) Critical Period Hypothesis and Cummins (1991) Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) theory and the claimed cognitive ability associated with it. The Critical Period Hypothesis claims that children between the age of two and twelve acquire language much easier and faster than those approaching puberty age and of course adults acquirers. Lennesburg (1967) argues that during this critical period, the child's brain maintains its flexibility which disappears at later stage as the child advances towards puberty. Lennesburg and those who follow his Critical Period Hypothesis such as Mesch (2003) as well as Chiswick and Miller (2001) therefore attribute children's abilities in second language acquisition to biological factors. According to them, second language is consciously acquired with high degree of effort and in most cases it is not perfectly acquired.

Contrary to the Critical Period Hypothesis, the Common Underlying Proficiency also known as Cumulative Model by Hakuta (2001) claims that two language systems of a bilingual speaker have one common underlying proficiency and this being the case, language skills of one's mother tongue would be transferable to a second language. In view of this Model, adult second language acquirers appear to be on the advantage side as far as second language acquisition is concerned. This is so because of their cognitive abilities in their first language. Based on this view, some linguists (e.g. Collier 1987) therefore refute the assumption that children acquire second language better than adults. Collier (1987) claims that comparison tests conducted in this matter do not include all aspects of second language competence, but rather focus only on accent. Stevens (1999) argue that age at immigration puts immigrants at different life paths which affect proficiency in target language involved. This entails that differences in acquisition between children and adults are due to social and psychological factors and not biological factors.

Spolsky (1989) observes that during childhood, linguistic boundaries are permeable, but once ego reaches its complete development, its plasticity tends to differ from one individual to another.

Hakuta (2001) criticizes evidence outlined to substantiate claims of the Critical Period Hypothesis as weak. According to Hakuta (2001), decline abilities in learning things cannot be cited as evidence for critical period for second language acquisition. He gives an example of one's reduced ability to ride a bicycle at a certain age and yet no one would say that there is a critical period for cycling. Furthermore, Hakuta (2001) argues that since the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) claims that certain language devices are turned off at puberty, drastic decline has to be noticed around the end of Critical Period, rather than gradual continuous decline that is noticed throughout the individual's life span. In view of the fact that no radical decline is noticed at the end of the so called Critical Period (CP), then a general decline in learning cannot be cited as evidence. Another weakness in the evidence of the Critical Period is its claim that a particular language learning device gets shutdown at the end of the CP. This entails that any acquisition outside the CP is caused by an alternative device, and if this is the case then there must be clear differences in patterns of acquisition between children and adults second language learners. Hakuta (2001), however, is of the opinion that it is the environment that seems to play a remarkable role which results in different outcomes and not the CP.

In support of the Common Underlying Competence, Hakuta (2001) mentions linguistic similarities between first and second language, and the positive effect the first language may have in the acquisition of the second language, as enough evidence for the Cumulative Model. Furthermore, different linguistic communities seem to have specific second language errors associated with that particular speech community. This again confirms the effect of first language to second language acquisition.

It is imperative therefore, for one to look for an explanation that would tie the two perspectives together so that they should not contradict each other. Brown (1980) attributes adults' inability to attain some aspects of a second language to socio-cultural factors and not biological factors as Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) suggests. He argues that it is the socio-cultural factors that

account for adult learners' inability to acquire some features of second language skills and not biological reasons that see age as the cause. According to Brown (1980), it is the socio-cultural factors that define and determine CPH, and with this understanding, the ease and difficulty of

learning second language should not be an age related issue, but rather a socio-cultural phenomenon. Since adults themselves differ in the extent of success in acquiring second language, Brown (1980) therefore, calls for the need to look for further factors other than age to explain the phenomenon. He proposes the new hypothesis that would fittingly account for the phenomenon in question and calls it 'Optimal Distance Model'. This model claims that since children are flexible with new socio-cultural factors they bump into, they tend to go through all stages of acculturation in a faster manner and hence acquire the target language easily.

In an attempt to tie the two theories together, Krashen et al. (1979) claim that adults and older children acquire second language faster than young children; however, young children acquirers are superior as far as ultimate attainment is concerned. This means that while adults and older children would surpass young children in the early stages of acquisition, the young children would outperform adults in the long term. This view seems to have the potential of settling the matter under discussion, since adults in my view are in greater pressure than children to acquire a target language, and therefore the urgency to speak it is greater in them than it is in children. Furthermore, drawing on my observation, young children may interact with their peers from the target language group without necessarily using the dominant language; instead each one would use words from his or her mother tongue until such a time when the foreign children start to pick up the language. Based on this, adults would therefore acquire the basic target language faster than children although children would outrun them later in the process.

Drawing on my general observation, children generally appear to acquire second language easier and without much difficulty due to their flexibility that makes them adapt easily to social and cultural variables of the new environment; unlike adults whose plasticity of their ego differ from one person to another. However, one would not make a blanket statement that adults are all slow acquirers of second language, since social factors play a role in this debate as we have heard. There are of course some among the adult learners who would acquire the target language faster than some children could do. Although adult second language acquirers tend to maintain accent

of their first language, this does not necessarily suggest that they are slow L2 acquirers. Should this be the case then competence in second language acquisition would simply be reduced to acquisition of native like accent.

2.6.1.2 Exposure

Exposure as defined by Chiswick and Miller (2001: 256) refers to

...the learning-by-doing and the formal instruction aspects of acquiring fluency in the destination language. It includes, the extent to which others, whether in person or through the media, uses the language in one's presence and the extent to which the person himself or herself utilizes the language.

Krashen (1981) observes that language comprehension is an important process of language acquisition. Exposure provides second language learners an opportunity to interact with the target language group and through such interactions they are able to comprehend and obtain intake necessary for the target language acquisition.

One of the reasons why refugees are less proficient in the second language according to Van Tubergen (2010) is, because they are confined and restricted within the walls of refugee reception centres. With such restriction refugees are not able to establish contacts with native speakers and the longer they remain in their camps the lower their second language skills become.

Linguistic exposure may happen before migration or after. Exposure before migration can be facilitated by schooling in ones origin country or through various forms of media such as television, radio and printed media. Chiswick and Miller (2001) consider time units and intensity of exposure to be central to acquisition. They claim that destination language proficiency would increase by long stay in the destination country and with intensive interaction with native speakers. Long stay in the destination country is linked with more exposure to the target language. It is on this note that Chiswick and Miller (2001) cite neighbourhood and family

characteristics of immigrants to be critical in either aiding acquisition of the target language or inhibiting it.

Becker (2007) observes that factors that determine second language acquisition do not work in isolation, but rather they complement each other. He concurs with Chiswick and Miller (2001) that second language acquirers have to get into a meaningful contact with the target language group in order to obtain input necessary for language acquisition. Exposure, according to Becker (2007:250), would lead to efficiency which he defines as “the extent to which a given amount of destination language exposure produces language fluency”. While he applauds the role of exposure to second language acquisition, Becker (2007) is quick to point out that excessive exposure alone might not be of any benefit if the acquirers are not keen to utilise the opportunities that come with exposure. Immigrants interested to acquire the destination language should therefore avoid living in areas with high concentration of other immigrants from the same origin country, as doing so would make them avoid exposure to and practise of the target language.

2.6.2 Acculturation Model

Languages, according to many scholars (e.g. Citron, 1995; Schumann, 1986; Brown, 1980; West and Graham, 2004) are culture-bound. This means that languages reflect cultural patterns of their native speakers and therefore, second language learners have to be open enough to cultures of the target language groups as cross-cultural understanding is deemed to boost the pace of second language acquisition. To substantiate the argument about the relation between language and culture, Citron (1995) explains that languages are not direct translations of each other. It is meant by this that a sentence in one language may have a different structure in another language. He further argues that since certain words from one language may not have their equivalents in another language, it suggests that those words are not known and experienced by speakers of that particular language and culture. Such words can only be known and understood when one opens up and starts to understand the culture of the target language group. Spolsky (1989: 111) notes that "Because our native language carries our personal self representation as well as our national-cultural epistemology, we cling to it".

Wierzbicka (1986) concurs with the above scholars in their view that language reflects culture. Since lexicon changes rapidly in response to changes in social reality, Wierzbicka (1986) finds it to be enough evidence for one to argue that language does indeed reflect culture of the speech community involved. Wierzbicka (1986) further explains that some lexical items are bound to cultural interpretation. He cites an example of Polish language that has no equivalent word for 'weekend'. This is so because in Poland, people work on Saturdays. Several linguistic innovations are taking place in different countries, and these linguistic innovations tend to depict and designate the historical and cultural changes of the day. This again is a reflection of cultural phenomenon of language.

Hoffman (1989) states that language and culture are interrelated and dependent on each other and that the acquisition of a language does not happen in isolation, but rather it happens in a particular social and cultural context. Hoffman further argues that acquisition of culture happens in part through language. Hoijer (1948: 336) aptly sums up the interrelation between language and culture when he says that

The interrelation of language and other aspects of culture is so close that no part of the culture of a particular group can properly be studied without reference to the linguistic symbols in use. As illustration we need only consider social organization, the complex of cultural traits which governs the relations of individuals and groups in human society. To determine the precise nature of those relations it is always necessary to analyse not only the meanings but often the grammatical form as well of the terms employed to symbolize intra-group relationships

Just as linguistic distance has effect on second language acquisition, *social distance* which Brown (1980: 159) defines as "the cognitive and affective proximity of the two cultures which come into contact within an individual", also has an effect on second language learning. The greater the social distance between two cultures, the greater the difficulty the second language learner would encounter in learning the target language.

Schumann (1986) cites a number of social and psychological factors which together make up the model which she calls *Acculturation model*. This model as mentioned in the introductory Chapter claims that second language learners attain the target language only to the extent they acculturate

to the target language group. Tedick et al. (2001: 512) comment on the effect of acculturation when they say that “....learning involves enculturation into a way of thinking, speaking and acting with the help of others who represent all levels of skills within the community of practice”. There are two types of Acculturation , the first being a situation where second language learners are socially integrated with the target language group, resulting in more social contacts which in due course lead them to attainment of the target language. The second type is a psychological openness that makes learners look at the target language group as a reference. Spolsky (1989:145) commends Schumann's acculturation model and he says that "Schumann's acculturation model is important for its forthright attempt to show the relevance of social factors to informal language learning".

Schumann (1986) outlines three integration strategies of which Immigrants are likely to go through in their process of integration into the main stream in the destination countries. It is the type of integration approach they choose that will determine the pace for and facilitates acquisition of the target language. The three integration strategies are: *assimilation*, *preservation* and *adaptation*. Assimilation is a situation whereby the second language learners group gives-up its life style and values to adopt those of a target language group. This practice promotes the acquisition of the target language. *Preservation* is a scenario whereby the second language learners group rejects life style and values of the target language in favour of their own. This inhibits the acquisition. The *adaptation* is a state of affairs where the second language learners group adopts and accepts the values and life style of the target language group and at the same time maintains its own life style and values. This practice tends to promote a varying degree of acquisition. Acculturation Model is of greater interest for the purpose of this research, as the model was initially designed to account for the untutored second language acquisition in a natural linguistic environment. In the following sub topics, I am going to discuss the various social and affective factors which together constitute Acculturation Model.

2.6.2.1 Social factors

There is no doubt that language is a social product and can best be acquired in social context. Language is a crucial factor of all mechanism and systems through which society integration proceeds. According to Spolsky (1989), social factors are important not only in second language acquisition, but also in first language acquisition by children irrespective of child's biological factors. He further comments that first language (L1) acquisition can better be understood if the social aspect of it can be included among the factors that explain language acquisition, rather than singling out children's instinctive ability to acquire a language. Social factors are even more important in second language acquisition because of the complexity and diversity of the second language learners' social context. Social context, according to Spolsky (1989), influences second language acquisition in two ways: firstly; it influences learners' attitude towards the target language group, and secondly; it provides opportunity for learning in both formal and informal situations. It is worth mentioning here that some scholars (e.g. Tedick et al. 2001) count the individual psychological factors as part of social factors, since it is the social interaction that determines individual psychological variables. Perhaps this could be the reason Schumann (1986) included individual psychological variables which he calls 'affective factors' into his Acculturation Model.

2.6.2.2 Social dominance

Schumann (1986) describes social dominance as a situation whereby the second language learning group tends to be politically, culturally, technically and economically dominant to or subordinate to the target language group. If the second language learners are dominant, then there would be less social contact between them and the target language group, hence acquisition may not be as smooth as it should be. On the other hand if second language acquirers are subordinate to the target language group, more social contacts would be facilitated and eventually acquisition would take place.

Clément (1986) comments that a small language group, with members of low socio-economic status and whose language is not recognized by both social and political agencies would have

low ethno-linguistic vitality. He describes ethno-linguistic vitality as language status of an ethnic group. It includes aspects of demographic representation, social and economic status and institutional support associated with that particular language. Clément (1986) observes that if first language speakers have low ethno-linguistic vitality, then members would be attracted towards the target language and are likely to integrate into the main stream. He contends that minority language groups are not resentful to assimilation because of their weak position in society

2.6.2.3 Enclosure

Schumann (1986: 381) defines *enclosure* as "the degree to which the L2L group and TL group share the same churches, schools, clubs, recreational facilities, crafts, professions and trade". The social enclosure factor claims that the more second language learners' group share social constructs with the target language group, the more social contacts are developed which facilitate and promote second language acquisition. Participation therefore, in the above mentioned formal social institutions as Stevens (1999) remarks, would contribute positively to second language proficiency.

This study is going to look closely at the effect of Malawian participation in various social enclosures in greater Durban to their acquisition of isiZulu. One of the most interesting enclosures this study is going to look at is *madressah* (traditional religious Islamic School). The *madressah* enclosure is of interest to this research simply because a good number of participants in this study once worked or are still working in various madressahs. Information in this regard will be elicited from some Malawians of the Islamic faith who work and interact with local children as madressah teachers in various townships of Durban.

2.6.2.4 Cohesiveness and size

Linguistics' scholars argue that when the second language learners group is well organized and large in number, more intra-group contacts are developed than inter-group contacts. This practice unfortunately tends to restrain acquisition of the target language. Chiswick and Miller

(2001:393) observe that a large linguistic community usually has a tendency of supporting what they call a "linguistic-enclave labour market", and working in such enclaves reduce exposure and opportunities to communicative interactions with the native target language group, hence affect one's acquisition of a particular language.

While *enclosure* tends to promote second language acquisition, *linguistic enclave* on the other hand, impedes language acquisition. Enclave is a situation whereby immigrants choose to locate in places and cities with high concentrations of residents from the same country of origin. Scholars (such as Bauer et al. 2005; Chiswick and Miller, 2001) remark that high concentration of immigrants from the same country of origin reduce immigrants' contact with the target language group which eventually affects acquisition of the destination language. Bauer et al. (2005) further observe that it is the immigrants who are less fluent in destination languages who choose to locate to areas in which there are many country men who speak their own languages, and where they perceive to have less need for a local language.

2.6.2.5 Attitude

Attitude entails that the more positive the second language learners are towards the target language group and the learning situation, the more likely they would acquire the target second language. According to Masgoret and Gardner (2003), it is the attitude and integrative-ness that influence the individual's motivation to language acquisition. They argue that integrative-ness attitude and the attitude towards the learning situation do not influence second language acquisition directly but rather the two tend to boost up one's motivation to acquire the target language. This being the case, it is the motivation that is directly accountable for second language proficiency. Masgoret and Gardner (2003: 126) define integrative-ness as "openness to identify, at least in part, with another language community". Since language acquisition involves adoption of lexical items and other linguistic and behavioural features that are part of second language culture, willingness to identify with the target language group would therefore lead to favourable conditions for second language acquisition. Positive attitude towards the target language group would lead to learners' openness. In contrast, negative attitude towards them would reduce learners pace of openness.

Social context, according to Spolsky (1989), influence second language learning in two ways the first of which is that it triggers learners' attitude towards the speech community involved and the learning situation. Secondly, the social context provides opportunities for second language learning. These learning opportunities can either be formal as it is the case with many language learning institutions, or informal. According to Krashen (1981), attitude factors encourage intake and when second language acquirers communicate with the target speech community, they obtain input essential for acquisition.

2.6.2.6 Intended length of residence

According to Schumann (1986), a long stay in a destination country would facilitate more contacts with the target language group, and this would in due course promote second language acquisition. Chiswick and Miller (1998) count duration of stay in the destination country as part of exposure. They claim that long years of stay in the destination country are associated with proficiency in the target language. They are quick to mention that the associated proficiency would be at a rate that decreases over time. It is noteworthy however, to mention that length of residence alone may not contribute to language acquisition if the second language acquirer is not prepared to obtain the needed intake and utilize it accordingly.

2.6.3 Affective factors

Schumann (1986) describes affective factors as psychological factors that involve an individual during second language acquisition. Second language learners who are psychologically open tend to look at the target language group as a reference group. This section is going to discuss the effects of the three affective factors to second language acquisition namely, language shock, cultural shock and motivation. Berry (1997: 14) describes psychological adaptation as "a set of internal psychological outcomes including a clear sense of personal and cultural identity, good mental health and the achievements of personal satisfaction in the new cultural context". He observes that psychological adaptation involves unlearning some practices that may no longer be suitable in the new context. Berry (1997) notes that incompatible behaviours on the part of immigrants may lead to cultural shock or acculturation stress.

2.6.3.1 *Language shock*

This is a fear that comes due to low proficiency in the target language. Spolsky (1989) observes that anxiety in second language learning interrupts acquisition of new lexical items and even for those acquired already may not be remembered because of the excessive worry and stress. It is this worry that deters the practice that would have seen the second language acquirer grasping the language. In adults, anxiety shows up during conversation when one feels shy to speak to a native speaker for fear of being ridiculed and laughed at, should s/he commit some errors. Schumann (1986) remarks that adult second language acquirers tend to be affected by worry and doubts of whether foreign or second language words they would like to use reflect their exact ideas or not. Unlike adults, children are less worried and they could even use words incorrectly, sometimes even create new words. Dornic (1985: 256) aptly describes language as a potential stressor when he says that

..... stress typically increases not only as a result of the use of a weak language, but even because of the actual or expected consequences this may have if the bilingual fail to explain his opinion, describe his problem, formulate his point of view, defend himself against suspicions or accusations, or if he fails to understand exactly what other people try to say to him, this failure will considerably add to the stress.

2.6.3.2 *Cultural shock*

Linguistic anxiety is often accompanied by cultural anxiety. The excitement over the newness of the destination town or country normally gets cut short by cultural differences immigrants go through in their new environment. They tend to complain of local customs and conditions, unfriendliness attitudes from some local residents. All this contributes to their frustration, hence has negative repercussions on acquisition of the destination language. Schumann (1986) observes that anxiety that comes due to disorientation with the new culture contributes negatively to immigrants' change of status from independent to become dependent in the destination country. Spolsky (1989) remarks that anxiety in second language learning inhibits acquisition of new lexical items and one may not be able to remember what has learnt previously. He is of the opinion that anxiety discourages the acquirer from practicing the language acquired. Anxiety, according to Spolsky (1989), show up in a learner through both listening and speaking

difficulties. Cultural awareness helps to appreciate the appropriate ways of addressing people, greeting, requesting, agree or disagree, as linguistic patterns acceptable to one speech community might not be acceptable to others.

2.6.3.3 Motivation

Motivation is the amount and type of desire on part of the second language learner to acquire the target language. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) observe that attitude and integrative-ness contribute to motivation and that motivation is directly responsible for second language learning. There are two types of motivation: *Integrative motivation* and *Instrumental motivation*. The former refers to acquisition of a second language in order to interact, meet and socialise with members of the target speech community, and the latter refers to acquisition of a second language for reasons other than integration purposes; for example, to acquire a handsomely paid job. Krashen (1981) remarks that interactive motivation inspires learners to interact with native speakers of the target language group and in that way they obtain intake. Instrumental motivation, although it also encourages learners to interact with the target speech community, the interaction is linked with practical purpose and therefore, the interaction and acquisition may stop as soon as the acquirer feels that enough has been acquired to accomplish the intended purpose. Krashen (1981) further observes that Instrumental motivation would only facilitate acquisition of those aspects of language that would aid the acquirer in achieving the purpose. Motivation is important in second language learning as one may have an opportunity of hearing and understanding the target language, but if not motivated, s/he might not use the language heard for acquisition.

2.7 Conclusion

The above literature review focused on aspects of second language acquisition in general and adult second language acquisition in particular. The discussion did take a look at various factors that tend to promote second language acquisition. The effect of age on second language acquisition was examined. Although young age on entry into a destination country is associated with proficiency in the target language, some scholars attribute such proficiency to sociological

factors and not biological factors of the young acquirers. Relation between language and culture was discussed and the effect of linguistic and cultural distance on second language learning was highlighted. It was argued that the closer the culture and language structures between two speech communities, the easier it becomes for each group to learn language of the other. The discussion did also touch on the issue of linguistic human capital, which views language as a resource through which other resources can be obtained. This review did also look at the effectiveness of acquirers' excessive interaction with the native language speakers. Communicative interaction with the speech community involved provides acquirers an opportunity for both input and chances to practice the language as s/he interacts with native language speakers.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

A research study involves three main steps: posing a research question, collection of data in order to answer the question in hand and presenting an answer to an initial research question. A research study can either fall under a qualitative or quantitative research approaches whose details are provided in the subsequent sections. Cohen et al. (2011) state that a research study has three characteristics that make it different from other ways of problem solving. Firstly, a research study is systematic and controlled. Secondly, a research study is empirical in the sense that a researcher's claims and personal belief are checked against empirical facts. Thirdly, a research study is self-correcting as procedures used and facts established are open and subject to public scrutiny by professionals in the same area of specialization.

This Chapter aims to explain methods used to obtain, analyse and interpret empirical data for this study. It gives details regarding which research approach and design were used in this study. Since quality is the most crucial aspect of any research work, this chapter also outlines processes of validation applied in this study from data collection phase to analysis.

3.2 Research methods

Research methods, according to Ambert et al. (1995), are procedures and techniques used by researchers when conducting their research operations. Methods determine how empirical data will be gathered, analysed and evaluated for the accuracy of its findings. They ensure that instruments used are suitable and sharp enough to generate data that would be able to provide answers to the research questions. Cohen et al. (2011: 12) remark that

If the most distinctive feature of science is its empirical nature, the next most important characteristic is its set of procedures which show not only how findings

have been arrived at, but are sufficiently clear for fellow scientists to repeat them, i.e. to check them out with the same or other materials and thereby test the results.

Mingers (2001) observes that words such as *methods* and *methodology* are often used indistinctly and interchangeably by many people. The two words are mistakenly thought to be synonymous by new researchers. Mingers (2001: 242) notes that *Methods* and *methodology* though related, they are technically different. Methodology is referred to as “a structured set of guidelines or activities to assist in generating valid and reliable research results. It will often consist of various methods or techniques, not all of which need be used every time”. It is understood therefore that research methodology has many dimensions of which methods are part of. Methodology is a systematic way of getting to the bottom of the research problem. Besides methods, it includes explanation of reasons for using particular methods and not others, reasons for undertaking the study and the analytical tools used.

3.2.1 Research approach

There are two main approaches to research and these are structured and unstructured research approaches. The former is also known as quantitative research approach and the latter as qualitative research approach. In quantitative research approach, the entire research process which includes research objectives, design, sample and questions is prearranged. This research approach is best suited for determining the extent of a problem, issue or phenomenon by quantifying the variation. It is applicable to research problem, issue or phenomenon that can be expressed in terms of quantity or amount. Unstructured or qualitative research approach, on the other hand, explores the nature of a problem, issue or phenomenon. It is flexible in all aspects of the research process and aims to describe the problem under study. It also seeks to uncover motives behind human behaviour (Mahoney, J. and Goertz, G. 2006; Brand, V. and Slater, A. 2003; Kaplan, B. and Duchon, D. 1998).

This study uses a qualitative research approach which, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), is good in revealing different perspectives of a phenomenon as there might not be a single truth on the subject under investigation. Polkinghorne (2005: 137) describes qualitative research as “an

umbrella term under which a variety of research methods that use language data are clustered". Qualitative research, according to Polkinghorne (2005), aims at describing and clarifying human experiences. The empirical spoken and written data gathered through qualitative methods serve as evidence for researcher's descriptive report. Qualitative research is applauded for generating a deep understanding of any intricate phenomenon. Peshkin (1998: 416) comments that

Though understanding complexity is not exclusive to qualitative inquiry, qualitative methods are notably suited for grasping the complexity of the phenomena we investigate. By not prespecifying what they will attend to, and by virtue of the relatively extended amount of time they devote to exploring their phenomena, qualitative inquirers have practically no limit to what they can uncover.

Ambert et al. (1995) observe that qualitative research seeks to acquire the in-depth and breadth of the phenomenon. It is for this reason that it focuses on addressing questions of how and why people tend to behave and think the way they do. They further point out that qualitative research dwells more in the context of discovery rather than verification. According to Ambert et al. (1995), the new information discovered through qualitative research reflects new practices of the people involved. Lacey and Luff (2001) concur with Ambert et al. (1995) in their description of qualitative research that it answers questions of why, what and how. Lacey and Luff (2001) note that although quantitative techniques such as questionnaires may as well provide answers to the questions above, such answers may not be satisfactory as they may lack some crucial details that could only be generated through a lengthy conversation with the participants.

Since this study focuses on discovering experiences of Malawian immigrants with regard to acquisition of isiZulu, use of qualitative research method is therefore, deemed suitable for this research.

3.2.2 Research design

A research design is a conceptual structure within which a research study is carried out. It facilitates the research study to be able to produce the maximum intended results. De Vaus

(2001) remarks that a research design is not just a mere work plan, as it ensures that evidence obtained enable the researcher to answer the initial research question competently. A relevant research design will provide for the collection of relevant data and evidence required to address the research questions. The four dominant research designs in social sciences are correlation, explanatory, descriptive and exploratory research designs. *Correlation design* aims to discover or establish relationship between two or more aspects of a situation or phenomenon whereas *explanatory design* explains why and how there is a relationship between two or more aspects of a situation or phenomenon. *Descriptive design* provides a detailed picture of the subject while *exploratory design* adopts an investigative position and explores all sources of information in order to uncover the area where little is known.

This study makes use of both descriptive and exploratory research designs . De Vaus (2001) comments that although descriptive research has been discredited by some people and reduced to a mere description, a sound descriptive research has contributed enormously to the knowledge and nature of society. He further observes that most government sponsored researches involve descriptive researches such as population census and employment and crime statistics (De Vaus 2001). I chose to use the combination of these two designs considering the nature of my study which involves exploring the Malawian immigrants' experiences in the acquisition of isiZulu. A topic of this nature requires a flexible design where as a researcher, I would be able to interact freely with the participants, ask them questions and take advantage of unexpected factors or pieces of information emerging from the participants. Exploratory research design has this quality and hence it is used in this study. Besides the exploratory nature of this research, the study also requires presentation of a detailed picture of the subject under study, and this being the case, descriptive research design is also used.

3.2.3 Research paradigm

Fossey et al. (2002: 718) describes the term paradigm as

...a system of ideas, or world view, used by a community of researchers to generate knowledge. It is a set of assumptions, research strategies and criteria for rigour that are shared, even taken for granted, by that community.

Research paradigms, according to Fossey et al. (2002), represent diverse ways of looking at the world. Research paradigm entails choosing a relevant and suitable approach to observe and measure the phenomenon under study. The three major research paradigms, according to Fossey et al. (2002), are an empirico-analytical paradigm, an interpretive research paradigm and the critical research paradigm. *An empirico-analytical paradigm* relies on the observation and experimentation in the empirical world. It has its origins in the natural sciences. It refuses propositions and depends largely on deductive logic. *Interpretive research paradigm* and *Critical research paradigm* are the two paradigms that account for qualitative research methodologies. *Interpretive paradigm* focuses on understanding of human experiences and actions, while *Critical paradigm* entails becoming aware of how people's thinking is socially and historically constructed and how can that limit peoples' actions. There are many approaches that fall under interpretive research paradigm and these include ethnography as well as phenomenology. Kuper et al. (2008:405) define ethnography as a "methodology that aims to understand the meaning and behaviours associated with the membership of groups, teams, etc. through the collection of observational and interview data".

Phenomenology, on the other hand, has been described as

a theoretical framework that focuses on exploring how individuals make sense of the world and that aims to provide insightful accounts into the subjective experience of these individuals (Kuper et al. 2008:405).

In this study, I use a phenomenological interpretive research paradigm which is suitable for discovering and understanding people's perceptions on a particular phenomenon.

3.2.4 Phenomenological research design

According to Creswell et al. (2007), phenomenological research entails collection of views from a number of participants and describing what all participants say in common as they experience the phenomenon. According to Wolff (1999:220),

Phenomenology focuses on lived experience. It looks at people's everyday experiences of phenomena and how these experiences are structured, focusing the analysis on the perspective of the individual experiencing the phenomenon. Phenomenology thus attends to how people experience phenomena existentially. The aim is to describe and interpret how the situated body makes sense of a phenomenon

To achieve this, a researcher first identifies the phenomenon and then works on obtaining empirical data from people who have lived and experienced the phenomenon in question. De Vos and Fouché (1998) describe a phenomenological research paradigm as an appropriate tool that could be used to understand and interpret the meaning people assign to their daily life experiences. In the case of this study, the use of phenomenological research paradigm will help to understand and interpret perceptions of Malawian immigrants on the acquisition of isiZulu.

3.3 Participants

Participants of this research as mentioned in the introductory chapter are composed mainly of adult male and female Malawian immigrant labourers from greater Durban area. A number of men and women who entered South Africa at the age of 20 and above were interviewed. There is no other specific reason as to why the age of 20 years and above was chosen, apart from ensuring that the participants are adults and not children. Lennesburg's (1967) Critical Period Hypothesis suggests that children acquire language much easier, particularly when they are at the age between two and twelve. The participants were chosen since they were older than this age when they acquired isiZulu and because of their experiences to the phenomenon as well as confidence that they would provide the suitable data. They were not chosen because they satisfied the representative requirement of statistical inference. Polkinghorne (2005: 139) comments that

Participants and documents for qualitative study are not selected because they fulfill the representative requirements of statistical inference but because they can provide the structure and character of the experience under investigation.

3.3.1 Sampling

Polkinghorne (2005) mentions that the term *sampling* has been borrowed from quantitative research and therefore its users in qualitative inquiry must use it with vigilance. According to Polkinghorne (2005), the word *sampling* as used in quantitative research entails that those who are selected to participate in the research as participants constitute a sample of the population and that the findings therefore, would be generalised to the entire *population*, that is a large collection of individuals or objects with similar characteristics and who are the main focus of the scientific study. In qualitative research however, sampling involves selection of those who best inform the study. Polkinghorne (2005) argues that the word *selection* is more suitable than sampling as far as the qualitative research is concerned. Sampling therefore simply means selection of participants. Fossey et al. (2002: 726) comment that

Qualitative sampling is concerned with information richness, for which two key considerations should guide the sampling methods: appropriateness and adequacy. In other words, qualitative sampling requires identification of appropriate participants, being those who can best inform the study. It also requires adequate sampling of information sources (i.e. people, places, events, types of data) so as to address the research question and to develop a full description of the phenomenon being studied”

3.3.2 Purposeful sampling

This research uses a purposeful sampling strategy which, according to Polkinghorne (2005), entails choosing people who could provide detailed accounts about the phenomenon under investigation. Being a phenomenological study, this research uses a purposive sampling as it ensures that only those with intense accounts about the experience are involved. According to Polkinghorne (2005), multiple participants which is participation of various participants in a research study, is a form of triangulation on the phenomenon under investment. Multiple participants should not be understood as evidence for one to make claims about distribution of the phenomenon in that particular population, but rather seeks to deepen the understanding of the experience under investigation. Details on triangulation will be provided in the relevant section that deals with issues of validity and reliability of this research.

3.3.3 Sample

A sample size of 30 participants was selected for this study. According to scholars (such as Tucket, 2004; Marshall, 1996), there is no strict rule on size of sample in a qualitative study. A suitable sample is the one that suitably answers the research question. Furthermore, they allude that qualitative research usually depends on small number in order to explore details of the phenomenon under investigation. The target, therefore, is not an amount of data, but rather depth and breadth of the data concerned.

Polkinghorne (2005) concurs with Tucket (2004) and Marshall (1996) in their view that qualitative inquiry relies on a small sample size. He reasons that since qualitative research focuses on describing, understanding and clarifying human experiences and that it does not aim to make claims about a particular population, the number of participants does not matter. What matters is the in-depth of the data and its ability to provide a full and detailed description of the experience under investigation. Tucket (2004) observes that qualitative researchers have used the sample size from 10 to 100. Tucket (2004), however, also points out that the sample would continue growing until such a time when new data stop emerging from the participants. The repeated emerging of the same set of data from different participants suggests a point of saturation where new data stop emerging. Besides data saturation, the decision on the selected sample size for this research has been reached considering issues of manageability of data resulting from the sample as well as funds available to cater for the cost of this research.

3.4 Research Instruments

Interviews and participant observation are among the common instruments of data gathering in a qualitative research. Polkinghorne (2005) remarks that the purpose of gathering data in a qualitative research is to present evidence for the phenomenon under investigation. He observes that it is the data that provides a ground on which the findings are based. According to Polkinghorne (2005), this data is not easily available as it requires effort of the researcher to use various instruments and dig deep. He rightly explains that

Data used in qualitative research are not simply lying about on the surface ready to be gathered up rather, the researcher is required to dig below the surface to bring up experiential accounts. The first act of production is selecting from all of the possible sources that are available (interviews, documents and artifacts) the ones that are most likely to inform the researcher about the character of the experience being explored (Polkinghorne, 2005: 142).

3.4.1 Interviews

In collecting data for this study, interviews were used simply because some of the participants were illiterate adults who were not able to read or write. However, illiteracy of participants was not the only reason as to why in this study interviews were chosen. Scholarssuch as Hinds (2000)Leedy and Ormrod (2005) acknowledge that interviews yield more information unlike questionnaires where participants are sometimes restricted by space provided for an answer. Patton (1990: 278) aptly describes the purpose of interviews particularly open ended interviews, in the following remarks:

The purpose of interviewing is to find out what is in and on someone else's mind. The purpose of open ended interviewing is not to put things in someone's mind (for example, the interviewer's preconceived categories for organizing the world) but to access the perspective of the person being interviewed. We interview people to find out from them those things that we cannot directly observe.

Semi-structured one-to-one interviews with each interviewee were conducted in order to maintain focus of the topic as unguided interviews are likely to result in participants drifting away from the intended topic, hence yielding unintended information. According to Fossey et al. (2002:727), semi-structured interviews are used to "facilitate more focused exploration of a specific topic, using an interview guides. Interview guides usually contain a list of questions and prompts designed to guide the interview in a focused, yet flexible and conversational manner". Patton (1990) calls semi-structured interview as the *General interview approach* which involves preparation of the interview guide containing a list of questions or issues to be discussed during interviews. According to Patton (1990), an interview guide ensures uniformity of information gathered from various participants by tackling the same material. The guide provides a margin

within which a person conducting interview can probe while maintaining the conversational style of the interview.

Participants from greater Durban areas of Verulam, Mariann-Hill, Mariann-Ridge, Kwapata, Nchanga, Savanna-Park and Over-port were interviewed. Interviews for the eight participants featuring in this study were conducted at Verulam Islamic Institute, Desai Mosque, Mariann-Ridge Mosque, Islamic Dawa Movement offices in Durban, Mumtikazi Mosque and World Assembly of the Muslim Youth offices in Over-Port. Although the study adopted a *Flexible interviewing approach*, which according to Scholar and Conrad (1997), encourages conversational interaction between interviewer and interviewee without strictly following the standardised scripted questions, the duration of interview with each interviewee lasted for about an hour. As a researcher, I ensured that my personal reactions to interview proceedings are kept to myself throughout, so that interviewees are not influenced by my perceptions and other preconceived notions. In other words, I remained neutral during the course of all interviews I conducted. According to Patton (1990), neutrality means that the interviewee can tell anything without necessarily provoking the interviewer's favour or disfavour with regard to interviewee's response. In order to demonstrate that the interviewee's contributions were important to me, I kept on nodding in agreement to whatever was being said by the interviewee. By so doing, the participant was encouraged to provide more details regarding the phenomenon.

Since the participants of this research composed mainly of illiterate Malawian adults who could not speak English, the guiding interview questions were presented in both Chichewa and Chiyao languages although I initially prepared them in English. Chichewa is the Malawi's national language spoken almost by every Malawian irrespective of his or her ethnic and linguistic background. Chiyao is one of the Malawi's local languages spoken by Yao people who are predominantly Muslims. Despite Chichewa being Malawi's lingua franca, both Chichewa and Chiyao languages were chosen as some Yao participants could comfortably express themselves in Chiyao rather than Chichewa. Being an eloquent speaker of these two languages myself, I was able to handle the situation without the need for an interpreter or translator.

A tape recorder was used in this research for recording the interview proceedings. According to Patton (1990: 384), the tape recorder “does not tune out conversation, change what has been said”. This being the case, I preferred the use of recorder over notes taking. Tape recording is more accurate than writing down the interviewee’s responses during the course of an interview. With tape recording, finding quotations is very easy and any unclear expression could easily be re-winded and repeated several times until it is clear. In contrast, writing down responses could make a researcher miss out some important information from the participants. Furthermore, writing down the responses may distract the researcher’s attention to the informant and that the pace of conversation may be disrupted. In order to ensure a quality sound, an external microphone was used in this research.

According to Hinds (2000), internal microphones tend to interfere with the quality of sound. Besides using external microphones, I ensured that the recorder is clean, batteries are new and that the place was quiet enough. I carried extra cassettes for every interview in case the one playing finishes. Despite keeping eye contact with an interviewee, I also had to follow up the tape recorder in case of it stopping to play. This was done in a very swift manner so that the informant could not realize that my eyes have moved away from him as that may become worrisome to an interviewee as it could mistakenly be translated to mean lack of interest.

3.5 Data analysis

Wilkinson (2000: 77) defines the role of data analysis as to “bring data together in a meaningful way and enable us as researchers to interpret or make sense of it”. Fossey et al. (2002: 728), on the other hand, define qualitative data analysis as “a process of reviewing synthesizing and interpreting data to describe and explain the phenomena or social worlds being studied”. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) argue that there is no single right way of analysing data in a qualitative research. This implies that data could be analysed in various ways. Data gathered for this research were analysed using *content analysis method* which involves “... a detailed and systematic examination of the content of a particular body of material for the purpose of identifying patterns, themes, or biases” (Leedy and Ormrod 2005: 142). *Content analysis* falls

under a strategy which Thomas (2006) calls a *general inductive approach*. *Inductive analysis*, according to Thomas (2006: 238), refers to “approaches that primarily use detailed readings of raw data to derive concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the raw data by an evaluator or researcher”. *Inductive approach* allows the research findings to emerge from the prevailing themes in the empirical raw data. Thematic analysis, as Lacey and Luff (2001) call it, involves assigning of a particular code to all recurring themes and concepts which would later be subjected to a thorough investigations and descriptions.

In *content analysis*, transcripts are repeatedly read in order to identify themes and categories, coding frames are developed after numerous readings of the transcripts. Diagrams can be drawn in order to spotlight what would emerge from the empirical data. The analysis ends only when new themes stop emerging from the data. Thomas (2006) notes that coding commences with preparation of raw data files and then repetitive reading of the text so as to identify themes. Category codes are then formed from the actual phrases derived from participants’ accounts and later, further categories and subcategories are formed. Lacey and Luff (2001), note that data analysis in qualitative research starts with transcription of oral interviews into text. This involves writing up full account of each interview. In the process of data transcription, names and other identifiable stuff are removed from the transcripts and the interviewee is either assigned a fictitious name or a code number. After transcription, the data is organised into retrievable sections. The researcher then has to familiarise oneself by repetitive reading of the data while taking some notes. Familiarisation is then followed by the process of coding the data using terms that were utilized by the participants themselves.

3.6 Data verification

According to the United States Environmental Agency (2002: 7), data verification is

...the process of evaluating the completeness, correctness, and conformity/compliance of a specific data set against the method, procedural, or contractual requirements. Again the goal of data verification is to ensure and document that the data are what they purport to be, that is, that the reported results reflect what was actually done.

Morse et al. (2002) outline data verification strategies which include methodological coherence, sampling, simultaneous collection and analysing of data and what they call 'thinking theoretically'. Methodological coherence involves ensuring the match between the research question and the method used, and at the same time the method must match the data and the data must match the analytical procedures. Sampling has to be suitable in the sense that it should contain people with knowledge of the phenomenon under investigation. According to Morse et al. (2002), concurrent collection and analysing of data facilitate interaction between what is known and what needs to be known. Theoretical thinking entails that, ideas coming from the data at hand must be reconfirmed in the new data. This study ensured that all the strategies were adhered to and that there was unity between different components of methods.

3.7 Validity and reliability

Maxwell (1992) observes that validity has been at the hub of discussions about the legitimacy of qualitative research. He asserts that qualitative research has been accused by the positivists of lacking standards of validity (Maxwell, 1992). They branded qualitative research as fiction and therefore unreliable. Maxwell (1992) remarks that the mathematical and statistical validation standards promoted by the positivists were best suited for quantitative research and not qualitative inquiry which has its own validity measures in place. He sees validity as an inborn thing that should not be understood in terms of the procedures and approaches suggested by the positivists (Maxwell, 1992). It is the accounts from which the data is drawn that can be described as valid or invalid and not the data itself or method. However, Maxwell (1992) also points out that since data can be regarded as part of participant account, one may not be wrong to speak of validity of data. He argues that method cannot be described as valid or invalid as one method is capable of producing both valid and invalid data under various conditions (Maxwell, 1992). He cautions that a talk of validity of method may give a wrong impression that valued data accounts would only be achieved by applying such particular methods. Lacey and Luff (2001) are of the opinion that the focus of validity should be interpretation where the findings should represent the truth. According to Lacey and Luff (2001), the assessment of qualitative research must centre on reliability of methods used.

Morse et al. (2002) cite Guba and Lincoln's work in the 1980s in which the terms validity and reliability were replaced with the concept of trustworthiness. Golafshani (2003) concurs with Guba and Lincoln in the substitution of the terms validity and reliability with trustworthiness when he claims that validity and reliability are separate in as far as qualitative research is concerned. The two are treated as one, and terms such as credibility, transferability and trustworthiness are used instead. Golafshani (2003) states that reliability is the concept used to test and evaluate quantitative research while the evaluation of qualitative research is by reviewing its quality and value. Fossey et al. (2002) comment that trustworthiness of the qualitative findings depends largely on how the findings have been presented. To account for the trustworthiness of the findings, the narrative accounts of the participants must be noticeable in the researcher's description and interpretation. There must be a connection between the findings and the empirical data from which the findings have been extracted. The link can be established by inclusion of the participants' quotations in the researchers' description and interpretation. This study ensured the incorporation of participants' quotations during the process of description and interpretation of its findings. The participants' quotations served as evidence to inferences made to the data.

The most cited way of demonstrating reliability and validity in qualitative research is through triangulation of methods. Lacey and Luff (2001: 27) define triangulation as "gathering and analysing data from more than one source to gain a fuller perspective on the situation you are investigating". Polkinghorne (2005) states that inclusion of multiple participants to provide a detailed account of the phenomenon under study, serve as a kind of triangulation in the experience. Number of participants in qualitative research as mentioned previously, is not aimed at making claims about the distribution of the phenomenon in the particular population. It is rather aimed at widening the understanding of the experience, hence obtaining credible information. Based on this understanding, triangulation has been used in this research without necessarily mentioning it. This is reflected in the number of people who have participated in this study.

Maxwell (1992) provides a number of qualitative validation measures which include descriptive validity, interpretive validity and generalizability. Descriptive validity involves reporting what

exactly has been seen or heard without distorting any information, and Maxwell (1992) regards this to be the primary descriptive validity. Secondary descriptive validity entails things that were observed and inferred from the empirical data. Interpretive validity is concerned with the meaning attached to objects, events and people's behaviour. It aims at understanding the phenomenon from the participants' points of view and the inferences are made from the words and actions of the participants. Generalizability refers to "the extent to which one can extend the account of a particular situation or population to other persons, times or settings than those directly studied" (Maxwell, 1992: 293). It is noteworthy mentioning that generalization here does not rely on sampling processes as it is the case with most quantitative research, but rather takes place through development of a theory that could be applied in different situations.

3.8 Ethical considerations

Cohen et al. (2011) remark that researchers are confronted with a major ethical problem as they are required to draw a fine line between telling the truth about their research findings and at the same time observe the rights and values of the participants. They call it *costs/benefits ratio* (Cohen et al. 2011). Ethical problems emanate from the kind of issues investigated by social researchers and method used when gathering data. Cohen et al. (2011) state that there are a number of factors that contribute to ethical problems and these include the nature of the project, context of the project, procedures adopted, methods of data collection, nature of the participant, type of data collected and handling of the results. Social research must ensure that it abides by the ethical principles and practices. Ethical concerns emerge mostly from research projects involving children, the use of procedures that may cause anxiety, the emotional nature of the participants and the sensitivity of data.

Among the ethical issues considered in this study are issues of anonymity and confidentiality, voluntary participation to the study and the informed consent. Participants were made aware of the type of information needed from them, why such information is required and how they can participate in the research. Information gathered was kept anonymous by ensuring that an individual source of a particular piece of information is not known. As for the consent, I ensured that it is sought voluntarily without pressure.

3.8.1 Anonymity and confidentiality

Wiles et al. (2006) observe that while anonymity and confidentiality are somehow related, the two are different concepts. They cite a Concise Dictionary' definition of confidentiality as "spoken or written in confidence; charged with secrets" while anonymity is defined as "of unknown name, of unknown authorship" (Wiles et al. 2006: 3). They argue further that confidentiality makes no sense in the research as it involves assuring the informant that whatever has been discussed would not be revealed (Wiles et al. 2006). This contradicts researcher's duty to report his or her research findings. Wiles et al (2006), therefore, find confidential research as something that cannot be attainable, unlike anonymity which ensures that researchers do not disclose information about the participants. Some researchers (e.g. McLellan et al. 2003) however, use the term confidentiality as a synonymous word for anonymity which entails concealing of names and other personal information about participants, should inclusion of such information cause any social or personal harm to participants. In this research, names of the participants were replaced with pseudonyms in order to ensure anonymity of the participants.

3.8.2 Informed consent

Full details of the study were read to the participants and thereafter, the participants were asked to sign the consent form if they voluntarily agreed to participate in the research. I decided to read out the consent form to them considering the fact that the majority of the participants were illiterate. Those who could not write were instead asked to print with their thumbs in places of signature on the consent form. The participants were told that quotations of the interview will be part of the report of the study

3.9 Conclusion

This Chapter discussed the research methodology which guided the processes of the whole research. The adopted phenomenological research design involved the sample of 30 participants who were selected purposely in order to inform the study better. Semi-structured one-to-one and

tape recorded interviews were conducted as the main research instrument for data collection in this study. Another instrument used for data collection of this study, is observation. This helped to supplement data obtained through interviews. This study also acknowledged literature review as a vital instrument for collection of its data.

The research used content analysis method to breakdown raw data into meaningful pieces of information. Excessive examination of the raw data resulted in emergence of concepts, themes and categories. As for the correctness and completeness of the raw data, this was verified by ensuring that research question matches the research method. This study also ensured that analytical procedures used match with the type of the data gathered. The study took into consideration a number of ethical issues that could affect the participants; these include issues of anonymity and seeking of an informed consent.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents empirical findings that were obtained using data gathering instruments discussed in detail in Chapter 3. The key instrument discussed was interviews that were conducted among Malawian immigrants living in greater Durban areas. Personal data of the interviewees were obtained in order to indicate representativeness of the sample and to differentiate proceedings of one interview from the other during transcription. Adults, both male and female, were interviewed. Although this research is qualitative in nature, personal data of the participants are presented numerically.

4.2 Personal data of participants

This section presents age of the participant when s/he first entered South Africa, gender, first language and the educational background of the participants. It was important to include these non sensitive personal data in order to contextualise the findings and be able to formulate suitable recommendations.

4.2.1 The age of participants

The participants were asked to indicate how old they were when they first entered South Africa. This question was posed in order to determine whether an informant entered the country as a child or as an adult. This was important because scholars have different views regarding the manner as well as the pace by which children and adults acquire their second language. Table 4.1 below represents ages of the participants at the time of entering South Africa.

Table 4.1 The ages of participants at the time of entry

AGE	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
20 – 25	3	10
25 – 30	6	20
30 – 35	5	16.7
35 – Above	16	53.3
TOTAL	30	100

Inclusion of the age of the participants was to indicate that the participants in this research are all adults.

Table 4.2 Distribution by gender

CATEGORY	NO. OF PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE
Male	16	53.3
Female	14	46.7
Total	30	100

Knowledge of the composition of gender is important here so that the findings could be generalized to both male and female adults' second language acquirers.

Table 4.3 Original language of the participants

LANGUAGE	NO. OF THE PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE
Chiyao	20	66.7
Chichewa	10	33.3
Other	0	0
Total	30	100

The question on language of origin was aimed at establishing the languages used by the participants in their country of origin. This would help in establishing structural and semantic similarities or dissimilarities, between destination language and language of origin.

4.3 Key findings from the interviews

Although a total of 30 interviews were conducted for this research, only eight selected samples of interviews are presented. This is because of the repetitive nature of the responses that came from the participants. Interview is the main instrument of data collection used in this research and this technique was used to probe for Malawian experiences in the acquisition of isiZulu in Durban.

Interview No. 1: A female Madressah teacher in verulam - Durban

Date: 13. January, 2011

Time: 16:00 – 17:00

Venue: Madressah's Classroom.

Interviewer: *Kindly introduce yourself and state in which year did you come to South Africa and how old were you when you first entered the country?*

Interviewee: My name is YX and I came to South Africa in the year 2000.

Interviewer: *What has been your experience in as far as the acquisition of isiZulu is concerned?*

Interviewee: *When I came here, I observed that isiZulu was not a difficult language to learn as it has some words which are similar to languages spoken in Malawi, like Chichewa and Chiyao. I also observed that some words which Malawian youth used as a street language originate from isiZulu.*

Interviewer: *Kindly, give me examples of such street words?*

Interviewee: *They say for example, in street Chichewa: “John ndi mfana wabwino” meaning: ‘John is a good boy’ I realized that the word **mfana** originates from isiZulu. They also say: “Ndikupita ndikageze” meaning ‘I am going to bath’. Here again, the word **geze**, comes from isiZulu. They say in isiZulu: “Ngiyageza”, (I am going to bath).*

Interviewer: *Explain, how you managed to build your isiZulu vocabularies during the early stages of acquisition?*

Interviewee: *I had a tendency of using Chichewa expressions that are close to isiZulu in both structure and meaning to people I know. For example, when I want some water to drink, I would say in Chichewa “Ndikufuna Madzi akumwa”, while demonstrating with my hand. They would correct and tell me to say in isiZulu: “Ngifuna amanzi aphuzwayo”. This is how I started learning isiZulu.*

Interviewer: *State which social or religious practices assisted you in acquiring spoken isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *Dawah (calling others to the fold of Islam) gatherings helped me a lot to improve my spoken isiZulu. Local speakers used to deliver their talks in isiZulu for the benefit of the audience. Through this, I managed to learn many isiZulu words and expressions.*

Interviewer: *who do you consider to be your main informal teacher/s of isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *Learners have been instrumental and encouraging in as far as my acquisition of isiZulu is concerned. They used to complain to me in isiZulu, and this motivated me to learn and master the language so that I can be able to assist them accordingly.*

Interviewer: *Give an example of words, phrases or expressions you acquired through your learners and explain the context under which such words were acquired?*

Interviewee: *One day I called one learner to find out from his progress in Arabic and Islamic lessons. This learner said to me “Arabic yangishaya”. I understood from this that Arabic was challenging to him.*

Interviewer: *What roles does isiZulu play in your life?*

Interviewee: *IsiZulu has helped me a lot, because I am now able to resolve problems and misunderstandings between learners. Learners also enjoy my lessons, because they are conducted in their own language. I am also able to interact well with learners' parents by using isiZulu.*

Interviewer: *What pieces of advice would you give to someone who wants to learn isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *They should interact more with children and have regular conversations with them. Secondly, they should not be shy to ask for the meaning of a word not known to him or her.*

Interviewer: *Does long stay in South Africa, particularly Durban mean that one would be more proficient in isiZulu than the new comers? Explain?*

Interviewee: *Long stay in Durban does not make someone become more proficient in isiZulu. One can have a short stay in Durban and yet speak a better isiZulu than the old comers. It depends on individuals' commitment to learn the language.*

Interviewer: *Does educational background play any role in language acquisition? Explain?*

Interviewee: *Yes, educational background play a vital role in language acquisition, for example, there are some words which are difficult to memorize, so you need to write them down and find time to memorize them.*

Interviewer: *Who (in terms of gender and age group) do you consider to be good informal teachers of isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *Men between 40 – 50 years are the best teachers of isiZulu. Women in general and the young men do not seem to be committed to isiZulu, as they are greatly influenced by the west, hence like to bring English terms in their isiZulu conversations.*

Interviewer: *Is there any difference between adults and children acquirers of isiZulu, in as far as the pace of acquisition is concerned?*

Interviewee: *There is a huge difference between the two. Tongues of children are softer compared to those of adults. Many adults too seem not to care about their new challenges, unlike children who always aim to overpower the challenge at hand. Adults find it difficult to pronounce some click words in isiZulu such as 'qaphela' which means "be aware". Children however, do not experience any pronunciation problem; they speak isiZulu like the locals.*

Interviewer: *Are there any similarities between isiZulu and Chichewa which is the Malawi's National Language? Illustrate with examples wherever necessary.*

Interviewee: *There are of course many words that are slightly similar in both structure and meaning. For example; the word "father", in isiZulu is **ubaba** and in Chichewa is **ababa** / **bambo**. The word "night" in isiZulu is called **ebusuku** while in Chichewa is called **usiku**, "hunger" in isiZulu is **indlala** and in Chichewa is **njala**, "food" in isiZulu is **ukudla** and in Chichewa is known as **chakudya**.*

Field Notes

Before the agreed time of interviews clocked in, the teacher, as usual was in class conducting her lesson. Upon knowing of my arrival, she asked me if I would like to accompany her while delivering her lesson to learners. I accepted the offer and requested her if she could allow me to use the mini tape recorder to record the lesson proceedings for the benefit of my study. She granted me permission to record. The title of her lesson for this day was "Umra". This is a minor form of pilgrimage Muslims perform in Makkah (Mecca). After her presentation, some learners wanted the teacher to explain to them the meanings of some Arabic words that showed up in her presentation such as *ihram*, *Kaaba*, *rakat* and others. Below is how she presented her lesson in isiZulu:

I-umra uhambo olungwele enkolweni yamasuluman. Loluhambo luya endaweni engcwele okuthiwa eMekka. Kunemigomo nemibandela okumele ukuthi uyilandele uma ufuna ukuyokwenza i-umra. Okokuqala okumele ukwenze ukuba nenhloso yokuthi uyokwenza i- umra uyenzela ukuzuza u musa ka Allah. Okwesibili ukugqoka i- ihram mande ungene eMekka uyigqokela endaweni okuthiwa i- miqaat. Okwesithathu uya kozungeza i- ka'ba kuze kube isikhombisa. Bese uthandaza amarakat amabili endaweni ebizwa ngokuthi Maqaamu Ibrahim. Okwesine uya ezintabeni ezimbili okuthiwa iSwaffa neMarwa, ugijima phakathi kwazo kuze kube

isikhombisa wenza neDua. uma usuqedile usugunda izinwele ekhanda, ngalokho usuyiqedile i- Umra yakho.

Interview No. 2: A madressah teacher at Marrian-hill Islamic Centre (Desai) Durban.

Date: 03. January, 2011

Time: 10:00am – 11:10am

Venue: Marrianhill (Desai) Mosque

Interviewer: *Kindly introduce yourself and state in which year did you come to South Africa and how old were you when you entered the country for the first time?*

Interviewee: *My name is YY and I came to South Africa in the year 2000.*

Interviewer: *How did you learn isiZulu and what has been your experience?*

Interviewee: *I learnt isiZulu thorough Madressah learners and the people around me. Whenever I talk to them and commit errors in the process, they correct me instantly and through that I learnt the language better than I could do using books. Children may sometimes laugh at you but at the end will correct you.*

Interviewer: *Explain how you managed to build your isiZulu vocabularies in your early days of acquisition?*

Interviewee: *Ifirst worked as a shop attendant and whenever a customer came to ask for a commodity in isiZulu, I used to ask my colleague who was a native speaker of isiZulu to show me the requested item. Once shown, it remained in my head. It also happened that when the local people greeted me in isiZulu on the street, I used to respond in my broken English and they could teach me the various forms of greeting in isiZulu. For example they told me that whenever I am going pass by a single person I should say **sawubona**, (hallo), and if they are many I should say '**sanibonani**'. In both instances the respondent/s would respond saying '**yebo**'. They also taught me the famous Zulu greeting that is **kunjani** (how are you) for a single person and*

ninjani directed to two or many people. My early interactions with the local people centred on various forms of greetings.

Interviewer: *What advice would you give to someone who wants to acquire isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *One must not be shy when communicating to locals in isiZulu. S/he should just speak freely with a belief that if s/he commits errors, a person talking to would provide corrections and in so doing one would continue learning the language. Secondly, an acquirer should read more of isiZulu literature and lastly, s/he should interact a lot with many isiZulu speakers. If you visit your Zulu friends in their homes and interact with them frequently, you would acquire isiZulu easily. Allow me also to say that teaching through the medium of isiZulu makes one perfect his /her isiZulu. Taking part in community activities can also enhance acquisition of spoken isiZulu.*

Interviewer: *What type of teaching are you referring to?*

Interviewee: *Any teaching requires explanation of various concepts to learners, and this is better achieved if it is done through learners' mother tongue. However, in my case, I refer to Madressah kind of teaching.*

Interviewer: *Does your long stay in RSA suggests in any way that you know isiZulu better than those who came after you?*

Interviewee: *No, that is not always the case there are reasons that can make new comers know isiZulu better than old comers like myself who came to South Africa in the 1993. For example, when I came to South Africa, in my early days I lived among the Xhosa in the Eastern Cape and I had no access to isiZulu. When I moved to KwaZulu Natal, isiZulu became a new language to me. In this case, those who entered South Africa after me, but were exposed to isiZulu would acquire it better than me.*

Interviewer: *In your opinion, does previous education play any role in as far as acquisition of a second language like isiZulu in your case is concerned?*

Interviewee: *Yes, it helps one in learning new words and reading of isiZulu literature*

Interviewer: *Is IsiZulu and Chichewa related in anyway?*

Interviewee: *The two languages are very close to each other, as there are many words that are similar to each other despite slight differences in pronunciation. For example, an isiZulu word **ubuntu** is equivalent to a Chichewa word **umunthu**; **inkhuni** (firewood) is equivalent to **nkhuni** and **umthunzi** (shade) is equivalent to **mthunzi** in Chichewa.*

Field Notes

As we progressed with our interviews, his son (Possibly at the age of 5), came in and said to him: “*Baba! Uyakubiza uma*” (Dad! My mother is calling you). He responded by saying: “*Mtshela angilinde kancane*” (Tell her to wait for a while).

Interview No 3: A cleaner at Marrian-Ridge Islamic Centre and part time photographer.

Date: 03. January, 2011

Time: 01:20 – 02: 00 pm

Venue: Marrian-Ridge Mosque

Interviewer: *Kindly introduce yourself and state in which year did you come to South Africa?*

Interviewee: *My name is YE and I entered South Africa on 4th March, 1999.*

Interviewer: *How old were you when you first entered South Africa?*

Interviewee: *I cannot remember, but I was born in 1970 and entered the country in the year 1999.*

Interviewer: *How did you learn isiZulu and what has been your experience?*

Interviewee: *when I came to South Africa, I did not know any single word of isiZulu. I learnt isiZulu through my work as a photographer. A photographer as you know, meet many people*

and the local Zulu people don't like a black African speaking English to them, hence I had no other option but to learn isiZulu.

Interviewer:*Tell me how exactly you started speaking isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*I started speaking a broken isiZulu and the native speakers used to correct me and through that I acquired the language.*

Interviewer:*What type of people in your opinion, do you consider to be the best teachers of isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*Girls, women and the old people in general and not boys.*

Interviewer:*Why not the boys?*

Interviewee:*Most boys are naughty and they do not like foreigners as they see them as competitors in the labour market of the country, hence are not willing to teach them isiZulu.*

Interviewer:*How do you practice your isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*Where I stay in Desai – Marrian-hill, isiZulu is spoken everywhere and I practice through interacting with friends.*

Interviewer:*Does knowledge of isiZulu has any significance in your life?*

Interviewee:*IsiZulu plays a very significant role in my life. For example, when some naughty local Zulu boys talk to you in isiZulu and if you happen not to be fluent in the language, they take advantage of you and they may even robe you. Unlike when you fluently communicate to them through the medium of isiZulu, they tend to think that you are local and treat you with the respect you deserve. Even those who might know your originality, with a sound spoken isiZulu they cannot mistreat you as they may think of you as someone who has lived in South Africa for many years and that you may have some ways and something to defend yourself with should they provoke you.*

Interview No. 4: A madressah teacher at Kwapata Islamic Centre, Maritzburg, Durban.

Date: 04. January, 2011

Time: 10:30am – 11:40 am

Venue: Islamic Dawah Movement Offices (West Str. –Durban).

Interviewer: *Kindly introduce yourself and state in which year did you come to South Africa?*

Interviewee: *My name is AM and I entered South Africa in 1992.*

Interviewer: *How old were you when you first entered South Africa?*

Interviewee: *I was 40years old.*

Interviewer: *Explain what has been your experience in as far as your acquisition of isiZulu is concerned?*

Interviewee: *I learnt isiZulu by leaving in an environment where isiZulu is spoken. Secondly, through being in an environment of madressah with learners who are native speakers of isiZulu. The two things mentioned above, forced me to use whatever isiZulu word I knew, particularly during the madressah time. Whenever, I used isiZulu, learners used to correct me when I make mistakes and I used to write down such corrections. Adults too used to assist me whenever I struggled with the language, particularly when making announcements in the mosque soon after the prayers. The secret is that you should not be shy in your early stages of acquisition to communicate with people using the little you know from the target language. By using isiZulu, the local people will take you as one of them and will be much willing to teach you their language. Another thing that helped me a lot is that I had a habit of asking other people, mostly when preparing a speech for Friday prayers. I used to write such speeches in English first and then take them to someone who is knowledgeable in both English and isiZulu and I should ask such an individual to translate it for me into isiZulu. When translated, I should then repeatedly read it to the translator until I am satisfied with my pronunciation of words before delivering it to the audience. These strategies helped to slowly start acquiring isiZulu. I now speak isiZulu*

although I may not match the native speakers of the language. People can easily understand me despite the problem of mispronunciation.

Interviewer:*It appears that through teaching and communicating to the local people, you have been able to acquire isiZulu to the certain degree. Is there any other thing that really motivated you to acquire isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*The thing is that my job as a madressah teacher requires me to share the little knowledge I have with learners and my learners speak no any other language besides isiZulu. This being the case, I was left with no any other option but to acquire the language of the people so that knowledge can be transmitted easily.*

Interviewer:*What are other social practices that contributed to your acquisition of isiZulu besides those mentioned above?*

Interviewee:*I have been very open and helpful to people and they too have been open to me. People in my locality trust me to the extent that they could seek my counselling in their family matters. Many families bring their cases to me, including those who do not belong to my faith. I like to visit people regularly and attend funerals. Through all these, people took me as a relative and through such intensive interaction with people, I have been able to acquire isiZulu without much difficulties.*

Interviewer:*Tell me how you used to communicate during your early stages of isiZulu acquisition?*

Interviewee:*In March 1997, when I came to Kwapata (in Maritzburg), there was a local lady I used to teach with who acted as my interpreter because she knew a bit of English. As she interprets, I also used to pick up some few isiZulu words through her interpretation. This gave me a good start and I built on it to develop my spoken isiZul*

Interviewer:*How would you rate your isiZulu, compared to that of your children?*

Interviewee:*My children know isiZulu better than myself, this is because they spend most of their times with their peers. They speak isiZulu competently than our own Malawian mother tongue (Chichewa). I as a parent also learn a lot from my children. The children sometimes could use a word or phrase that I have never come across in my life. For example, one day my child saw a worm during rainy season and he screamed “a! a! Umsundo lo”. I was totally surprised as to how he knew the name of a worm in isiZulu, while I did not know it. Another incident worth of mentioning has to do with my younger daughter .when we came to Durban, we first settled in Marrian-hill, and within two weeks from the date of arrival, she got a Zulu friend whom she used to play with. I was shocked one day to discover the mode of communication used between the two that my daughter was addressing her using her mother tongue (Chichewa) while her friend addressed her using isiZulu as her mother tongue and the only language she knew. It was amazing that the two could understand each other and even spend many hours together in that situation. I am happy that the very same daughter is now a fluent and native-like speaker of isiZulu.*

Interviewer:*What do you think could be the reason why children seem to learn a language faster than adults?*

Interviewee:*Openness is the chief contributing factor. They do not feel shy to use the target language. They are not afraid of reprisal that could result from the incorrect use of the target language. Children advise and teach each other freely. This contributes to more interactions, hence, faster acquisition.*

Interviewer:*Does educational background play any role in the acquisition of a language?*

Interviewee:*Yes, education plays a significant role in the acquisition of a second language. If you go as far as standard 8, you may be able to write down new words you may have come across in your second language. There are few among the local people who can speak English and if you are also able to speak English, then you can learn isiZulu from them through English.*

Interviewer:*How would you describe the attitude of Zulus to those who want to learn their language?*

Interviewee:*Each one of them becomes helpful to those who want to learn their language. Zulus do not like a black African using any other language besides isiZulu. When you make attempts to learn isiZulu, they help you and do not get annoyed of any errors you may commit in the process. Instead, they help you to learn the language quicker.*

Interviewer:*Does long stay in the destination country or town has any significance in the acquisition of the destination language?*

Interviewee: *Those who over stay in the towns where a target language is spoken, are better placed to know the language than the new comers, but this could only happen if they show interest to acquire the target language.*

Interview No. 5: A former madressah teacher and community worker in KwaMashu, Durban, (currently living in Mumtikazi, Marrian-Hill).

Date: 05. January, 2011
Time: 10:30am – 11:40 am
Venue: Mumtikazi Mosque.

Interviewer:*Kindly introduce yourself and state in which year did you come to South Africa?*

Interviewee:*My name is IQ and I entered South Africa in the year 1986.*

Interviewer:*How old were you when you first entered South Africa?*

Interviewee:*I was 24 years old.*

Interviewer: *How did you learn isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*When I first came to South Africa, I lived in KwaMashu whereby then there was no any other language spoken in KwaMashu besides isiZulu. Even English, it was not common to hear people communicating in English. Almost everyone used isiZulu as the only vehicle of*

communication. It was therefore necessary to acquire isiZulu so that I can communicate with people.

Interviewer:*Explain, how exactly you started acquiring isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*I had Madressah learners who could not speak English and they used to communicate using isiZulu. I could sometimes ask them the meaning of a certain word and they could laugh at me sometimes, but through that I learned the language. Besides learners, some adults too could laugh at me because of my broken isiZulu, but at the same time correct me. This was my life all the time.*

Interviewer: Are there any other social practices or responsibilities that you may consider to have played a role in your acquisition of isiZulu?

Interviewee:*We used to conduct a play with learners and whenever I prepare a play in English, I used to contact a native speaker of isiZulu to translate it into isiZulu and through such translations I have learnt a lot. There were many activities that we used to drill our learners, particularly for the year end learners displays known as **Jalsa**.*

Interviewer:*What motivated you to acquire isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*I had no any choice but to master isiZulu. This is because every person in my surrounding at that time spoke isiZulu. I had no any other contact with the outside world beyond KwaMashu. All the people around me were native speakers of isiZulu. I had few contacts with Yaos to the extent that sometimes it could take more than five months without speaking Chiyao.*

Interviewer:*What do you think could have happened if you were to live in area with a high concentration of your country men?*

Interviewee:*Besides acquiring a language, there is an aspect of pronunciation. Had it been that I came to South Africa 40 or 50 years ago but lived in towns like others, using Chiyao or English with Indians and meeting the Zulus occasionally, I would have still acquired the basic communicative skills, but still I could have faced serious problems in pronunciation and localized vocabularies necessary for deep understanding of the language. In other words, I could*

only speak a broken isiZulu. Because I have lived with the native speakers of isiZulu, despite being able to communicate in isiZulu, they could sometimes laugh at me for errors in pronunciation. What was good is that after laughing at me, they used to teach me the correct pronunciation. Had it been that I lived outside the environment of the target language, I could not be able to learn this.

Interviewer:*Is there any relationship between long stay in the destination country and the degree of the destination language acquired?*

Interviewee:*No, there is no any significant relation between the two.*

Interviewer:*Besides Madressah learners, who else helped you to master isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*Wife. I married a Zulu lady and this being the case, isiZulu was the only language spoken in the house. Through marriage, one learns a lot. Sometimes you quarrel and in the process you learn a language relevant to that situation which you would not have been able to acquire it outside the house and from any source besides your wife.*

Interviewer:*Is it true that one may not be able to acquire isiZulu unless he marries a Zulu lady?*

Interviewee:*You do not necessarily marry to learn isiZulu. You marry for other reasons, but in the process you find yourself enjoying the advantage of having easy access to isiZulu.*

Interviewer:*What roles does isiZulu play in your life?*

Interviewee:*isiZulu helps me a lot. I am greatly involved in community work, not only in Muslim communities, but across the board. Sometimes I attend political and government meetings and because of my community roles, I am asked to speak. Through isiZulu, I am able to accustom myself with people and the people too take me as one of them. If you do not know the language, you may not be able to participate and the sad part is that some locals may not realize the reason for your failure to participate and may wrongly attribute it to pride, arrogance and selfish.*

For example, it happened in KwaMashu between 1986 and 1987 when serious political violence broke out. People's houses were gutted down and many people lost their lives. The UDF party at that time approached me and asked if I could accommodate the affected people at KwaMashu Mosque. Despite being a Malawian national, I automatically became part and parcel of the South African system and the language in this case, cemented the relationship and bridged up the gaps.

Interviewer:*Are there any similarities between isiZulu and Malawian languages?*

Interviewee:*Yes, there are similarities between isiZulu and Malawian languages like Chichewa. A word from one language may refer to the same thing in the next language, of course with a minor difference in pronunciation. For example, an isiZulu word 'mlamu' is equivalent to a Chiyao word 'alamu'. You may say in Chiyao 'aliuli alamu' and its isiZulu equivalent is 'kunjani mlamu wami'. The big difference between the two languages is that isiZulu is characterised by click sounds. For example: 'ngiqinile mfwetu'.*

Interviewer:*Does age has any impact on language acquisition?*

Interviewee:*For adults, there are things that are cemented in their mother tongue and when using another language, mother tongue features tend to reflect. Children on the other hand acquire the target language better because they do not have any other well established language to compare with. A child therefore, would acquire a better click and pronunciation. Adult learners acquire their second language in comparison with their mother tongue. They are like learning a language through a dictionary. Even for pronunciation, adults are prone to transfer patterns of pronunciation from the native language into the second language.*

Interviewer:*Does previous education has any effect on second language acquisition?*

Interviewee:*Yes, an educated person learns language better than uneducated; this is because a learned person knows many factors of language.*

Field Notes

Despite the fact that this interview was conducted through the medium of Chiyao, it was observed that the participant kept on using the word ‘yebo’ (yes) while nodding his head in agreement

Interview No. 6: A former Madressah teacher at Nchanga Islamic Centre, Durban.

Date: 06. January, 2011
Time: 10:00am – 11:00 am
Venue: Over-port.

Interviewer: *Kindly introduce yourself and state in which year did you come to South Africa?*

Interviewee: *Mynname is TM and I entered South Africa in 2004.*

Interviewer: *How old were you when you first entered South Africa?*

Interviewee: *I was 28years old*

Interviewer: *How did you learn isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *I learnt isiZulu through boarder Madressah learners who are native speakers of the language concerned. Whenever I communicated to them using English, they responded in isiZulu. They kept on saying: “**uma umnyama kumele ukhulume isiZulu**” (as long as you are a black person, you must speak isiZulu). This is how I started learning the language. I am happy that I am now able to speak isiZulu fluently.*

Interviewer: *How would you rate your isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *I would give myself “good” since it is not my native language.*

Interviewer: *Can you explain further how exactly you managed to acquire isiZulu from your boarder Madressah learners?*

Interviewee: *What used to happen is that sometimes learners could pick up a quarrel or even fight each other, and when they come to report the matter to me as a staff on duty for that particular day or week, I used to learn few words related to the incident. The context could also aid my understanding as some learners used to come and report the matter without putting on their shirts. Sometimes you encounter words that are similar to Chichewa, though with difference in pronunciation, but you can still use your judgement to understand its meaning. Sometimes a learner could come to you with an empty plate, and you understand right away that he has missed the food. When he reports the matter to you verbally, it becomes easy for you to learn the key words from the verbal report. Since the incident is understood from the non verbal extra-linguistic factors, attention therefore tends to focus on words related to the incident. This is how I learnt isiZulu.*

Interviewer: *Would you kindly give me examples of words or expressions that you have acquired through the above mentioned situation?*

Interviewee: *A student would come to my office with an empty plate saying “**Sheikh! angitholanga ukudla**” (Sheikh, I did not get the food). Sometimes when there is a delay in preparation of food, a group of them would come to my office and complain “**Sheikh! asidlanga namhlanje**” (We have not eaten today).*

Interviewer: *Would you kindly mention more examples of similarities between isiZulu and Malawi’s Chichewa?*

Interviewee: *In isiZulu for example, we say “**Hlala pansi**” (seat down) while in Chichewa we say: “**Khala pansi**”. The Chichewa equivalent word of “**idla**” (eat) in isiZulu is “**idya**”.*

Interviewer: *What advice would you give to those who want to acquire isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*They should not be shy to speak the language. They should interact with the native speakers as much as possible and they should also avoid using English.*

Interviewer:*Does long stay in the destination country has any effect on language acquisition?*

Interviewee:*No, some of us have grandfathers who came to South Africa long ago, but until today they have not yet perfected their isiZulu. Long stay does not necessarily mean that you would know the language better. What matters is practice. The more you practice, the more you perfect your language.*

Interviewer:*What motivated you to acquire isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*It is my teaching profession that motivated me a lot. As a teacher, you aim to make your learners understand the concepts better. This can hardly be achieved without using learners' mother tongue.*

Interviewer:*What roles does isiZulu play in your life?*

Interviewee:*It helps in general communication purposes. For example, if I want to ask for a direction, I can use my isiZulu and people would assist me without any hesitation unlike when one uses a language other than isiZulu. The ordinary Zulus assume that every black person is able to speak isiZulu, and based on this perception, the use of English by a black person is regarded as an act of arrogance and pride on part of the speaker.*

Interviewer:*In your opinion, do you think age has any effect on second language acquisition?*

Interviewee:*Children learn language faster than adults. This is because of the level of interest children show on new things. Adults on the other hand are choosy. For example, if one particular word proves to be difficult to pronounce, adults would look for an alternative easy word and would not bother about the difficult one.*

Interviewer:*Did your previous education play any role in your acquisition of isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*No, previous education does not matter, what matters is the interest an individual may develop on acquisition of the target language.*

Interviewer:*Are there any social activities or engagements that you may consider to have aided your acquisition of isiZulu? If yes, explain how?*

Interviewee:*My participation in sports, particularly football, has assisted me a lot. During football game, jeering and supporting activities take place. These involve a lot of talking on the side of the supporters. It is during this time when one is able to learn few words, phrases and expressions related to the game. During the football match, quarrels may erupt among players and many words associated with anger take centre stage. These words cannot be learnt in a classroom except in this situation and context. It is also observed that when one team defeat the other, the winning team teases the losing one and in most cases, deep and strong words are used.*

Interviewer:*Would you kindly give examples of words or expressions you have acquired through your participation in sports?*

Interviewee:*When supporting, for example, expressions such as “**fakani umfuto nizowina**” (put more efforts, you will win), “**abakwazi ukudlala ibhola**” (they cannot play soccer), are common.*

Interview No. 7: A tailor in Chatsworth, Durban.

Date: 07. January, 2011
Time: 14:00pm – 15:00 pm
Venue: Savanna Park, Pinetown.

Interviewer: *Kindly introduce yourself and state in which year did you come to South Africa?*

Interviewee: *My name is EB and I entered South Africa in 2007.*

Interviewer: *How old were you when you first entered South Africa?*

Interviewee: *I was 21 years old.*

Interviewer: *Explain how did you acquire isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *Working as a tailor, I learnt isiZulu through my workmate. As you may know that there are many women in tailoring industry and I learnt the language through them.*

Interviewer: *Tell me who exactly taught you isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *When I came to my first tailoring job, I met some Malawian friends who were fluent speakers of isiZulu, and it was them who facilitated for me to find a Zulu speaking girl friend and through her I acquired isiZulu. At that time, I couldn't speak good English due to my poor educational background.*

Interviewer: *How far did you go with education?*

Interviewee: *I went as far as standard 8 only.*

Interviewer: *Explain how, you used to communicate with your girlfriend in your early days of your relationship?*

Interviewee:*I used my broken English and she could understand me well and respond using isiZulu. As time went on, I started picking up the language and today, no one could insult me in isiZulu without understanding him/her.*

Interviewer:*Is there anyone else besides your girlfriend who contributed to your spoken isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*My friend from Malawi (name withheld) who came to South Africa before me and he was an eloquent speaker of isiZulu. My uncle's children also helped me a lot, as they always communicated to me using isiZulu only.*

Interviewer:*How important is isiZulu to your life?*

Interviewee:*It is important because it is the language of wide communication, particularly here in KwaZulu- Natal.*

Interviewer:*Why would you prefer communicating in isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*Because when you communicate to local people using English, they respond saying that they are not white people and they demand that we communicate in isiZulu.*

Interviewer:*Is there any difference between adults and children in terms of rate of acquisition of the target language like isiZulu in your case?*

Interviewee:*Yes, there is a difference, for example, my uncle's first born came to South Africa at the age of 3 and there is a wide gap between myself and him in the rate of acquisition of isiZulu. He knows isiZulu better than I do. This is because he left Malawi before mastering any Malawian languages and when he came to KwaZulu- Natal, he took isiZulu as his main language.*

Interview No. 8: A lady working as a maid in an Indian home in Over-port Durban.

Date: 10. January, 2011

Time: 10:00am – 11:00 am

Venue: World Assembly of the Muslim Youth (WAMY) premises in Durban.

Interviewer:*Kindly introduce yourself and let us know when did you first enter South African?*

Interviewee:*My name is SM and I entered South Africa for the first time in the year 2006.*

Interviewer:*How old were you when you first entered South African?*

Interviewee:*I was 22 years.*

Interviewer:*How did you acquire isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*I learnt it through my workmates, particularly, women.*

Interviewer:*Explain, what was the experience like during your early stages of acquisition?*

Interviewee:*At first, I used to communicate with my colleagues using my broken English, and they used to respond in isiZulu. This is how I started gaining some basic vocabularies which later on helped me to communicate fully.*

Interviewer:*What motivated you to acquire isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*I wanted to communicate with the locals, because isiZulu is the dominant language in KwaZulu-Natal. Besides this, the Zulus don't like seeing another Black African using English when communicating to them.*

Interviewer:*Some male foreigners, including Malawians, tend to believe that for one to be able to master isiZulu, he must get married to a local Zulu woman. What is your take on this, and does this apply to women immigrants too?*

Interviewee:*That is not true, you marry to satisfy your natural feelings and not specifically for language acquisition.*

Interviewer:*How do you rate your isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*good*

Interviewer:*How would you describe isiZulu in terms of difficulty and easiness?*

Interviewee:*isiZulu is a very easy language to learn although one may not reach the level of a native speaker.*

Interviewer:*Which area of isiZulu do you find it to be challenging?*

Interviewee:*Pronunciation of some words is challenging. However, natives may still understand us just in the same manner they understand children.*

Interviewer:*What roles does isiZulu play in your life?*

Interviewee:*Make me free to communicate with others without any fear at all.*

Interviewer:*What fears one may have when s/he is not able to communicate using isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*You may easily be identified as an immigrant and subject yourself to some funny comments and names like Makwerekwere, a discourteous word they refer to foreigners.*

Interviewer:*What would be your advice to the new acquirers of isiZulu?*

Interviewee:*They should not be shy in using their half-baked isiZulu. Zulus are happy to see you speaking their language, and if you make mistakes, they will happily correct you. Secondly, if one knows English, s/he should avoid using it.*

Interviewer:*Why should they avoid using English?*

Interviewee:*Some people understand isiZulu well, but cannot speak it. This is because they do not practice it and instead, they use English or any other alternative language. It will cost you a lot of time to learn isiZulu if you do not practice it.*

Interviewer:*In your opinion, who would master isiZulu faster between educated and non educated Malawian immigrants?*

Interviewee:*Uneducated would acquire it faster because s/he do not have alternative language to use in place of isiZulu. This forces one to focus on mastering the dominant language.*

Interviewer:*Does long stay in Kwazulu Natal has any impact on acquisition of isiZulu?*

Interviewee: *No, new comers may know isiZulu better than the old comers. It depends on individual's intelligence.*

Interviewer:*In your opinion, do you think age has any effect on second language acquisition? Explain?*

Interviewee:*Yes it has. Children acquire language faster and better than adults' acquirers.*

Interviewer:*Does gender has any effect on language acquisition? Why?*

Interviewee:*Yes it has. Women for example acquire isiZulu faster than most men; this is because women like new things. To them, speaking a foreign language is fashionable. Men hold on to their culture and language.*

4.4 Conclusion

This Chapter was set out to present data as well as some findings of the responses from the interviews. Both male and female adults above the age of 20 years participated in this research, and out of 30 interviews conducted only eight selected samples were presented for the reason mentioned at the beginning of this Chapter. The participants responded to various questions aimed to tap into their experiences in the acquisition of isiZulu. Interviewees gave accounts of their experiences, explaining procedures and strategies they used to acquire the target language.

The findings of this chapter have shown that Malawians find it easy to acquire isiZulu, and this is because of the similarities and structural closeness between isiZulu and the dominant Malawian indigenous languages like Chichewa and Chiyao. Data has also shown that both instrumental and integrative types of language learning motivations are the driving forces behind Malawians acquisition of isiZulu. Malawian immigrants live in the midst of Zulu people, hence the need to equip themselves with orientations and practices that would see them being able to socialize and connect with the target language group. On the other hand, they are required to earn a living and consequently they have to master the dominant language of the destination labour market. The following chapter focuses on analysis and discussion of the presented raw data. This is where the raw data will be examined closely and processed into meaningful information.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the analysis and discussion of the empirical findings that have been presented in chapter 4. In this chapter, responses from the interviews and observation are analysed and discussed with the support of various theories on second language acquisition, particularly those which have to do with adult immigrants as well as the acquisition of the destination language. The aim of this chapter is to provide answers to the initial research questions raised in the introductory chapter. Content analysis approach has been used in the analysis of the findings for this study. This approach, as discussed in Chapter 3, involves a careful scrutiny of the body of the raw material with an aim of identifying themes and categories (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). The following themes and categories were identified from the transcribed interview data.

5.2 Informal teachers of a destination language.

Results from question number one and other related probing questions that inquired about Malawian immigrants' experiences in the acquisition of spoken isiZulu, reveal three sources of input through which Malawian immigrants acquire isiZulu. These sources include learners, workmates, particularly women and interaction with the general public. The findings from interviewees involved in teaching in various madressah establishments in greater Durban, clearly indicated that learners have been instrumental to Malawians' acquisition of isiZulu. Interviewee number 6, reports that whenever he communicated with his learners through the medium of English, they jokingly kept on telling him that "*uma umnyama kumele ukhulume isiZulu*" (as long as you are a black person, you must speak isiZulu). Such remarks influenced him to dedicate his time in the acquisition of isiZulu through his own learners. Although learners could sometimes laugh at him whenever he committed errors in isiZulu, the interviewee appreciated

the fact that learners would still put him right by providing the correct version of a wrongly uttered expression or mispronounced words.

The findings also show that interviewees, particularly madressah teachers, who have extended interactions with their learners beyond the normal learning and teaching hours, have advantage of being exposed to various areas of language use. This is evident from an interviewee number 6, who worked as a teacher at a boarding madressah. He mentioned that whenever he worked as a teacher on duty for a particular week and when learners brought their after-hours complaints to him in those days, he noticed a tremendous improvement in his spoken isiZulu. He reports that whenever learners launched complaints to him through the medium of isiZulu, his focus was always to learn and master new words and expressions related to a particular situation and cases brought by learners. He explains that sometimes a learner could come with an empty plate to complain saying “*sheikh, angitholanga ukudla*” (Sheikh, I did not get the food), and by the time a learner launches his complain verbally, he would have understood it already from the context.

The results also reveal that local workmates, who work as labourers in the informal business sector, play an important role in aiding the Malawian immigrant labourers in their acquisition of isiZulu as they provide them with the necessary inputs. Interviewee number 2 reports that he worked as a shop attendant in his early days of stay in South Africa, and whenever a local isiZulu speaking customer asked for a commodity he did not know its name in isiZulu, he asked his Zulu workmate to show him the item and by so doing, he learnt a lot from his friend.

Besides learners and workmates, the findings also reveal that the general public also constitutes a reliable source of input for Malawian immigrants acquiring isiZulu in Durban. Interviewee number 2 recalls that when greeted in isiZulu by the local people he met on the street, he used to respond using what he called “broken English”. The locals taught him how to use various forms of greeting in isiZulu. He mentioned that he learnt to distinguish between greeting forms such as “*sawubona*” (Hello), to a single person and “*sanibonani*” to many, “*kunjani*” (how are you) to a single person, and “*ninjani*” to many.

5.3 Determinants of isiZulu acquisition by Malawian immigrants

On the question of what pieces of advice would they (Malawian immigrants) give to the new comers who would want to acquire isiZulu, the interviewees outlined the following four interrelated factors which they deemed to be critical to the acquisition of a second language, and in this case, isiZulu. The four interconnected factors are: 1. regular interaction with the native isiZulu speakers, 2. openness to the local people, 3. avoiding the use of English to those who may know it and lastly, 4. that one should not be shy to use the target language. These factors are discussed in detail in the following relevant sections.

5.3.1 The role of interaction

Interviewee number two, a Madressah teacher at Marrianhill Islamic Centre, explained that frequent visits to homes of Zulu friends and regular interaction with them with constant conversation in isiZulu, would lead to one's perfection in isiZulu. *Interaction*, as understood from the findings here, can be defined as "...learning by doing" (Chiswick and Millers 2001: 256). The results on the determinants of isiZulu acquisition are in line with Chiswick and Miller's Model of destination language attainment. The two scholars assert that the practical use of input gained from interlocutors has a positive impact on one's destination language proficiency. Comprehension as noted by Krashen (1981), is an integral part of second language acquisition, and it is through exposure that second language acquirers can interact with native speakers, comprehend the language and obtain input needed for the destination language acquisition. Yager (1998: 889) remarks that "...opportunities for informal contact with native speakers of the language in a wide variety of communicative situations probably contribute to students' linguistic improvement".

It is important, however, to mention that while exposure is critical to destination language acquisition, its usefulness is materialised only if a second language acquirer is interested to grab the opportunities that come with it. It appears that Malawian immigrants realised the role of exposure in second language acquisition, because almost every interviewee alluded to the aspect

of interacting with the native speakers of isiZulu when asked about factors that enhance acquisition of this language.

It is worth mentioning that not all interactions are conducive to second language acquisition. Yager (1998) cites Polanyi's (1995) study that explained how female students studying abroad in Russia found it difficult to deal with aggressive Russian males in unpleasant interactions that were not conducive to second language acquisition. It is therefore imperative that linguistic contacts and interactions must be conducive if these have to yield the expected results.

5.3.2 Openness

Openness to the native speakers of isiZulu is one of the social factors cited by interviewees that enhance the acquisition of isiZulu. When asked about other social practices that contributed to his acquisition of isiZulu, Interviewee number 4, said

I have been very open and helpful to people and they too have been open to me. People in my locality trust me to the extent that they could seek my counselling in their family matters. Many families bring their cases to me, including those who do not belong to my faith. I like to visit people regularly and attend funerals. Through all these, people took me as a relative and through such intensive interaction with people; I have been able to acquire isiZulu without much difficulties.

The quotation above is in line with Schumann's Acculturation Model (1986), which claims that languages are culture-bound and that second language learners will acquire the target language to the degree they integrate to the culture and practices of the second language speech community. Hoffman (1989) remarks that second language acquisition does not take place in isolation, but rather takes place within a particular social and cultural context. Second language learners therefore have to be socially integrated with the destination language group in order to create more social contacts which are likely to facilitate the acquisition of a target language. Second language learners or acquirers are also required to be open enough to members of the target language group, and they should consider them to be their reference point.

5.3.3 Avoiding the use of English

Part of a response from an interviewee number 8, when asked about what would be her advice to the new immigrants who want to acquire isiZulu, was that *“if one knows English, s/he should avoid using it”*. In other words, isiZulu should be the only medium of communicating with the local people. The very same informant when asked why they should avoid the use of English, she said: *“Some people understand isiZulu well, but cannot speak it. This is because they do not practice it and instead, they use English or any other alternative language. It will cost you a lot of time to learn isiZulu if you do not practice it”*.

It is understood from the findings above that second language acquirers should not avoid the use of the target language if they want to become proficient speakers of that particular language. Mistakes or errors that destination language acquirers can commit while trying to communicate to native speakers through the medium of the target language, would provide them with an opportunity to receive a feedback on the correct use of a destination language.

5.3.4 Avoiding shyness

The findings of this research show that shyness is one of the psychological factors that inhibit the acquisition of the target language. In his response to a question about determinants of isiZulu acquisition as a second language, interviewee number 2 said *“One must not be shy when communicating to locals in isiZulu. S/he should just speak freely with a belief that if s/he commits errors a person talking to would provide corrections and in so doing one would continue learning the language”*.

Shyness is a result of fear that comes due to low proficiency in the destination language. Spolsky (1989) as discussed in Chapter 2 observes that anxiety in second language learning interrupts acquisition of new lexical items and even those already acquired lexical items may not be remembered because of the excessive worry and stress. Interviewees emphasized the point that new second language acquirers should not be shy to ask for the meaning of words which they do

not know. Furthermore, they should not be shy to engage in isiZulu conversation with native speakers.

Second language acquirers or learners particularly adults, tend to avoid the use of their target language in fear of being laughed at, should they commit errors. Schumann (1986) observes that this avoidance comes because of the acquirers' doubts on correctness of second language words they would like to use. Shyness in this case will deny second language acquirers opportunity to practice the language in question. Interviewees, therefore, are of the view that the isiZulu second language acquirers who are not shy to converse with isiZulu native speakers, would easily attain proficiency in isiZulu. Schulz who kept a record of her language learning experience in Columbia recalls her experience and says:

I still sub-vocally rehearse what I will say in stores and other business contacts. I probably try to over compensate for my lack of accuracy by saying more than a native speaker would say in a particular contact. At least I get some strange looks from sales people when I recite my prepared speeches. I have the feeling that my rehearsing and subsequently relatively fluent initial interaction does not really help me get appropriate input. I must appear quite fluent in Spanish when I start out but breakdown pretty quickly after my prepared repertoire is exhausted (Schulz and Elliott, 2000: 112 – 113).

5.4 Similarities between isiZulu and Chichewa

When I came here I observed that isiZulu was not a difficult language to learn as it has some words which are similar to languages spoken in Malawi, like Chichewa and Chiyao. I also observed that some words which Malawian youth used as a street language originate from isiZulu (Interviewee number 1).

Findings from the question that inquired about distance between isiZulu and Chichewa languages, and some responses from question number 1 as well as its follow up questions reveal that the two languages are very much close to each other. Interviewees noted that there are many words from the two languages that share same meanings with a slight difference in pronunciation. From the examples given, it also shows that the two languages are structurally close to each other. Interviewees cited isiZulu examples of words such as *ubuntu* (human-ship),

izinkuni (firewood), *umthunzi* (shed), *ebusuku* (night), *ubaba* (father), *indlala* (hunger) whose Chichewa equivalence are *umunthu*, *nkhuni*, *mthunzi*, *usiku* and *baba* respectively. The quotation above is one of the responses to a question number one that sought to find out about interviewees general experiences of isiZulu acquisition. Interviewee number 1 remarked that she was able to acquire isiZulu simply because it is a simple language to acquire as it has much in common with her native Chichewa language. It is also understood from her account that she was unknowingly exposed to isiZulu right in Malawi before she moved to South Africa. While in South Africa, she realised that some words which she heard from Malawian youth in the streets were of isiZulu background. She cited expressions such as “*John ndi mfana wabwino*” (John is a good boy), “*ndikupita ndikageze*” (I am going to bath). The highlighted words from the two expressions originate from isiZulu words *umfana* and *ukugeza*.

Chiswick and Miller (2001), observe that structural closeness between learners’ first and second language is vital to second language learning. Similarities between the two languages concerned have a positive impact in the manner and pace in which one acquires second language. Chiswick and Miller’s observation is in line with the findings of this research where acquirers attributed their proficiency in isiZulu to similarities between the two languages involved.

5.5 Educational background and Second language attainment

Interviewees differed significantly in their responses to a question that sought to investigate effect of educational background of second language acquirers to acquisition of the target language. Most of the interviewees were of the view that educated second language learners are likely to acquire their target language faster than uneducated ones. They explained that some words in the target language may be difficult to be memorised immediately. An educated learner therefore, could write them down and learn them or be reminded at a later stage. Unlike uneducated, if s/he cannot memorise them instantly it would mean losing them. Another reason cited by interviewees who held this view is that an educated person can diversify his/her learning strategies to include reading of literature in the target language; and they are also able to negotiate with their interlocutors meaning of the unknown words through English. Interviewees, particularly those who held this opinion, were of the view that educated second language learners

know more factors about a language and this being the case, it would be easy for them to acquire a second language. This view is in line with Chiswick and Miller's (2001) theory on determinants of second language attainment, which views a rich educational background of L2 learner as an added advantage.

Some interviewees however, were of the view that educational background has no effect on second language acquisition. According to them, what matters is an individual's interest in learning the language at hand. They argued that uneducated person would acquire the target language faster than an educated person simply because s/he may not have an alternative language to use while communicating with the local people.

In light of the two views above, it is imperative to highlight Becker's (2007) observation that factors that determine second language acquisition, do not work in separation, but rather they complement each other. While previous education has the potential to enhance second language acquisition, it is important to understand that this advantage is not automatic, but rather depends on whether a person makes use of it or not. While a literate person is able to record the new words by writing them down, it is not automatic that s/he would learn them and utilise them accordingly. Likewise can be said to holders of the second view, that the fact that one has no alternative for a target language, would not necessarily mean that s/he would acquire the target language faster than others. What is important is that a learner must fully utilize each and every opportunity available for second language acquisition.

5.6 Long stay and destination language acquisition

Regarding the issue of whether long stay in the destination country enhances acquisition of the target language, interviewees were of the view that long stay does not matter; but rather what matters is the commitment and interest one may have in acquiring the target language. To justify his view that a mere long stay in the host country does not contribute to one's pace and perfection in acquiring of a destination language, interviewee number 6 remarked: "*...some of us have grand fathers who came to South Africa long ago, but until today they have not yet*

perfected their isiZulu". According to interviewee number 6, it is the individual's commitment, interest, practice and intelligence that contribute to acquisition of a destination language. Interviewees' responses on the question of length of residence are not in line with Schumann's claims. He is of the view that long stay in the area of the target language group would likely cause more contacts between the second language acquirers and the target language group, and that the contacts would lead to acquisition of the target language (Schumann, 1986).

Chiswick and Miller (1998) concur with Schumann (1986) in his view that long stay in the destination language country is associated with proficiency in the target language. Becker (2007), however, observes that factors that determine second language acquisition do not work in isolation but they complement each other. He is of the view that excessive exposure alone might not be beneficial if the acquirers are not eager to make use of the opportunities that come with it. Baker's observation is in line with the findings of this research in as far as effect of the length of residence in the destination country is concerned. Participants of this research have reported that long stayers to Durban who have not developed interest to acquire isiZulu, have not mastered the language despite their long stay in KwaZulu-Natal.

5.7 Age and second language acquisition

On the question of whether age has any effects on second language acquisition, most of the participants indicated that children acquire language faster and better than adults. They attributed children's performance to a number of reasons which include their willingness to overpower linguistic challenges at hand, involvement with their peers, high degree of interest and non availability of an established mother tongue to compare with. Interviewee number 1 views a process of acquiring any second language as a challenge and that children seem to positively welcome this challenge, face it head on and overpower it by mastering the language concerned. He cites a situation whereby most adults find it difficult to pronounce some click words in isiZulu while children can easily pronounce such words.

Interviewee number 4 shares similar views to that of interviewee number 1 that children acquire second language faster and better than adults. He said that his children speak isiZulu better than their mother tongue Chichewa. It is, however, important to mention that none of the interviewees attributed children's good performance in second language acquisition to biological reasons. All reasons given are social and psychological in nature; hence it can be argued that adults too can perform well in the acquisition of a second language if they can manage both social and psychological factors of second language acquisition.

Scholars such as Klein (1996) and Stevens (1999) are of the view that maturational constraints affect acquisition of the first language and not second language. This implies that after puberty, one may not be able to acquire his or her mother tongue in the same manner a child could do. This is because children acquire their mother tongue naturally and unconsciously, while adults are likely to apply their consciousness and effort in the acquisition process. Klein (1996) argues that second language learning abilities do not end at puberty, since adults are able to learn a second language although the process may be less efficient when compared to that of children. Despite admiring the pace of isiZulu acquisition by children, the participants in this study who are adults themselves, confirmed to have acquired a reasonable level of oral skills of isiZulu using various strategies. The empirical findings of this research therefore, are in conformity with Klein (1996) and Stevens (1999) claims above.

The assumption by Lennesberg (1967), that brain becomes less flexible during maturational process; hence one may not be able to handle some learning tasks as s/he grows old, are not supported by the empirical findings of this study. It is the sociolinguistic environment as noted by Schulz and Elliott (2000) that influences the success rate of both children and adults in second language acquisition. The participants in this study have alluded that they have been able to acquire isiZulu through a meaningful intensive social interaction with their interlocutors who are native speakers of isiZulu. Schulz and Elliott (2000) argue that older learners have advantage of relying on their linguistic experiences and can easily integrate the new linguistic inputs with the already existing background knowledge. Schulz and Elliott (2000) observe that although adults may experience series of problems such as hearing, visual ability, low attention capacity, short

term memory and tip – of – the tongue (TOT) phenomenon, they enjoy an advantage of highly developed cognitive systems, hence can produce higher order associations and generalizations.

Fledge et al. (1999) argue that the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) has been applied with little specificity to the study of age related effect on second language performance of adult second language learners. Those who attribute foreign accent to passing of the Critical Period (CP), do not specify whether the claimed age-related constraints are due to loss of ability to articulate speech sound of a second language or loss of ability to auditory system that differentiate sound of a second language from that of the first language. They further argue that there is no consensus among linguists as to when Critical Period ends. Some claim that it ends at the age of 12, while others allege that it ends at 15. Critical Period Hypothesis entails that performance in second language would not be expected for those who begin to learn their second language at varying times after the CP. This further entails that adult second language learners are uniformly affected having passed a critical period. Fledge et al. (1999) contend that there is no concrete evidence for a difference in morphology and morpho-syntactic language fields for adults who are experienced speakers of their second language.

Interviewee number 5, remarked that children acquire a better click and pronunciation better than adults, and attributed it to non-availability of an established language to compare with. Adults on the other hand find it difficult to pronounce some words from a second language, as they tend to transfer phonological features of their mother tongue into destination language. This finding is in agreement with Swaffar (1989), who claims that although adults fail to acquire phonological and formal features of a second language of which children under the age of 14 years are capable of acquiring, they are able to acquire conceptual and discursive capabilities in second language faster than children.

5.8 Roles of destination language

Dominant destination language plays critical roles to the life of an immigrant. It is key in the integration process of immigrants into the main stream. At the same time, it is a medium of everyday communication and resource in both education as well as labour market.

5.8.1 Language as human capital

Dustmann and Fabbri (2003) remark that language is a human capital critical for the economic assimilation of immigrants in the destination country. When asked about the role of isiZulu in their lives, many participants in this study stated that conversational knowledge of isiZulu has assisted them in the execution of their duties. Interviewee number 1, who is a teacher at an Islamic school in Verulam, Durban, says *“isiZulu has helped me a lot, because I am now able to resolve problems and misunderstandings between learners. Learners also enjoy my lessons because they are conducted in their own language. I am also able to interact well with learners’ parents by using isiZulu”*.

Interviewee number 3 said *“I learnt isiZulu through my work as a photographer. A photographer as you know meets many people and the local people do not like to see a fellow black African speaking English to them”*. Another informant says: *“...my job as a madressah teacher requires me to share the little knowledge I have with learners and my learners speak no any other language besides isiZulu”*.

It is evident from the participants above that indeed a dominant destination language plays an important role in the economic activities of immigrants. It is also clear from the quotations that immigrants are economically disadvantaged in their host countries, because their skills tend to be of limited use in the receiving country due to language barriers. Dustmann and Fabbri (2003:697), note that “Language capital is an important component of host country’s human capital. It is usually not transferable to the migrants’ home economy”. They further comment that fluency in the dominant destination language is an important aspect in determining employment

prospects. Non proficient migrants find it difficult to find a job, as they fail linguistically to convince employers of their abilities and qualifications.

Esser (2006) notes that linguistic diversity may contribute to a problem of understanding and coordination at work and even in usual social interaction. Linguistic pluralism therefore triggers a need for a common language. While narrating his account on how he acquired isiZulu, interviewee number 2 said “*I first worked as a shop attendant and whenever a customer came to ask for a commodity in isiZulu, I used to ask my colleague who was a native speaker of isiZulu to show me the required item*”. It is important to mention that the request by the shop attendant to be shown an item on the shelf was emanating from the fact that he did not know an item’s name in isiZulu. This is a clear indication of a relationship between language and productivity at work place. Because of language inefficiency, this particular shop attendant was not able to perform his duties as a sales person without being aided by his workmate, and this retarded his performance. Instead of assisting his clients in a quickest possible manner, he was held back by a deficit in the dominant language in the labour market. He had to be assisted first before he could assist the client. Esser (2006) explains that language shortfall devalue other qualification and may even reduce productivity effect of individual’s wider occupational experiences.

5.8.2 Language socialisation

One of the critical purposes of acquiring a language is to be able to communicate in the language of that particular community in accordance to the norms of the target language group. Pennebaker and Graybeal (2001:82) note that

The ultimate purpose of language is to communicate ideas and thoughts with other people. The fact that writing about emotional topics can improve health suggests that talking about emotional topics with other people serves the same purpose. Talking to others about personal experiences ultimately serves two functions. The first, which we have seen in our writing studies, is helping the person come to some cognitive understanding of the event. The second is social: When someone talks to other people about his or her experiences, it alerts them to the person’s psychological state and, ultimately, allows him or her to remain

socially tied to them. Conversely, people who have traumatic experiences and do not tell their friends are more likely to live in a detached, isolated state.

When asked about the purpose of acquiring isiZulu, most of the participants in this research responded that they wanted to communicate with the target speech community, whom they describe as people who do not like to see a fellow Africans, communicating to them in a language other than isiZulu. This is done out of good intention as they perceive them to be very much close to them in many aspects, and therefore the circle has to be completed by speaking in the same language rather than using a foreign language. Interviewee number 1 for example, when asked about the roles of isiZulu in her life she said that

IsiZulu has helped me a lot, because I am now able to resolve problems and misunderstandings between learners. Learners also enjoy my lessons, because they are conducted in their own language. I am also able to interact well with learners' parents by using isiZulu.

Participant number 5, a former madressah teacher in KwaMashu, described the social significance of isiZulu to his life as follows

IsiZulu helps me a lot. I am greatly involved in community work, not only in the Muslim communities, but across the board. Sometimes I attend political and governmental meetings, and because of my community roles, I am asked to speak. Through isiZulu, I am able to accustom myself with people and the people too take me as one of them. If you do not know the language, you may not be able to participate and the sad part is that some local people may not realize the reason for your failure to participate and may wrongly attribute it to pride, arrogance and selfishness. For example, it happened in KwaMashu between 1986 and 1987 when serious political violence broke out, and many houses were set on fire and many lost their lives. The UDF Party at that time approached and asked if I could accommodate the affected people at KwaMashu Mosque. Despite being a Malawian national, I automatically became part and parcel of the South African system and the language in this case cemented the relationship and bridged up the gaps.

De Voretz and Werner (2000) point out that different political activities require varying levels of dominant language acquisition. Roles may include a voter, NGO activist, ethnic or mainstream elected official. Each level of political activity requires constituency to communicate with. The

greater the size of constituency, the greater the number of the target language speakers that must be reached, hence the greater the need for more proficiency on the side of a candidate or activist.

Fluency in the destination language, therefore, assists immigrants to structurally integrate into society of the receiving country, and learning of a language in order to socialize is one of the motivational factors that enhance acquisition of the target language. Esser (2006) observes that language acts as a symbol of belonging or foreignness. In other words, fluency in a destination language makes one become an active member of that particular speech community. On the other hand, inability to use language of the receiving country, triggers anti-immigrants sentiments and immigrants are therefore subjected to various social inequalities.

5.8.3 Language as a security measure

It is evident from the findings of this research that some immigrants, who are proficient speakers of isiZulu, use the language as a security measure to deter those intending to ill-treat them. When asked about the significance of isiZulu, an interviewee number 3 said that

IsiZulu plays a very significant role in my life. For example, when some naughty local Zulu boys talk to you in isiZulu, and if you happen not to be fluent in the language, they take advantage of you and they may even rob you. Unlike when you fluently communicate through the medium of isiZulu, they tend to think that you are local and hence treat you with respect you deserve. Even those who might know your origin, with a sound spoken isiZulu, they cannot mistreat you, as they may think of you as someone who has lived in South Africa for many years and that you may have some ways and something to defend yourself with, should they provoke you.

Mesch (2003) comments that acquisition and mastery of a destination language is critical in terms of social reaction to immigrants, and inability to speak the destination language may spark anti-immigrants sentiments. It is important to mention that the anti-immigrants attitudes sparked by one's avoidance or inability to speak language of the receiving country, may even lead to other serious treatment as alleged by interviewee number 5 above.

5.9 Concentration of immigrants and destination language acquisition

Interviewee number 5 attributes his mastery of isiZulu, to the fact that he was surrounded by isiZulu speakers, hence he had no other option but to acquire the dominant language. When enquired about what motivated him to learn isiZulu, he responded:

I had no choice but to master isiZulu. This is because every person in my surrounding at that time spoke isiZulu. I had no any other contact with the outside world beyond KwaMashu. All the people around me were native speakers of isiZulu. I had few contacts with my fellow Yaos to the extent that sometimes it could take more than five months without speaking Chiyao.

When further asked about what could have happened if he was to reside in an area with high concentration of his home people, he responded:

Had it been that I came to South Africa 40 or 50 years ago, but lived in towns like others, using Chiyao or English with Indians and meeting the Zulus occasionally, I could have acquired the basic communicative skills, but still I could have faced serious problems in pronunciation and localized vocabularies necessary for deep understanding of the language. In other words, I could only speak broken isiZulu.

Remarks made by interviewee number 5, in relation to high concentration of immigrants and language performance, are in line with opinions of most linguists. Esser (2006) remarks that factors that inhibit language acquisition include high level of ethnic concentration, intra-ethnic contacts, communication in the language of origin and availability of media in the language of origin. Intra-ethnic contacts promote the use of origin language, and hence affect acquisition of a target language in question.

Scholars (such as Mesch, 2003; De Voretz and Werner, 2000) observe that second language acquirers who reside in areas with high concentration of immigrants are less exposed to the target language and the tendency has potential of inhibiting acquisition of language of the receiving country.

It is, therefore, important for the destination language acquirers who share similar language of origin to avoid concentrating in one town or township. Schumann (1986) observes that when members of destination language acquirers are concentrated in one town or city, they tend to exclude themselves from the target language group and hence promote intra-group contacts instead of inter-group contacts that lead to acquisition of the target language. Intra-group contacts among country men would prompt them to use home language more than the destination language.

It is understood, from the above findings that destination language acquirers have to reside or at least spend most of their time in an environment where a particular target language is spoken in order for them to progress in their destination language acquisition. Interviewee number 4, when asked to give an account of his experience in as far as acquisition of isiZulu was concerned, he among others, responded, *“I learnt isiZulu by living in an environment where isiZulu is spoken”*.

5.10 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to analyse and discuss the empirical findings presented as raw data in Chapter 4. The data from interviews revealed the three sources of input through which Malawian immigrants acquire isiZulu. The sources cited are learners, workmates, and of course the general public. It is evident from the data that children and women tend to be very friendly and willing to teach isiZulu to foreigners, unlike men who take them as their competitors in the labour market. The Chapter also discussed factors which according to participants enhance acquisition. Four factors were mentioned in this regard and these are interaction, openness, avoiding the use of a language other than isiZulu and avoiding shyness.

On the effect of educational background, the participants differed. The majority were of the view that it influences acquisition positively, while others argued that educational background has no effects whatsoever on acquisition, but rather what is important is the individuals' commitment. On the notion of long stay and destination language acquisition, the participants'

opinion was that it does not automatically enhance acquisition, but again it is the individuals' seriousness to utilize both input and output opportunities at hand.

The Chapter proceeded to look at the effect of age on second language acquisition. Most participants indicated that children acquire language faster than adults, however, they attributed children's performance to socio-psychological factors and not biological factors as claimed by theories about Critical Period. Finally, the Chapter took a brief look at roles of isiZulu to the lives of the Malawian immigrants. The data confirmed the significance of isiZulu as human capital in the labour market, a tool for socialization and as a security measure.

CHAPTER 6

GENERAL CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This study was set out to explore and analyse the experiences of the Malawian immigrants in the acquisition of isiZulu in Durban. The research analysed various aspects of second language acquisition and strategies used by Malawians in their acquisition of isiZulu. The study was based on the assumption that the findings would reveal that adults too are capable of acquiring a second language irrespective of their age. This Chapter, therefore, presents a summary of the research findings, followed by suggestions for future research and an outline of the limitation to the study.

6.2 Summary of the findings from literature review

The literature review section for this study described language as a symbol of belonging or foreignness, besides being the medium of communication. The section further revealed that language is a form of human capital on the part of immigrants as its knowledge enhances job opportunities in the destination country. Language is used as a means by which immigrants get integrated into the main stream destination society, and at the same time overall success of immigrants' adaptation to the destination society is measured by the extent to which they are able to communicate with the locals using the target language.

The literature review described Malawians living in South Africa, as economic migrants since their motive to migrate was to earn a better living wage and that their migration was neither determined by war nor fear for persecution in their country. The review also differentiated between refugees and immigrants, as the former refers to those who leave their country due to war or fear of persecution, while the latter refers to those who migrate voluntarily. Based on this, Malawians in this study are referred as *immigrants* or *economic immigrants* and not *refugees*. The review has also pointed out differences among scholars regarding the degree of acquiring a destination language between refugees and immigrants. Cortes (2004) was of the view that

refugees are likely to acquire a destination language better than refugees simply because they are expected to remain in the destination country for a long period. Mesch (2003), however, was of the opinion that economic migrants would acquire the target language better than refugees, since their decision to migrate was influenced by the positive aspects of the destination country. Although this research did not compare the rate of acquisition between refugees and immigrants, empirical findings of this study, however, have shown that immigrants are indeed highly motivated to acquire the target language.

The review did also look at the importance of social factors in language acquisition and found out that its role is not limited to second language only, but it extends even to first language acquisition. Language is a social phenomenon; hence it is acquired in a particular social context. In his Acculturation Model, Schumann (1986) outlined a number of social and psychological factors that have potential of either inhibiting acquisition or enhancing it, depending on how one manages such factors. The Model, therefore, appealed to second language learners to be socially connected with the target language group for them to attain the target language. The Model also called on second language learners to be prepared mentally to undergo all the situations involved in second language acquisition and consider the target language group as their reference point. Spolsky (1989) notes that social context influence attitude and provides opportunity for learning in both formal and informal situations of language learning. He further remarks that first language can be well understood if social factors were to be included among those factors that explain acquisition, instead of confining it on Children's inborn abilities.

6.3 Summary of the interviews

Empirical findings from this study have shown that adults, just like children, are also capable of mastering a second language, if they can manage both social and psychological factors that impede the acquisition of a second language. Although most participants in this study subscribed to the notion that children acquire a second language better and faster than adults, reasons cited for their good performance are all social and psychological in nature. Among the reasons cited by the participants were that children are very much willing to face their new linguistic challenges positively and that they are highly motivated and interested to master the new

language. They are always in constant interaction with their peers and they do not feel shy to use the target language. They also tend to advise and teach each other freely.

This study therefore, argued and concluded that adults can also perform better, if they can manage both social and psychological factors of a second language. While acknowledging that their level of isiZulu would not match that of native speakers, it was interesting to note that all the participants alluded that they have acquired a reasonable level of isiZulu that enabled them to function well in their respective societies and various work places.

The study revealed a number of strategies used by Malawian immigrants in their early stages of isiZulu acquisition. These include the use of basic signs and illustrations together with simple Chichewa phrases. The structural closeness and the similarities between isiZulu and Malawian languages results in interlocutors were able to understand and advise them the correct use of isiZulu, hence providing them with the much needed inputs. Translation is another strategy used by the few educated ones who knew English. They could write down in English whatever they wanted to learn and then ask their colleagues for isiZulu translation. Reading of basic isiZulu literature is another strategy used by the few literate Malawian immigrants. The study has also established that women and children are the best informal teachers of a language and that young men on the other hand are not that friendly to immigrants as they see them as competitors in the labour force.

It is evident from the findings of this research that Malawians attitude towards the isiZulu speakers is that of wanting to be one of them, and be able to communicate effectively with members of the community. On the other hand, they also believed in isiZulu as the only vehicle through which they can enhance productivity in their various work environments. Malawians, therefore, were both integratively and instrumentally motivated to acquire isiZulu so that they could be able to socialize with the masses in their respective communities. They also needed isiZulu to survive in the labour market as its knowledge is critical for their economic adjustment in the region. IsiZulu is the dominant language of the labour market in KwaZulu-Natal and trade in the informal sector is facilitated through its use.

The study has also found that immigrants use proficiency in the destination language as a means of protection against the possible attackers. Immigrants' inability to speak the target language exposes their foreignness, a thing that subjects them to anti immigrants' sentiments and discriminatory treatment.

The findings of this research revealed 4 interconnected factors that are critical to acquisition of a second language. These are interaction, openness, avoiding the use of other languages besides the target language and lastly that one should not be shy to put into practice the acquired various aspects of the target language. The participants of this study have emphatically emphasized the importance of interaction to second language acquisition. Constant conversation with native speakers of a target language enhances acquisition as learners have an opportunity to comprehend the language and obtain input necessary for its acquisition. Openness to the native speakers of isiZulu is another social factor that enhances acquisition. Language is a social phenomenon, and learners have to be socially connected with interlocutors if they are to make progress in their learning.

The research has established that isiZulu and Chichewa, the Malawi's National language, are close to each other structurally and sometimes even semantically in some words. Most participants described isiZulu as a simple language to learn, and this is because the language has much in common with Chichewa.

On the question of whether educational background of a second language learner has any impact on acquisition or not, the participants differed significantly in their responses. Most of the participants however, were of the view that previous education of a learner has a positive impact on second language acquisition, as a learned person can record inputs for future reference. Furthermore, a learned person can beef-up acquisition by reading literature in the target language, unlike illiterate one, once s/he forgets a certain word, it would mean losing it. Some participants, however, held a view that educational background has no effect on second language acquisition, and that what is important is an individual's interest in learning the target language.

This study has also established that acquisition's advantage often associated with long stay in the destination location is not always automatic as the research revealed that there are immigrants of Malawian origin who overstayed in KwaZulu-Natal, but have not yet perfected their isiZulu skills. The participants unanimously pointed out that a mere long stay has no impact on acquisition of a destination language. It is, however, individual's commitment and interest in acquiring the target language that matters.

6.4 Limitations of the study

Research work is susceptible to limitations and this being the case, it is therefore important to highlight limitations involved in this study.

Although this study explores and analyses the experiences of Malawian immigrants in their process of acquiring spoken skills of isiZulu in various natural linguistic environments of greater Durban area, it does not however, attempt to test the proficiency level of isiZulu acquired by the participants. The study only focused on analysing empirical data solicited from participants' accounts of their narrations. Perhaps the future research work in this area, should consider testing the level of proficiency obtained by participants. Another limitation of this research is that an interview schedule was prepared in English, while most participants were illiterate. This limitation however, has been overcome either through Chiyao or Chichewa translations during one-on-one interview sessions, since the researcher is a competent speaker of both Chiyao and Chichewa languages.

6.5 Recommendations and suggestions for future research

As previously noted, the scope of this study did not include testing of the proficiency level of isiZulu acquired by the participants. I would therefore suggest that the future research on this area, should attempt to test the proficiency level of the participants so that findings from self-reported data in as far as mastery of the target language is concerned, could be verified accordingly.

Proficiency tests would therefore determine the actual extent to which Malawian immigrants attain and master isiZulu, hence, adding value to research in this area.

One of the most interesting findings of this research is the existing similarities between isiZulu and Chichewa, the Malawi's National Language. The study has found out that the two languages are both structurally and semantically close to each other and that Malawian immigrants have been able to acquire isiZulu easily because of its similarities with Chichewa. I suggest further research in this area to investigate the level of cross-cultural awareness between Zulu and the Malawian immigrants in order to examine how such cross-cultural understanding relate to second language acquisition. This will provide a better understanding as to how the Zulu people and the Malawians have been able to understand each other irrespective of language barrier on the side of Malawians during their early days of isiZulu acquisition. Some participants in this research have indicated that they used to communicate using signs and some illustrations during their early days of acquisition. Some even used basic Chichewa expressions that were close to isiZulu structurally and semantically, such as "*Ndikufuna madzi akumwa*" (I want some water to drink) whose isiZulu equivalent is "*Ngifuna amanzi aphuzwayo*". Under all these circumstances, still they were being understood by their interlocutors. It appears to me that there is a cross-cultural understanding between the two; hence recommends further investigation on this aspect.

Another recommendation is a research that will provide comparisons of immigrants from various countries of origin. It was established in this study that integrated immigrants will acquire the destination language better than those immigrants who isolate themselves as an intra-group. These conditions may allow us to address social problems that may lead to disintegration and a lack of inter-group relations.

The final most crucial recommendation would be to encourage the social and economic policy-makers to use research findings on language and acquisition. This may help to tackle problems of xenophobia and disintegration. The study has found that there may be improved productivity if immigrants acquire the destination language.

The socio-economic development is therefore dependent on the attainment of destination language. Local languages such as isiZulu in this study serve as an example and they become useful to the immigrants.

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Appendix A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Kindly introduce yourself and state in which year did you come to South Africa and how old were you when you first entered the county?
2. Explain, what has been your experience in as far as the acquisition of isiZulu is concerned?
3. Explain how you managed to build your early isiZulu vocabularies?
4. State, which of the social practices tend to enhance the acquisition (learning) of isiZulu?
5. Who do you consider to be your main informal teacher(s) of isiZulu and state the reason?
6. State in which ways or instances have you been acquiring (learning) isiZulu?
7. Give examples of isiZulu words, phrases or expressions that you learnt through the ways or instances mentioned above?
8. What roles does isiZulu play in your life?
9. What pieces of advice would you give to those who want to acquire isiZulu?
10. Does long stay in South Africa, particularly Durban mean that one would be more proficient in isiZulu than the new comers? In either way, explain why?
11. Does educational background play any role in the acquisition of isiZulu? In either ways, explain how?

12. Which type of people (in terms of gender and age group) do you consider to be the best informal teachers of isiZulu and why?

13. Is there any difference between adults and children acquirers of IsiZulu in as far as the rate of acquisition is concerned? In either ways, explain and give examples if necessary.

14. Are there any similarities between isiZulu and dominant Malawian languages like Chichewa and Chiyao? In either ways explain.

Appendix B

CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN AN INTERVIEW RESEARCH

I volunteer to participate in a research project conducted by Shoaib Mzoma, a student at the University of South Africa. I understand that the project is designed to gather information for his Masters Degree research work. I will be one of approximately 30 people being interviewed for this research.

1. My participation in this project is voluntary. I understand that I will not be paid for my participation. I may withdraw and discontinue participation at any time without penalty.

2. I understand that most interviewees will find the discussion interesting and thought-provoking. If, however, I feel uncomfortable in any way during the interview session, I have the right to decline to answer any question or to end the interview.

3. Participation involves being interviewed by the researcher. The interview will last approximately 30-an hour. Notes will be written during the interview and an audio tape will be used.

4. I understand that the researcher will not identify me by name in any report using information obtained from this interview, and that my confidentiality as a participant in this study will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.

5. I have read and understood the explanation provided to me.

6. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

7. I have been given a copy of this consent form.

My Signature Date

My Printed Name

Signature of the Researcher